A STUDY OF THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CORRELATES OF PEER PRESSURE IN EARLY AND LATE ADOLESCENTS

STUDENTS RESEARCH PROJECT

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PREFACE

Adolescent years are pivotal to adult life success. During these years the adolescents assume increased responsibility of self-direction in areas like socialization, independent living, education, employment, mental and physical health. However, adolescence is a period of transition during which change in group belongingness from childhood to adulthood takes place and creates a gap in an individual that contribute to uncertainty of behaviour, and it is characterized by introduction into risk behaviours like violence, unprotected sexual intercourse, and drunk driving. It is also observed that adolescence is the transitional period of life in which the individual experiences a number of changes in all developmental dimensions of the individual which creates disequilibrium in the personality.

Peer pressure is a sort of influence from a peer group or an individual on another person to change their values, or behaviours to suit other peoples convenience. This includes *membership groups*, in which individuals are "formally" members (such as political parties and trade unions), or social cliques in which membership is not clearly defined. In general, peer pressure is a form of social pressure by a group upon an individual who must take action in order to be accepted. It is noted that people frequently follow the majority judgment, even when the majority is wrong. The present study has felt the need to draw a comparative profile between early and late adolescents in terms of aggression, happiness and achievement motivation as the psychosocial correlates of peer pressure.

Chapter 1, highlights the developmental phase of adolescence and its unique characteristics along with the psychological correlates of peer pressure which bring a change in their life, either in positive or negative aspects.

A literature survey covering different facets of the life of adolescents and the selected variables of the study is highlighted in Chapter 2.

Chapter 3, delineates the methodological plan and procedural details adopted for the present research work.

Chapter 4 highlights the results section. It depicts age difference and gender difference with respect to peer pressure, aggression, happiness and achievement motivation. Correlational analysis for the entire sample is also provided.

Chapter 5 provides the necessary, relevant and logical explanations to the hypotheses of the present study along with supportive research evidences.

The conclusions of the study along with limitations, originality of the present work and areas of further research are described in Chapter 6.

The following section provides the bibliography of books, journals, e-journals, articles and dissertations in alphabetical order. Last, but not the least, at the end, a set of Appendices has been supplemented.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Adolescents experience hours of interactions with parents, peers, and teachers, but they also face dramatic biological changes, new experiences, and new developmental tasks. Relationships with parents take a different form, moments with peers become more intimate. The adolescent's thoughts are more abstract and idealistic. Biological changes trigger a heightened interest in body image. Adolescence have both continuity and discontinuity with childhood.

Offer et. al. (1988) studied the self-images of adolescents in the United States, Australia, Bangladesh, Hungary, Israel, Italy, Japan, Taiwan, Turkey, and West Germany, at least 73 percent of the adolescents displayed a healthy self-image. Although there were differences among them, the adolescents were happy most of the time, they enjoyed life, they perceived themselves as able to exercise self-control, they valued work and school, they felt confident about their sexual selves, they expressed positive feelings toward their families, and they felt they had the capability to cope with life's stresses: not exactly a storm-and-stress portrayal of adolescence.

Public attitudes about adolescence emerge from a combination of personal experience and media portrayals, neither of which produces an objective picture of how normal adolescents develop **(Feldman and Elliott, 1990).** Adults may portray today's adolescents as more troubled, less respectful, more self-centered, more assertive, and more adventurous than they were. However, in matters of taste and manners, the young people of every generation have seemed unnervingly radical and different from adults—different in how they look, in how they behave, in the music they enjoy, in their hairstyles, and in the clothing they choose. There is a moderate amount of outrageous behavior with hostility toward parental and societal standards. Acting out and boundary testing are time-honored ways in which adolescents move toward accepting, rather than rejecting, parental values. Most adolescents negotiate the lengthy path to adult maturity successfully, but too large a group does not **(Lerner, Roeser and Phelps, 2009).**

Ethnic, cultural, gender , socio-economic, age, and lifestyle differences influence the actual life trajectory of every adolescent **(Schlegel, 2009; Swanson, Edwards and Spencer, 2010).** Different portrayals of adolescence emerge, depending on the particular group of adolescents being described **(Fuligni, Hughes and Way, 2009).** Today's adolescents are exposed to a complex menu of lifestyle options through the media, and many face the temptations of drug use and sexual activity at increasingly young ages. However, too many adolescents are not provided with adequate opportunities and support to become competent adults.

1.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF ADOLESCENCE

1.1.1 PHYSICAL

- Experience onset of puberty, develop secondary sex characteristics.
- Grow rapidly, are often clumsy and uncoordinated
- Become highly self-conscious, body image can affect self image
- Fluctuate between hyperactivity and lethargy
- Need physical activity

1.1.2 COGNITIVE-INTELLECTUAL

- Develop ability to think abstractly, but many still think in literal terms
- Develop critical thinking skills and become more self aware, self critical
- Exhibit increased communication skills
- Become argumentative and demonstrate an intense need to be "right"
- Develop decision making skills and want a voice in their choices
- Show intense focus on a new interest but lack discipline to sustain it

1.1.3 EMOTIONAL

- Are unpredictable emotionally, are sensitive and prone to outbursts
- Are vulnerable to emotional pleas and can be easily manipulated
- Exhibit an increasing capacity for empathy

- Experience increasing sexual feelings, may engage in sexual behavior without realizing consequences

1.1.4 SOCIO-INTERPERSONAL

- Display a more developed social consciousness
- Are more aware of relationships and have a strong need to belong
- Exhibit desire for independence and autonomy
- Experience a shift in dependence on family to dependence on peers
- Able to critically compare parents with others.
- Seek deeper friendships based on shared interests, loyalty
- Experience increased interest in opposite sex, though may often feel uncomfortable and awkward with the other sex

1.1.5 MORAL

- Tend to be legalistic, focusing on " rules" and "fairness"
- Retain moral beliefs of parents but begin to test rules of childhood
- Are influenced by the values of peers
- Form a more personal conscience ,seek moral criteria that makes sense to them
- Exhibit a stronger sense of responsibility toward larger society

1.1.6 SPIRITUAL

- Exhibit "affiliated faith" (faith identity shaped by family and community)
- Are open to service opportunities primarily to connect with peers, test skills
- Can be open to new prayer experiences
- Seek adult role models who live their faith authentically
- Desire a deeper relationship with God
- Begin moving away from religious imagery, beliefs, and practices of childhood; may begin to explore new images of God.

1.2 HAZARDS OF ADOLESCENCE

1.2.1 JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

The label juvenile delinquent is applied to an adolescent who breaks the law or engages in behavior that is considered illegal. Like other categories of disorders, juvenile delinquency is a broad concept; legal infractions range from littering to murder. The number of juvenile court delinquency caseloads in the United States increased dramatically from 1960 to 1996 but has decreased slightly since 1996 **(Puzzanchera and Sickmund, 2008).** Males are more likely to engage in delinquency than are females. However, U.S. government statistics revealed that the percentage of delinquency case loads involving females increased from 19 percent in 1985 to 27 percent in 2005 **(Puzzanchera and Sickmund, 2008).** Delinquency rates among minority groups and lower-socioeconomic-status youth are especially high in proportion to the overall population of these groups .A distinction is made between early-onset—before age 11—and late-onset—after 11—antisocial behavior. Early-onset antisocial behavior is associated with more negative developmental outcomes than late-onset antisocial behavior **(Schulenberg and Zarrett, 2006).** Not only is it more likely to persist into emerging adulthood but it is also associated with more mental health and relationship problems **(Loeber, Burke and Pardini, 2009).**

1.2.1.1 CAUSES OF DELINQUENCY

Adolescents in communities with high crime rates observe many models who engage in criminal activities **(Loeber et. al., 2007).** These communities may be characterized by poverty, unemployment, and feelings of alienation toward the middle class **(Thio, 2010).** Quality schooling, educational funding, and organized neighborhood activities may be lacking in these communities **(Molnar et. al., 2007**). A recent study revealed that young adolescents' school connectedness buffered the effects of negative family relations and poor self-control on the development of conduct problems **(Loukas, Roalson and Herrera, 2010).** Certain characteristics of family support systems are also associated with delinquency **(Farrington, et. al., 2009).** Parents of delinquents are less skilled in discouraging antisocial behavior and in encouraging skilled behavior than are parents of non delinquents. Parental monitoring of adolescents is especially important in determining whether an adolescent becomes a delinquent **(Laird et. al., 2008)**. A study of families living in high-risk neighborhoods revealed that parents' lack of knowledge of their young

adolescents' whereabouts was linked to whether the adolescents engaged in delinquency later in adolescence **(Lahey et. al., 2008).** Family discord and inconsistent and inappropriate discipline are also associated with delinquency **(Bor, McGee and Fagan, 2004).** Finally, having delinquent peers greatly increases the risk of becoming delinquent **(Brown and Larson, 2009).**

1.2.2 DEPRESSION

Rates of ever experiencing major depressive disorder range from 15 to 20 percent for adolescents **(Graber and Sontag, 2009).** By about age 15, adolescent females have a rate of depression that is twice that of adolescent males. Among the reasons for this gender difference are that females tend to ruminate in their depressed mood and amplify it; females' self-images, especially their body images, are more negative than males; females face more discrimination than males do; and puberty occurs earlier for girls than for boys **(Nolen-Hoeksema, 2010).** As a result girls experience a piling up of changes and life experiences in the middle school years that can increase depression **(Hammen, 2009).** Certain family factors place adolescents at risk for developing depression (**Graber and Sontag, 2009; Liem, Cavell and Lustig, 2010).** These include having a depressed parent, emotionally unavailable parents, parents who have high marital conflict, and parents with financial problems. Poor peer relationships also are associated with adolescent depression **(Kistner et. al., 2006)**. Not having a close relationship with a best friend, having less contact with friends, and experiencing peer rejection all increase depressive tendencies in adolescents. Problems in adolescent romantic relationships can also trigger depressive symptoms, especially for girls **(Starr and Davila, 2009).** A recent study of third- through ninth-graders revealed that one aspect of social support in friendship may have costs as well as benefits **(Rose, Carlson and Waller, 2007).** In the study, girls' co-rumination (as reflected in excessively discussing problems) predicted not only an increase in the positive quality of the friendship, but also an increase in further co-rumination and in depressive and anxiety symptoms. The presence of rumination in girls' depression was also reflected in a recent study by **Chaplin, Gillham and Seligman (2009)** in which 11- to 14-year-olds were taken and it was found that initial assessment of worry, anxiety, and oversensitivity were more strongly linked to an increase in girls' than boys' depressive symptoms one year later.

1.2.3 SUICIDE

Suicide behavior is rare in childhood but escalates in adolescence and then increases further in emerging adulthood **(Park et. al., 2006).** Suicide is the third-leading cause of death in 10- to 19-year-olds today in the United States (**Piruccello, 2010).** Although a suicide threat should always be taken seriously, far more adolescents contemplate or attempt it unsuccessfully than actually commit it **(Miranda et. al., 2008).** In a national study, 17 percent of U.S. high school students in 2005 said that they had seriously considered or attempted suicide in the last 12 months **(Eaton et. al., 2006).** This percentage has declined since 1991. Just as a lack of affection and emotional support, high control and pressure for achievement by parents during childhood are related to adolescent depression, such combinations of family experiences also are likely to show up as distal factors in adolescents' suicide attempts. Adolescents' peer relations also are linked to suicide attempts. Adolescents who attempt suicide may lack supportive friendships. And a recent study revealed that peer victimization was linked to suicide thoughts and attempts **(Klomek et. al., 2008).**

1.2.4 ADOLESCENT SEXUAL BEHAVIOR

Adolescent sexuality is sexual feelings, behavior and development in adolescents and a stage of human sexuality. Sexuality is often a vital aspect of teenagers' lives (**Poton, 2000).**The sexual behavior of adolescents is, in most cases, influenced by their culture's norms and mores, their sexual orientation, and the issues of social control such as consent laws.

In humans, mature sexual desire usually begins to appear with the onset of puberty. Sexual expression can take the form of masturbation or sex with a partner. Sexual interests among adolescents, as among adults, can vary greatly. Sexual activity in general is associated with various risks including unwanted pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases including HIV/AIDS. The risks are elevated for young adolescents because their brains are not mature; several brain regions in the frontal lobe of the cerebral cortex and in the hypothalamus important for self-control, delayed gratification, and risk analysis and

appreciation are not fully mature. The creases in the brain continue to become more complex until the late teens, and the brain is not fully mature until age 25 **(Casey, Getz and Galvan, 2008).** Partially because of this, young adolescents are generally less equipped than adults to make sound decisions and anticipate consequences of sexual behavior **(Chapman, et. al., 2000).** Many adolescents are not emotionally prepared to handle sexual experiences, especially in early adolescence. Early sexual activity is linked with risky behaviors such as drug use, delinquency, and school-related problems **(Dryfoos and Barkin, 2006).**

1.3 CONCEPT OF PEER PRESSURE

Peer pressure is influence of a peer group, observers or individual exerts, that encourages others to change their attitudes, values, or behaviors to conform to groups. A person affected by peer pressure may or may not want to belong to these groups. They may also recognize *dissociative groups* with which they would *not* wish to associate, and thus they behave adversely concerning that group's behaviors. Peers become an important influence on behavior during adolescence. As adolescents search for identities separate from those of their parents, they experiment with new identities by participating in the different behaviors of their peers **(Allen, Moore and Kuperminc, 1995).** Because they are unsure of their own identities, peer acceptance is important to many adolescents. Acceptance enables a teen to join a particular peer group and identify with the behaviors and attitudes of that group. Adolescents are often willing to conform to their peers' behaviors in order to be accepted **(Newman and Newman, 1976).** Conformity may create problems, however, when peers influence each other to participate in deviant activities. For instance, several studies have revealed connections between peer pressure and substance abuse **(Flannery et. al., 1994; Thomas and Hsiu, 1993),** cigarette smoking **(Newman, 1984),** and early sexual behavior **(Duncan-Ricks, 1992; Janus and Janus, 1985)**. Certain teens show more susceptibility to such deviant peer pressures than others **(Berndt, 1979; Wall, Power and Arbona, 1993).** Therefore it is important to determine the factors that may predict high susceptibility, in order to find ways to prevent adolescents from conforming to deviant peer pressures.

Peer pressure is an omnipresent force whose "power can be observed in almost every dimension of adolescents' behavior – their choice of dress, music, language, values, leisure

activities." **(Santrock, 2007).** In understanding how peer influence operates it is useful to distinguish between two different ways in which peers affect decisions: passively and actively. Most of the literature has focused on the passive case, where an agent's behavior is influenced by others' behaviors, but not necessarily because of explicit lobbying by others. This includes learning effects, where information about the benefits of taking an action are communicated from one agent to another, as well as externalities where an agent's relative payoffs from different actions are affected by the behavior of others. Beyond such passive peer effects, there are also active peer effects where an agent takes a deliberate action at a cost to him or herself in order to influence other agents' choices of action.

Peers become an important influence on behavior during adolescence, and peer pressure has been called a hallmark of adolescent experience **(Brown, 2004).** Peer conformity in young people is most pronounced with respect to style, taste, appearance, ideology, and values **(Durkin, 1996)**. Peer pressure is commonly associated with episodes of adolescent risk taking (such as delinquency, drug abuse, sexual behaviors **(Cherie, 2012*),*** and reckless driving because these activities commonly occur in the company of peers **(Durkin, 1996).** Affiliation with friends who engage in risk behaviors has been shown to be a strong predictor of an adolescent's own behavior **(Spear and Kulbok, 2001)**. The importance of peers declines upon entering adulthood **(Brown, Eicher and Petrie, 1986*).***

Popular adolescents are the most socialized into their peer groups and thus are vulnerable to peer pressures, such as behaviors usually reserved for those of a greater maturity and understanding. Socially accepted kids are often accepted for the sheer fact that they conform well to the norms of teen culture, good and bad aspects included. Popular adolescents are more strongly associated with their peer groups' likes such as alcohol, tobacco and drugs. Some studies also show that many popular students also make lower grades than less socially accepted kids. This is possibly due to the fact that popular students may spend more time worrying about their social life, or simply paying attention to their social life, rather than studying. Although there are a few risk factors correlated with popularity, deviant behavior is often only mild to moderate. Regardless, social acceptance provides more overall protective factors than risk factors (**Allen et. al., 2005*).***

1.3.1 TYPES OF PEER PRESSURE

1.3.1.1 PEER INFLUENCE

The successful formation and navigation of interpersonal relationships with peers is a process central to adolescent development in all cultures. In European-American cultural contexts, an ever increasing amount of each day is spent in the company of peers, from 10 percent as early as two years of age to 40 percent between the ages of seven and eleven **(Voydanoff and Donnelly 1999).** By high school, teens are spending more than half of their time in the company of their peers **(Updegraff et. al., 2001).** Because adolescents spend a large amount of their time with peers, it is not surprising that they play a highly influential role in adolescents' lives. The credibility, authority, power, and influence of peers is greater during adolescence than at any other time in life.

Although the process of socialization and individuation occurs in all cultures, the developmental time frame, goals, and practices are often unique **(Cooper, 1994).** In the United States, the adolescents' developmental path is characterized by a transfer in closeness from parents to peers. In comparison with the emphasis placed by European-American cultures on individualism, other cultures, Asian and African cultures in particular, accentuate the socialization of "interdependence, self-control, social inhibition, and compliance" **(Chen et. al.,** 1998**). Cooper (1994)** notes that the peer-like mutuality with which adolescents negotiate with their parents during their high school years is a uniquely European-American construct. In contrast, the universes of family and friends remain more distinct for Asian and Mexican immigrants **(Cooper et. al., 1994).** Studies on parent-child and adult mate relationships in Japan and the United States **(Rothbaum et. al., 2000)** suggest that each culture has a different path of development. In Japan, adolescence is characterized by more stable relationships with parents and peers.

1.3.1.2 DEVELOPMENT OF PEER INFLUENCE

Normal adolescent development in European-American cultures involves a gradual movement from the importance of relationships with family towards those with peers for socialization, self-definition, friendship, and support. Adolescent peer groups function more autonomously than children's peer groups, with less guidance or control provided by adults. As teens distance themselves from adults, they simultaneously draw closer to their peers

(Brown, 1999). In middle school, individuals begin to form small groups of friends based on mutual attraction, called cliques, which can help bolster self-confidence and provide a sense of identity or belonging. In adolescence, these smaller peer groups associated with childhood expand to recognize larger peer collectives referred to as crowds. **Brown (1999)** suggests that crowds are large, loosely defined groups of youths who choose to associate with each other based primarily on a common identification with certain characteristics or activities. Crowds help adolescents to decide with whom to associate. Through these crowds and cliques, adolescents demonstrate their identity to others and to themselves **(Brown, 1999). Spencer and Dornbusch (1990)** found that adolescents in the United States who are members of an ethnic minority, recent immigrants in particular, rely more heavily on the support of peer groups than European-American adolescents. The threat of not being accepted by their peers and the strain of belonging to two cultures can be especially difficult. **Wong (1998)** found that Chinese Canadian youths who associate with Chinese Canadian friends are less likely to be involved in delinquent behavior than those who have cross-ethnic friendships. These various peer associations exert increasing pressure on the adolescent to adopt certain behaviors and attitudes—pressure to conform.

Peer conformity, sometimes referred to as *peer pressure*, occurs when individuals choose to adopt the attitudes or behaviors of others because of real or imagined pressure. In Western cultures, as the amount of time spent with peers increases, so does the influence and support they provide. **Berndt (1979)** traced the developmental patterns of family and peer influence in American families and found that in the third grade, the influence of parents and peers are often in opposition to each other. However, these children are influenced more by their parents than their peers. By sixth grade, the influence of peers rises dramatically, but it tends to be found in different situations from those of parents. Consequently, the influence of parents and peers are not in opposition. In ninth grade, conformity to peers peaks and is again in strong opposition to parents. At this time, peers often endorse the adoption of antisocial standards that inevitably conflict with parental values and standards. American adolescents' movement towards independence peaks around ninth grade and is met with maximal opposition from parents **(Scholte, van Lieshout and van Aken, 2001).** Adolescent conformity to peer influence declines through late high school and college-age years, and the influence of parents and peers begins to coincide in a number of areas.

1.3.1.3 NEGATIVE PEER INFLUENCE

Popular conceptions regarding the influence of peers in adolescence often focus on their negative effects. Supportive relationships between socially skilled adolescents confer developmental advantages while coercive and conflictual relationships confer disadvantages. **Hartup (1996)** summarizes the situation with the following statement: "Knowing that a teenager has friends tells us one thing, but the identity of his or her friends tells us something else". Across a variety of cultural settings, adolescents tend to be friends with those who are most like them. In fact, sociodemographic characteristics are usually the strongest predictors of friendship formation. Different types of peer groups have unique capacities to encourage negative or positive behaviors in their members. Adolescent misconduct most often occurs in groups. In the United States, cliques are often distinguished from other peer groups through the pressure they exert on their members to conform to certain norms in school orientation, drug use, and sexual behavior. Across many cultures, perceived behavior and sanctions of friends are among the strongest predictors of an adolescent's misconduct **(Greenberger et. al., 2000). Hamm (2000)** found that when compared with European-American and Asian-American adolescents, African-American adolescents chose friends who were *less* similar in terms of academic orientation or substance use, but more similar in terms of ethnic identity.

1.3.1.4 POSITIVE PEER INFLUENCE

Peer relationships can be a powerful positive influence in the lives of adolescents. Natural observations of adolescents indicate that most adolescents discuss options with their friends before reaching a consensus about what to do. Rarely is one adolescent pressured to conform to the rest of the group. Moreover, high school students in several large samples reported that their friends discouraged drug and alcohol use, delinquent activities, and other types of antisocial behavior more than they encouraged them; they also claimed their friends encouraged studying for school subjects more than they discouraged it Adolescents choose friends who have characteristics or talents that they admire, which motivates them to achieve and act as their friends act. Friends encourage adolescents to study hard at school and can also help them think more creatively. High-achieving peers have positive effects on

adolescents' satisfaction with school, educational expectations, report-card grades, and standardized achievement test scores **(Epstein, 1983).** Students with friends who like school, get good grades, and are interested in school are more likely to graduate high school **(Ekstrom et. al., 1986).** Hence, having friends who believe that academic achievement is important is beneficial for adolescents.

1.3.1.5 FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS AND PEER INFLUENCE

Outside of the classroom, adolescents who have friends have better family relationships and more positive attitudes toward family relationships. Friendships can also compensate for inadequate families. For example, adolescents who have low levels of family cohesion but have close and supportive friends have levels of self-worth and social competence equal to their peers who come from cohesive families **(Guaze et. al., 1996).** Friends allow for high self-esteem (which includes freedom from depression) and self-worth, thereby promoting the exploration and development of personal strengths **(Hartup, 1999).** Furthermore, adolescents who are engaged in friendships are more likely to be altruistic, display affective perspective-taking skills, maintain positive peer status **(Savin-Williams and Berndt, 1990),** and have continued involvement in activities such as sports or arts **(Patrick et. al., 1999).** Finally, having close same-sex friendships in adolescence forecasts success in early romantic relationships in early adulthood **(Collins et. al., 1997).**

Although peers are very important for adolescents during this developmental stage, parents also play an influential role in adolescents' lives. **Steinberg et. al., (1992)** found that adolescents whose friends and parents support academic achievement perform better than adolescents who receive support from only one, or neither. Hence, both parents and friends are important for adolescents' development. Moreover, adolescents are less influenced by friends when they have close and involving relationships with their parents **(Steinberg and Silverberg, 1986).** The ability of friends to influence the behaviors and attitudes of adolescents is magnified when adolescents perceive that their parental relationship is negative or deficient in support and guidance **(Savin-Williams and Berndt, 1990).** Parenting styles can also affect peer influence. Authoritative parenting encourages adolescents to be less susceptible to peer influence specifically in domains in which peers

are engaging in unacceptable behaviors, but more susceptible to peer influence in domains that are approved by adults **(Mounts and Steinberg, 1995).** Hence parents can adjust their style of parenting to reflect these favorable outcomes.

In summary, peers are more influential in adolescence than at any other time in life. The quality of the relationship between adolescents and their peers, as well as the type of peers they associate with, play important roles in aiding or impeding their current and future functioning. There are aspects of all peer relations that are unique to the culture and environment in which they exist. The relationship parents have with their adolescents influences their children's susceptibility to negative peer influence. In other words Peer pressure is a part of a person's routine life. Commonly seen amongst teenagers, peer pressure can affect people's lives irrespective of their age or sex. The intensity of peer pressure generally varies with age and maturity. Main reasons behind peer pressure are rising communication gap between parents and children, intense desire to be an acceptable member of a group and a highly impressionable mind that fails to distinguish between what is right and what is wrong.

1.4 SELECTED VARIABLES

1.4.1 AGGRESSION

In psychology, the term aggression refers to a range of behaviors that can result in both physical and psychological harm to oneself, other or objects in the environment. The expression of aggression can occur in a number of ways, including verbally, mentally, and physically. Psychologists distinguish between different forms of aggression, different purposes of aggression, and different types of aggression. Aggression is action, i.e. attacking someone or a group. It is intended to harm someone. It can be a verbal attack--insults, threats, sarcasm, or attributing nasty motives to them or a physical punishment or restriction.

People with aggressive behavior tend to be irritable, impulsive, and restless. Aggressive behavior is intentional, meaning it's done on purpose, violates social norms, and causes a breakdown in a relationship. Emotional problems are the most common cause of aggressive

behavior. Occasional outbursts of aggression are common and even normal. Aggressive behavior is a problem because it occurs frequently or in a pattern. Generally speaking, aggressive behavior stems from an inability to control behavior, or from a misunderstanding of what behaviors are appropriate. Aggressive behavior can be reactive, or in retaliation. It can also be proactive, as an attempt to provoke a victim. It can be either overt or secretive. Aggressive behavior can also be self-directed. The key to handling aggressive behavior is to understand what the cause is.

An important new term has come into use: Indirect Aggression **(Heim, Murphy and Golant, 2003).** This is where gossip or rumors are spread about someone or where a person is left out, shunned, or snubbed. This behavior has been shown to be more common among girls because girls, in general, are more eager than boys to be accepted into their social group and to have close personal relationships. Having bad things said about you or being neglected or avoided is very hurtful to a teenage girl. Sometimes it is called Relational Aggression because it is designed to hurt certain relationships in the group and build other contacts. It is a way to manipulate relationships and create excitement. Viewing indirect aggression on TV increases this kind of action by the viewer. While aggression is usually a result of anger, it may be "cold" and calculated: for example, the bomber pilot, the judge who sentences a criminal, the unfaithful spouse, the merchant who overprices a product or the unemotional gang attacks. To clarify aggression, some writers have classified it according to its purpose: instrumental aggression (to get some reward, not to get revenge), hostile aggression (to hurt someone or get revenge), and annoyance aggression (to stop an irritant). When our aggression becomes so extreme that we lose self-control, it is said that we are in a rage.

1.4.1.1 TWO TYPES OF AGGRESSION

Psychologists also distinguish between two different types of aggression:

- **Impulsive aggression,** also known as affective aggression, is characterized by strong emotions, usually anger. This form of aggression is not planned and often takes place in the heat of the moment. When another car cuts you off in traffic and

you begin yelling and berating the other driver, you are experiencing impulsive aggression.

- **Instrumental aggression**, also known as predatory aggression, is marked by behaviors that are intended to achieve a larger goal. Instrumental aggression is often carefully planned and usually exists as a means to an end. Hurting another person in a robbery or car-jacking is an example of this type of aggression. The aggressor's goal is to obtain money or a vehicle, and harming another individual is the means to achieve that aim.
- Researchers have suggested that individual who engage in affective aggression, defined as aggression that is unplanned and uncontrolled, tend to have lower IQs than people who display predatory aggression. Predatory aggression is defined as aggression that is controlled, planned, and goal-oriented.

A number of different factors can influence the expression of aggression. Biological factors can play a role. Men are more likely than women to engage in physical aggression. While researchers have found that women are less likely to engage in physical aggression, they also suggest that women do use non-physical forms such as verbal aggression, relational aggression, and social rejection.

1.4.1.2 **CAUSES OF AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR**

A variety of factors can influence aggressive behavior, including:

- family structure
- relationships with others
- work or school environment
- societal or socioeconomic factors
- individual characteristics
- health conditions
- psychiatric issues
- life experiences

1.4.2 HAPPINESS

Happiness is the degree to which a person evaluates the overall quality of his present life as a whole positively. In other words, how much the person likes the life he/she leads **(Veenhoven, 1997).** One area of positive psychology analyzes subjective well-being (SWB), people's cognitive and affective evaluations of their lives. Progress has been made in understanding the components of SWB, the importance of adaptation and goals to feelings of well-being, the temperament underpinnings of SWB, and the cultural influences on well-being.

Reigning measures of psychological well-being have little theoretical grounding, despite an extensive literature on the contours of positive functioning. Aspects of well-being derived from this literature (i.e., self-acceptance, positive relations with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life, and personal growth) were operationalized. Three hundred and twenty-one men and women, divided among young, middle-aged, and older adults, rated themselves on these measures along with six instruments prominent in earlier studies (i.e., affect balance, life satisfaction, self-esteem, morale, locus of control, depression). Results revealed that positive relations with others, autonomy, purpose in life, and personal growth were not strongly tied to prior assessment indexes, thereby supporting the claim that key aspects of positive functioning have not been represented in the empirical arena. Furthermore, age profiles revealed a more differentiated pattern of well-being than is evident in prior research **(Ryff, 1989).**

The first survey studies that involved measures of happiness were performed in the USA in the 1960's. At that time happiness was also a topic in an innovating cross-national study on human `concerns' by **Cantril (1965).** Happiness is the degree to which a person evaluates the overall quality of his present life as a whole positively. In other words, how much the person likes the life he/she leads. The concept of happiness denotes an overall evaluation of life. So the appraisal that life is `exciting' does not mark it as `happy'. There may be too much excitement in life, and too little of other qualities. The overall evaluation of life involves all the criteria figuring in the mind of the individual: how good it feels, how well it meets expectations, how desirable it is deemed to be, etc. The object of evaluation is life as a

whole, not a specific domain of life, such as work-life. Enjoyment of work will add to the appreciation of life, but does not constitute it.

Well-being is a complex construct that concerns optimal experience and functioning. Current research on well-being has been derived from two general perspectives: the hedonic approach, which focuses on happiness and defines well-being in terms of pleasure attainment and pain avoidance; and the eudaimonic approach, which focuses on meaning and self-realization and defines well-being in terms of the degree to which a person is fully functioning. These two views have given rise to different research foci and a body of knowledge that is in some areas divergent and in others complementary.

The most elementary use of happiness data is to estimate apparent quality of life in a population. This is typically done to assess whether there is a social problem that requires policy intervention. If most people are happy, this suggests that the quality of life is good. Though life may not be ideal to all standards, it is apparently livable for most. Mass unhappiness marks serious shortcomings of some kind. In all modern nations, single persons take less pleasure in life than married persons; divorced and widowed persons are particularly unhappy. This difference in happiness between singles and couples is mostly greater than between rich and poor **(Veenhoven, 1984).** The discontent of the unmarried could be due to negative labeling, but it can also be attributed to loneliness and lack of social support. Still another problem is that the difference can be due to selection. Unhappy people may be less inclined to marry or be less attractive as a marriage partner **(Veenhoven, 1997).**

The aim of creating greater happiness for a greater number requires an understanding of its determinants. So far, the determinants of happiness are only dimly understood. Still, it is clear that various levels of human functioning are involved; collective action and individual behavior, simple sensory experiences and higher cognition, stable characteristics of the individual and his environment as well as freaks of fate. Tentative ordering of factors and processes is presented in a sequence-model. The model presumes that the judgment of life draws on the flow of life-experiences; particularly on positive and negative experience. This is what the utilitarian philosophers referred to as "pleasures and pains". The flow of experiences is a mental reaction to the course of life-events. The events which happen in life

are partly a matter of good or bad luck; such as in the case of accidents. Present life-chances root in past events and chance-structures; in societal history as well as individual development. An example may illustrate this four-step model: A person's life-chances may be poor, because he/she lives in a lawless society, is in a powerless position in that society, and is personally neither smart nor nice (step 1). Those individuals will run into a lot of adverse events. He/she will be robbed, duped, humiliated and excluded (step 2). As a result that person will frequently feel anxious, angry and lonely (step 3). On the basis of this flow of experience that person will judge life as a whole negatively (step 4). Some events are a matter of good or bad luck and happen irrespective of social position or psychological capabilities. Nor is the flow of life experiences (step 3) entirely shaped by the course of events (step 2). How pleasant or unpleasant we feel also depends on dispositions and interpretation. The strongest correlations observed are at the psychological level, happy people are typically better endowed than the unhappy. The common variance explained by such variables tends to be around 30%.

1.4.3 ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Achievement behavior is defined as behavior directed at developing or demonstrating high rather than low ability. Ability can be conceived either with reference to the individual's own past performance or knowledge, a context in which gains in mastery indicate competence, or as capacity relative to that of others, a context in which a gain in mastery alone does not indicate high ability. Motivation is generally regarded as the drive to achieve targets and the process to maintain the drive. Motivation provides an important foundation to complete cognitive behavior, such as planning, organization, decision-making, learning, and assessments.

Students' academic success is greatly influenced by the type of school they attend. School factors include school structure, school composition and school climate. The school that one attends is the institutional environment that sets the parameters of a students' learning experience. As schools are faced with more public accountability for student academic performance, school level characteristics are being studied to discover methods of

improving achievement for all students. Depending on the environment, schools can either open or close the doors that lead to academic performance **(Barry, 2005).**

Research shows that students who trust their teachers are more motivated and as a result perform better in school **(Eamon, 2005).** School policies and programmes often dictate the school climate. Furthermore, if a school is able to accomplish a feeling of safety, students can have success regardless of their family or neighbourhood backgrounds **(Crosnoe et. al., 2004).** According to **Muleyi (2008),** teachers do influence students' academic performance. School variables that affect students' academic performance include the kind of treatment which teachers accord the students. **Odhiambo (2005)** contends that there is a growing demand from the Kenya government and the public for teacher accountability. Schools are commonly evaluated using students' achievement data **(Heck, 2009).**

While appreciating the value of rewarding teachers who produce better results, teachers should not escape a portion of blame when students perform poorly. It has been proved that teachers have an important influence on students' academic achievement. Teachers play a crucial role in educational attainment as they are tasked with the responsibility of translating policy into action and principles based on practice during interaction with the students **(Afe, 2001).** In their study, **Wright, Horn and Sanders (1997)** conclude that the most important factor influencing student learning is the teacher. Teachers stand in the interface of the transmission of knowledge, values and skills in the learning process. If the teacher is ineffective, students under the teacher's tutelage will achieve inadequate progress academically. According to **Rivkin, Hanushek and Kain (2005),** there has never been consensus on the specific teacher factors that influence students' academic achievement. Researchers have examined the influence of teacher characteristics such as gender, educational qualifications and teaching experience on students' academic achievement with varied findings. **Akiri and Ugborugbo (2008)** have found that there is a significant relationship between teachers' gender and students' academic achievement.

Yala and Wanjohi (2011) and **Adeyemi, et. al., (2010)** have found that teachers' experience and educational qualifications are the prime predictors of students' academic achievement. However, **Rivkin et. al., (2005)** have found that teachers' teaching experience

and educational qualifications are not significantly related to students' achievement**. Etsey et. al., (2005)** study in Ghana found that the teacher factors that significantly contribute to low academic achievement are incidences of lateness to school, incidences of absenteeism, and inability to complete the syllabi. **Oredein and Oloyede (2007)** conclude that teacher's management of students' homework and assignments have an impact on student achievement, especially when it is well explained, corrected and reviewed during class time and used as an occasion for feedback to students.

Quite a bit of research has been done to identify the influence of classroom and school characteristics on academic performance. Student achievement variables aggregated to the school level have been used a great deal to describe school output but variables describing aggregation of properties of classrooms within schools have been studied somewhat less often in school analyses.

1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE PRESENT STUDY:

With these variables within the network of the present study, the objectives to be attained are as follows:

- To determine the effect of variation of age (early adolescents and late adolescents) on peer pressure, aggression, achievement motivation and happiness.
- To determine the effect of variation of gender (males and females) on peer pressure, aggression, achievement motivation and happiness.
- To assess the magnitude and direction of relationship of peer pressure with aggression, achievement motivation and happiness.

With the basic frame of study being laid down, the progression of the work moves on to the detail literature review in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 2

SURVEY OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

2.0 Literature survey is an important step of any research activity. It provides us with information regarding the previous research endeavours undertaken in the present area of

interest. Thus it serves as a guiding force to determine the nature and direction of the present research study.

2.1 ADOLESCENCE AND ITS DEVELOPMENT

Adolescence is a time of rapid physiological and psychological changes occurring within the context of sociocultural factors **(Larsen and McKinley, 1995).** A number of different theories or ways of looking into adolescent development have been proposed. There are biological views **(Hall, 1904),** psychosocial views **(Erikson, 1958),** cognitive views **(Piaget, 1971),** ecological views **(Bonfrenbenner, 1979),** social cognitive learning views **(Bandura, 2002),** and cultural views **(Mead, 1928).**

Adults often complain about the defiance, moodiness, and unconventional subculture (for example, clothing, music, and hairstyles) of teens. However, these adult frustrations usually stem from a lack of understanding of the normal developmental events that occur during adolescence and the importance and purpose of these changes **(Cooper and Anderson-Inman, 1988; Henry, Reed and McAllister, 1995).**

Stages of Adolescent Development : Early Adolescence (Approximately 10-14 years of age) Middle Adolescence (Approximately 15-16 years of age) (Approximately 17-21 years of age Late Adolescence **(Muuss, Velder and Porton, 1996).**

2.1.1 EARLY ADOLESCENCE

Early adolescence is the first stage and occurs from ages 10 to 14. **Puberty** usually begins during this stage. People in this stage become aware of their rapidly changing bodies and start to worry about their physical appearance. They might experience shyness, blushing, modesty, and a greater interest in privacy.

Early adolescents may feel invincible and start to engage in risky behaviors such as smoking and alcohol use. This period is also characterized by sexual curiosity, which is usually expressed through admiration of celebrities, teen idols, and musicians. Relationships with close friends become more important than family relationships. Early adolescents start to

realize that their parents are not infallible and begin to identify their own faults. It is also common for early adolescents to show acting-out behaviors.

2.1.2 MIDDLE ADOLESCENCE

Middle adolescence is the second stage and occurs from ages 15 to 16. By this time, puberty has passed. Teens in this stage are extremely concerned with how they look, and they think others are concerned too. They spend a large amount of time grooming, exercising, and modifying their physical appearance.

Relationships are often changing during middle adolescence. There is also worry about sexual attractiveness. Middle adolescents complain about their parents preventing them from becoming independent, and they withdraw from them. They may try to assert their independence by refusing to bathe, not cleaning their rooms, and picking up annoying habits. There is an intense focus on peer groups during middle adolescence, and teens in this stage tend to confide in each other more than they do their parents.

As with early adolescence, teens in middle adolescence may feel invincible. Risk-taking behaviors are significantly increased during this stage. On the other hand, acting-out behaviors begin to decrease, since teens in this stage have a better grasp on how to use words as a means of expression.

2.1.3 LATE ADOLESCENCE

Late adolescence development represents the final stage of physical and emotional growth as children pass into adulthood. Distinct changes in thinking and behavior occur in early, middle, and late adolescence development to prepare children for independence. Late adolescence development happens somewhere between 17 and 21 years of age, when teens become fully mature mentally and physically.

This is the period when young adults become more comfortable with their body images and sexuality. Youths in this stage of development typically seek one-on-one committed relationships and intimacy. They usually become more self-reliant and focus less on the

opinions of peers. Late adolescence development is the time when goals for the future become defined.

Moral exploration might also begin during this stage of emotional growth. The maturing individual might start thinking about moral issues on a global level and how he or she fits into the equation. This young person might begin to weigh the moral implications of his or her decisions. Late adolescence development typically includes a period of spiritual exploration as part of the identity-seeking process.

Intellectually, this stage of development is usually ideal for higher learning. Young adults in this period can fully express ideas and consider other points of view. They typically become interested in education and setting career goals. They could gain financial independence during this period of life.

The use of popular slang by adolescents is an effective and visible way to establish and the use of slang is an important aspect of adolescent development **(Owens, 1995).** Slang maintains a sense of self-identity and peer-group identity **(Cooper and Anderson-Inman, 1988).**

2.2 PEER PRESSURE AND ADOLESCENTS

Peer pressure is broadly defined as any attempt by one or more peers to compel an individual to follow in the decisions or behaviors favored by the pressuring individual or group **(Sim and Koh, 2003).**

A peer group is a small group of similarly aged, fairly close friends, sharing the same activities. In general, peer groups or cliques have two to twelve members, with an average of five or six. Peer groups provide a sense of security and they help adolescents to build a sense of identity. **Haynie (2002)** found out that adolescents get their self esteem from the group they are belonging to and they cannot imagine themselves outside that gathering. Without a group, youths have a low self esteem and they are powerless. They see friends or peers as a vital component in their life without which they cannot live.

Peer socialization can be overt as in peer pressure or perceived where the adolescent accepts or changes attitudes and behavior based on perceived group norms that may or may not be actual. Peer socialization is often referred to as peer pressure, a term that suggests that adolescents directly persuade their friends to conform to their behaviour. The prevalence of smoking increases dramatically during adolescence **(Johnston, O'Malley, Bachman and Schulenberg, 2007).** While not all experimental users increase their uptake over time **(Abroms, Simons-Morton, Haynie and Chen, 2005; Tucker, Klein and Elliott, 2004),** early initiation increases the likelihood of habituation, leading to a host of negative outcomes **(Pierce and Gilpin, 1995).** The tendency for adolescent peer group members to share common characteristics such as smoking, termed alternatively as peer group clustering or homogeneity, has been well described **(Andrews, Tildesley, Hops and Li, 2002; McPherson, Smith-Lovin and Cook, 2001).** Social influences are important with respect to a wide range of health behaviors, including diet **(Larson, Neumark-Sztainer, Hannan and Story, 2007),** sexual intercourse **(Henry, Schoeny, Deptula and Slavick, 2007)** and substance use **(Kobus, 2003).** Adolescents may be particularly susceptible to social influences given their developmental stage and the importance of school and peer groups in adolescent life **(Steinberg and Monahan, 2007).** As proposed by **Bronfenbrenner (1979),** it may be useful to think of the strength of various social influences as depending on proximity and frequency of contact, where the closest circles of influence include the people with whom adolescents associate most of the time (family and peers) and whose influence on their behavior, particularly smoking, is likely to be the greatest. **Vitaro et. al. (2004)** found that friend use predicted adolescent smoking progression in the peer 12–13 and 13–14 year old groups, but not in the 11–12 year old groups. Conversely, **Abroms et. al. (2005)** found that 6th graders (age=11 years) with friends who smoke were more likely over time to become intenders, experimenters, or regular smokers.

2.3 AGGRESSION AND ADOLESCENTS

Aggression takes many forms, ranging from social and verbal aggression to physical aggression and more serious kinds of violence. Physical aggression includes behaviors that threaten or cause physical harm, such as threats of bodily harm, physical fighting and violent crimes such as robbery, rape and homicide **(Loeber and Hay, 1997; Yonas, O'Campo,**

Burke, Peak and Gielen, 2005). In contrast, social aggression encompasses various forms of non-physical aggression, such as indirect and relational aggression, in which behaviors are focused on damaging social relationships rather than inflicting or threatening physical harm **(Archer and Coyne, 2005).** Socially aggressive behaviours include gossiping **(Xie, Swift, Cairns and Cairns, 2002),** excluding or alienating someone socially **(Xie et. al., 2002),** and trying or threatening to damage someone's social standing within a group **(Crick and Grotpeter, 1995).** Both types of aggression are common among youth in nonmetropolitan areas **(Farrell, Kung, White and Valois, 2000).** Generally, aggressive behaviors progress from less to more severe over the course of adolescent development **(Loeber and Hay, 1997; Tolan et. al., 2000).** The work of Crick and her associates **(Crick and Dodge, 1996)** has focused on relational aggression and the role played by social information processing theory. This theory emphasizes children's attributions about the intent of peers' behavior in social situations. Importantly, attributional biases of relationally aggressive girls was similar to that of overtly aggressive boys. This attributional style was characterized as children interpreting ambiguous relationships as "mean, intentionally motivated acts."

Males typically have higher rates of involvement in physical aggression and violence than females **(Blitstein, Murray, Lytle, Birnbaum and Perry, 2005; Blum et. al., 2000; Bongers et. al., 2003; Farrell et. al., 2000; Farrell et. al., 2005; Fergusson and Horwood, 2002; Heimer and DeCoster, 1999; Loeber and Hay, 1997; Xie, Cairns and Cairns, 2002).** Additionally, sex differences in physical aggression become more extreme throughout puberty, as males continue involvement in aggression after females have begun the process of desistance **(Fergusson and Horwood, 2002; Loeber and Hay, 1997).** In contrast to physical aggression, many studies suggest that social aggression is more common among girls than boys at all ages **(Archer and Coyne, 2005; Connor, 2002; Crick, 1997; Crick and Grotpeter, 1995; Xie et. al., 2002),** although one study found few sex differences in social aggression in a sample of rural sixth graders in the southeastern U.S. **(Farrell et. al., 2000).**

Most studies suggest that females engage in more social aggression than males **(Archer and Coyne, 2005; Connor, 2002; Crick, 1997; Crick and Grotpeter, 1995; Xie et. al., 2002).** Relational aggression has been broadly defined as any attempt to harm another person by manipulating or damaging their social relationships **(Crick and Grotpeter, 1995).** Early research examining gender differences in the perpetration of relational aggression found that at younger ages—during elementary and middle school years—girls tend to exhibit significantly more relational aggression than boys **(Crick and Grotpeter, 1995).** In terms of race/ethnicity, **Prinstein et. al., (2001)** studied an ethnically diverse sample of 9th–12th graders and found that teens did not differ by ethnicity on measures of overt or relational aggression and victimization.

2.4 HAPPINESS AND ADOLESCENTS

Happiness can be defined as a person's positive cognitive and affective evaluation of one's life and is thought to have three components: global life satisfaction, the presence of positive affect, and the absence of negative affect **(Demir and Weitekamp, 2007).** Happiness is related to positive outcomes in multiple life domains, such as work, health, and relationships **(Lyubomirsky, King and Diener, 2005).** Friendships are considered to be an important source of happiness **(Demir and Weitekamp, 2007).** Compared to unhappy individuals, happy individuals are more satisfied with their friendships **(Cooper, Okamura and Gurka, 1992)** and have higher quality friendships **(Demir and Weitekamp, 2007).** A few studies have shown that people's happiness is related to the happiness of close others, such as their spouses and friends **(Fowler and Christakis, 2008).** A common theme in writings on happiness is that happiness is 'relative'. This theory was already advanced by early Greek philosophers, in particular Epicures and the Stoics. Through the ages it figured in philosophy and literature. Today the theory lives on in the social sciences as well: in economics **(Easterlin, 1974),** political science **(Feierabend and Feierabend, 1966),** in sociology **(Parducci, 1968)** and in psychology **(Unger, 1970; Brickman and Campbell, 1971; Inglehart and Rabier, 1984).**

Physical health and happiness are strongly related. In one experiment, researchers asked participants age 50 and older to assess their own happiness and health. Some participants

rated themselves healthy and happy, while others rated themselves unhealthy and unhappy. While a large percentage of people who considered themselves unhealthy were happy, very few of those who rated themselves as healthy were unhappy.
(Angner, Ray, Saag and Allion, 2006).

Happiness is characterized by the experience of more frequent positive affective states than negative ones **(Bradburn, 1969).** Judgments of happiness involve global affective self-appraisals and affect ratings, which are inherently subjective **(Myers and Diener, 1995).** Chronic or long-term happiness, the focus of the present investigation, is the relatively stable level of positive well-being one experiences over a specific time period, such as 3 or 6 months **(Lyubomirsky and Lepper, 1999).** Research investigating the sources of happiness has focused on determining the strongest predictors of happiness and life satisfaction. Three general categories of happiness predictors have been identified: (1) life circumstances and demographics, (2) traits and dispositions, and (3) intentional behaviours **(Lyubomirsky et. al., 2005).** Research has also shown that happiness is enhanced by optimism, religious faith, acts of generosity and altruism such as community service; and work or hobbies that produce a frequent experience of state of total engagement. Further, kindness, gratitude and optimism can improve happiness levels but only if they are ongoing activities; people must practice these things consistently in order for them to have an impact **(Krakovsky, 2007).**

2.5 ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND ADOLESCENTS

In the present competitive world everybody desires for a high level of achievement. Today's modern society expects everyone to be a high achiever. Quality of performance has been regarded as a key factor for personal progress and national development. A modern democratic society cannot achieve its aim of economic growth, technical development and cultural advancement without fully harnessing the talents of its citizens, because enlightened citizens are said to be the most valuable assets of society, who cherish democratic values and preserve basic human freedom. People irrespective of any discrimination, rich and poor, advantage and disadvantage, literate and illiterate, therefore, are geared to invest in education of their children. The present century has been visualized as a technologically

advanced world. Hence starting from school level, parents, teachers and administrators, all desire for heavy investment for their children **(Chetri, 2014).**

Adsul and Kamble (2008) showed that there is a significant difference between scheduled caste and Nomadic tribes, scheduled caste and other backward castes students and between male and female students. Forward caste and scheduled caste group students having a high achievement motivation while other backward and nomadic tribes group students having an average level achievement motivation. Male students having a high achievement motivation while female students having a below average level of achievement motivation. **Chaturvedi (2009)** concluded that school environment plays a significant role in achievement motivation as well as academic achievement of young adolescents. **Tuckman and Thimble (1997)** concluded that the level of aspiration provided to the students through frequent quizzing help in manifesting higher achievement. **Kobal and Musek (2001)** found self-concept and academic achievement are mutually interdependent.

After the completion of the relevant literature survey, in the next chapter the methodological details adopted for the present study will be discussed.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.0 After delineating the objectives of the present study along with the related literature survey, in the earlier chapters (I & II), it is necessary to study in depth the methodological details of the present study which aims to see the relationship of the different psychological factors with peer pressure in early and late adolescents. Adolescence is a very important phase of a person's life. Its stands midway of a person's child life and his or her adult life. Adolescence is a period of transition during which change in group belongingness from childhood to adulthood takes place and creates a gap in an individual that contribute to uncertainty of behaviour, and it is characterized by introduction into risk behaviours like violence, unprotected sexual intercourse, and drunk driving **(Muuss, 2000).** During this period of adolescence, there is separation of young people from their parents. In adolescence people generally tend to join people of their own age. The stage of adolescence tends to be

the most difficult one throughout the life cycle for it is characterized by dramatic physical, psychological and social changes that are often not well understood by adults.

A peer group is a source of great influence during this period of adolescence **(Chauhan, 2007).** From the age of 12 years onwards, the importance of parents decreases as a reference group and as a model for conformity and they begin to relate more with their age mates. Although parental influence is important for some young people than for others, peer influence is a more dominant factor for many teenagers. Peer groups are an important influence throughout one's life. They are more critical during the developmental years of adolescence.

3.1 METHOD

3.1.1 SAMPLE

For the purpose of the study, the sample consists of two groups-Early and Late Adolescents, with a total number of 69 students in early adolescence and 71 students in late adolescence.

a) Early adolescent group (N=69 which comprised of 35 males and 34 females in the age range of 14-16 years)

b) Late adolescent group (N=71 which comprised of 36 males and 35 females in the age range of 17-18 years).

The two groups are matched on the basis of age, sex, religion, socio-economic status, and medium of education. ***Purposive sampling*** is used for sample selection**.** The subjects are selected on the basis of the following criteria:

Inclusion Criteria

1. Age range: 14-18 years
2. Nationality: Indian
3. Socio-economic status: Upper middle class (Family's monthly income Rs.15,000 – 30,000 approximately.)

4. Education: Classes IX-X for the early adolescent group; Classes XI and XII for the late adolescent group.
5. Medium of education: English
6. Studying in Kolkata-based institutions
7. Regular students

Exclusion Criteria

1. Subjects not falling in the age range: 14-18 years.
2. Subjects belonging to low and middle socio-economic classes
3. Subjects who have any kind of physical illness
4. Subjects having any other language other than English as the medium of education
5. Subjects having history of epilepsy

3.1.2 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

1. There will be a difference between early and late adolescents with respect to peer pressure, aggression, happiness and achievement motivation.
2. There will be a difference between males and females on the selected variables of peer pressure, aggression, happiness and achievement motivation.
3. There will be both positive and negative relationship between peer pressure and its psychological correlates.

3.1.3 TOOLS USED

3.1.3.1 INFORMATION SCHEDULE

An Information Schedule comprising of 18 questions was specially prepared for this work to elicit information like name, age, sex, educational level, medium of the school, religion, nationality, parental education, parental occupation, family type, family size, number of

siblings, birth rank, monthly income of the family, comfortable with parents or peers, spending leisure time with parents or peers. Information about history of physical illness in the family, history of epilepsy were also elicited.

3.1.3.2 PEER PRESSURE INVENTORY

The peer pressure inventory was invented by **Clasen and Brown (1985).** It is a self report survey measuring perceptions of peer pressure in 5 areas of behavior: involvement with peers, school involvement, family involvement, conformity to peer norms and misconduct. The final inventory labeled as the peer pressure inventory(PPI) consists of 53 items relatively evenly divided among 5 peer areas. It defined peer pressure by respondents as "when people your own age encourage or urge you to do something or keep from doing something else, no matter you personally to or not. Items are semantic differential format; each containing a pair of statements representing polar opposite pressures(eg;study hard;do homework vs not study or do homework). The 7 point scale allowed respondents to indicate the degree and direction of pressure they felt from friends: a lot, some or little pressure for the statement on the left; no pressure; a lot, some or little pressure for the statement on the right. "Your friends" was stipulated to provide respondents with concrete reference point. The score, which was the mean of scale- item responses could range from -3.00(strong peer pressure against peer involvement, misconduct,etc) to 3.00(strong pressure towards that area). A score of 0 indicated that respondents essentially perceived no pressure in either direction or a balance of positive and negative pressure in either direction.

The scale scores represent adequate internal consistency and test retest reliability. Alpha coefficients were 0.70 or higher. Among a pilot sample of 70 adolescence,test- retest correlations over a six week interval ranged from 0.48 for perceived misconduct pressures to 0.65 for perceptions of family involvement pressures. **Clasen and Brown (1985)** said that respondents perceived pressures from peers towards peer involvement whereas peer pressure considering misconduct was relatively ambivalent. Scores in other pressure areas were not as distinctive. Their findings corroborated and elaborated previous reports of adolescents' perceptions in peer pressures **(Brown, et. al., in press)** and also supported **Erickson's (1968)** and **Newman and Newman's (1976)** postulates about peer groups and peer pressure facilitate teenager's development of autonomy and a sense of identity.

3.1.3.3 AGGRESSION QUESTIONAIRE- BY BUSS AND PERRY(1992)

The **Buss and Perry Aggression Questionnaire (AQ) (1992)** assesses aggression by means of four subscales: physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility. It is based on the Buss and Durkee Hostility Inventory which has been validated in different contexts and populations **(Buss and Perry, 1992).** A Likert-type response format was used, which ranged from 1 (extremely uncharacteristic of me) to 5 (extremely characteristic of me), and exploratory factor analysis yielded four factors: Physical Aggression (nine items), Verbal Aggression (five items), Anger (seven items) and Hostility (eight items). Thus, the questionnaire was made up of 29 items, yielding a minimum score of 29 points and a maximum score of 145. The internal consistency coeficients were as follows: Physical Aggression, $\alpha = .85$; Verbal Aggression, $\alpha = .72$; Anger, $\alpha = .83$ and Hostility, $\alpha = .77$, with the internal consistency being $\alpha = .89$. Test-retest reliability (nine weeks) for the subscales and total score ranged from $\alpha = .72$ to $\alpha = .80$ **(Buss and Perry, 1992).** Sex differences were also observed, where men obtained a significantly higher mean scores than women in Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression and Hostility, but not in Anger. The most notable difference between males and females was found in Physical Aggression.

Internal consistency was calculated by Cronbach's alpha coefficient estimation for the AQ total and its factors. Global sex differences for AQ and its subscales were calculated by Student t-test for independent samples. All tests were two-tailed and the level of significance was set at $p<.01$ or $<.001$. Pearson's correlation coefficients between the criterion test and the AQ total and subscales scores were determined to evaluate convergent validity.

3.1.3.4 OXFORD HAPPINESS QUESTIONNAIRE (OHQ)

An improved instrument,the Oxford Happiness Questionnaire, developed by **Hills and Argyle (2002),** has been derived from Oxford Happiness Inventory(OHI).The OHI consists of 29 items, each involving the selection of one of four options that are different for each item. The OHQ includes similar items to those of the OHI,each presented as a single statement which can be endorsed on a uniform six-point Likert scale.The items of OHQ may easily be incorporated into larger questionnaires in random order, and the opportunity has

also been taken of reversing about half of the items. The sum of the item scores is an overall measure of happiness, with high scores indicating greater happiness. Both the OHI and OHQ demonstrated high scale reliabilities with values of alpha being 0.92 and 0.91 respectively. The inter-item correlations for the OHI ranged from -0.03 to 0.58,mean 0.28 and the corresponding values for the OHQ were -0.04 to 0.65,mean 0.28.The validity of OHQ was satisfactory and the associations between the scales and a battery of personality variables known to be associated with well being were stronger for the OHQ than for the OHI.

3.1.3.5 DEO-MOHAN ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION (N-ACH) SCALE

The Deo-Mohan Achievement Motivation(n-Ach)Scale was developed by **Deo and Mohan (1990).** It consists of 50 items, having a total of 15 factors. The scale can be administered individually as well as in a group of about 25 – 30 subjects. The age range for the subjects included in the above distribution is from 13 to 20 years but it may be used for other age groups also. Two stencil keys are to be used for scorings, one for positive item and one for negative items. A positive item carries the weights of 4, 3, 2, 1 and 0 respectively for the categories of Always, Frequently, Sometimes, Rarely and Never. The negative item is to be scored 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4 for the same categories respectively that are given above. Separate keys for positive and negative items are provided. The total score is the summation of all the positive and negative items scores. The minimum score obtained can be 0 and the maximum can be 200, other scores ranging in between.

For the interpretation of the score, Norms are presented in three forms : Frequency distribution with mean and standard deviation, Percentile Norms and T – scores.. Test – retest method was applied to obtain the reliability coefficient of the scale. In the present scale reliability coefficient by test – retest method for the total group as well as for the separate male and female groups are very satisfactory and the scale can be taken as quite reliable for use. The validity of the scale ie item validity was established by the high – low discrimination method and this was accepted as the validity of the whole measure. Besides, this scale was also used for validating the projective test of Achievement Motivation. The coefficient of correlation between the scale and the projective test was observed to be 0.54 which speaks for the validity of the scale also, the validity being of the concurrent nature.

The present scale of achievement motivation to be sufficiently valid for use for measuring achievement motivation.

3.1.4 PROCEDURE

To conduct the study, consents were firstly taken from different English medium schools of Kolkata to collect data from both male and female early and late adolescents. The psychological questionnaires were administered in a single session to small groups of about 20-25 subjects; the questionnaires were filled in the presence of only the assessor so that any clarification can be done immediately. Instructions were adequately provided and sufficient amount of rest is given in between each of the questionnaires, to prevent the creeping of fatigue.

The sequence of administration of the questionnaires, followed a pre-determined sequence as:

1. Information Schedule

2. Peer Pressure Inventory-by **Clasen and Brown (1985),** which is used to measure the extent of peer pressure.

3. Aggression Questionnaire-by **Buss and Perry (1992),** which measures amount and types of aggression

4. The Oxford Happiness Questionnaire-by **Hills and Argyle (2002),** which measures happiness.

5. The Deo-Mohan Achievement Motivation (n-Ach) Scale-by **Deo and Mohan (1990),** which measures the degree of achievement motivation.

It is to be noted that for each of the subjects, the following instructions were provided at the very beginning:

"You will be provided with a few questionnaires one by one, which requires you to give certain important informations. Remember all the answers will be kept in strict confidence. Please do not hesitate in answering freely and frankly. After you finish answering, kindly hand them over to me. If you have any difficulty, please let me know."

3.1.4.1 PRECAUTIONS

1. All the respondents (students) were asked to sit comfortably in their allotted seats. The set of five questionnaires were administered to all of them in the same sequence. The respondents were assured that it was not a test, there was no right and wrong answers. The research purpose was clearly stated.
2. In order to get co-operation from the respondents, complete confidentiality was assured, and so they were requested to answer freely and frankly.
3. While the selected tools were administered, it was ensured that all the respondents were relaxed and willing to participate. However, they were not forced to give data.
4. There was no time limit for the questionnaires and they were instructed to finish answering the questions as fast as they could and honestly as well.
5. During the testing session, if the respondents faced any difficulties, it was clarified by the researcher without any extra cue.

The obtained data were then scored and subjected to statistical analysis.

3.1.5 SAMPLING – Purposive sampling

3.1.6 ANALYSES

3.1.6.1 SCORING, TABULATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSES

Data for each of the questionnaires were scored following the scoring schedule for each of them accordingly. The scores were tabulated and statistical analyses were carried out that are presented in the chapter entitled "Results".

3.1.6.2 METHODS OF ANALYSES

Data analyses were done by the methods described below:

(i) Descriptive Statistics: Computation of mean, S.D., correlation

(ii) Inferential Statistics: Computation of "t" test

3.1.6.3 PLAN OF ANALYSES

PLAN OF DATA ANALYSES

Level of variables	Purpose	Mode of analyses
Univariate	Descriptive Testing inter-group difference in the selected variables	Mean, standard deviation and correlation. t- test

The "Results" of the study will be detailed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.0 The data obtained from the respondents were systematically arranged and properly tabulated with respect to each of the variables considered in the present study. The presentation of the data has reflected the measures of the obtained selected project variables and their statistical distributions on the basis of which suitable statistical techniques were applied to analyze and find out the necessary informations to serve the objectives of the study.

To understand the nature of differences between the early and late adolescents, in the probe of psychological correlates of peer pressure, descriptive and inferential statistics in the form of Mean, SD, and 't' test respectively were calculated. With the help of these statistics, attempts were taken to locate age differences and gender differences with respect to peer pressure, aggression, happiness and achievement motivation. Another descriptive statistics of correlation was used to determine the contribution of the different variables of aggression, happiness and achievement motivation to peer pressure. Age and Gender differences were highlighted with the help of 't' test. The findings are as follows :-

TABLE 4.1: MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND 't' VALUES OBTAINED BY EARLY (N=69) AND LATE (N=71) ADOLESCENTS ON THE SELECTED VARIABLES

VARIABLES	EARLY ADOLESCENTS		LATE ADOLESCENTS		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t-VALUE
PEER PRESSURE	24.61	18.03	21.69	18.17	0.954
HAPPINESS	119.50	15.76	113.04	15.16	2.473
PHYSICAL AGGRESSION	27.13	5.27	25.87	5.59	1.367
VERBAL AGGRESSION	17.26	3.54	16.25	4.72	1.424
HOSTILITY	23.10	5.39	23.54	5.15	0.502
ANGER	21.96	5.40	19.33	4.09	3.238**
ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION	137.47	24.04	132.65	17.62	1.358

**p< 0.01

- Early adolescents scored higher on Peer Pressure (M=24.61), Happiness (M=119.50), Physical Aggression (M=27.13), Verbal Aggression (M=17.26), Anger (M=21.96) and Achievement Motivation (M=137.47).

- Late adolescents scored higher on hostility (M=23.54).

- There is a significant difference between early and late adolescents with respect to anger (t=3.238).

TABLE 4.2: MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND 't' VALUES OBTAINED

VARIABLES	MALES		FEMALES		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t-VALUE
PEER PRESSURE	23.32	18.53	22.65	17.66	0.219

BY MALE AND FEMALE ADOLESCENTS ON THE

SELECTED VARIABLE

HAPPINESS	114.94	15.33	117.35	16.11	0.905
PHYSICAL AGGRESSION	25.73	4.93	27.30	5.87	1.718
VERBAL AGGRESSION	16.13	3.90	17.42	4.40	1.842
HOSTILITY	23.87	4.76	22.91	5.76	1.075
ANGER	19.76	4.46	21.67	5.37	2.286*
ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION	127.21	20.73	143.62	17.68	5.032**

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

- Males scored higher on Peer Pressure (M=23.32) and Hostility (M=23.87).

- Females scored higher on Happiness (M=117.35), Physical Aggression (M=27.30), Verbal Aggression (M=17.42), Anger (M=21.67) and Achievement Motivation (M=143.62).

- There is a significant difference between males and females with respect to Anger (t=2.286) and Achievement Motivation (t=5.032).

TABLE 4.3: CORRELATION OF PEER PRESSURE WITH ITS PSYCHOLOGICAL CORRELATES

VARIABLES	CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS
HAPPINESS	0.179*
PHYSICAL AGGRESSION	0.145
VERBAL AGGRESSION	- 0.073

HOSTILITY	0.040
ANGER	0.160
ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION	0.074

*p< 0.05

- There is a positive, significant correlation between Happiness (r =0.179) and Peer Pressure.

- There is a negative correlation between Peer Pressure and Verbal Aggression (r = -0.073)

- Physical Aggression (r =0.145), Hostility (r =0.040), Anger (r = 0.160) and Achievement Motivation (r = 0.074) are positively correlated with Peer Pressure.

The obtained results need logical explanations to support the hypotheses of the study that is presented in the next section.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The result presented in the earlier chapter have been discussed in the following fashion:

5.1 DIFFERENCES IN THE PSYCHOLOGICAL PROFILES OF EARLY AND LATE ADOLESCENTS

Table 1 shows the nature of significant difference between early and late adolescents. Significant difference was obtained between the early and late adolescents with respect to Anger (t=3.238).

It also reveals the mean values of different variables of the study and highlights differences with respect to early and late adolescent groups. Early adolescents scored higher on Peer Pressure (M=24.61), Happiness (M=119.50), Physical aggression (M=27.13), Verbal aggression (M=17.26), Anger (M=21.96) and Achievement Motivation (M=137.47). Late Adolescents scored slightly greater than early adolescents only on Hostility (M=23.10).

5.1.1 PROFILE OF EARLY ADOLESCENTS

Peers become an important influence on behavior during adolescence. As adolescents search for identities separate from those of their parents, they experiment with new identities by participating in the different behaviors of their peers **(Allen, Moore and Kuperminc, 1995).** Because they are unsure of their own identities, peer acceptance is important to many adolescents. Acceptance enables a teen to join a particular peer group and identify with the behaviors and attitudes of that group. Adolescents are often willing to conform to their peers' behaviors in order to be accepted **(Newman and Newman, 1976).**

The mean values show higher peer pressure (M=24.61) and higher happiness (M=119.50) in early adolescence than late adolescence (Mean of peer pressure=21.69 and mean for happiness=113.04). This could be a reflection of greater group acceptance which flows from Gang Age of late childhood into puberty and early adolescence. Peers are considered role models, absolute authority and pillars of all strength. Hence greater peer affiliation gives greater happiness. Two mutually compatible explanations for the increased significance of peer influence during early adolescence have been offered **(Brown, Clasen and Eicher, 1986).** One, which stresses changes in the salience of peers as a reference group, points to the increasingly important role that peer crowds play in defining the social landscape of early and middle adolescence. As individuals begin to sort themselves into crowds, both perceived and actual pressure to adopt the styles, values, and interests of one's friends may intensify as adolescents use social influence to regulate each other's behaviour in an attempt to foster solidarity and uniformity within their group and to develop and maintain a group identity that distinguishes them from other students. This process of *normative regulation* may be an especially powerful force during middle adolescence, when upwards of 85% of American youth report membership in at least one peer crowd **(Brown, 2004)**

which is in line with the findings of the present study of higher mean value of peer pressure for early adolescents (M=24.61).

The second account focuses more on the individual than the social context. According to this view, the heightened significance of peer influence in early adolescence is due mainly to changes in individuals' susceptibility to peer pressure. The increased importance of peers leads adolescents to want to alter their behaviour in order to fit in; because they care more about what their friends think of them, they are more likely to go along with the crowd to avoid being rejected **(Brown et. al., 1986).** It is possible that this heightened conformity to peer pressure during early adolescence is a sign of a sort of emotional "way station" between becoming emotionally autonomous from parents and becoming a genuinely autonomous person **(Steinberg and Silverberg, 1986).** This in turn gives or adds to the happiness of adolescents as revealed by the higher happiness scores in the present study (M=119.50). In other words, the adolescent may become emotionally autonomous from parents before he or she is emotionally ready for this degree of independence and may turn to peers to fill this void. It is during adolescence that peer groups become stratified and issues of acceptance and popularity become increasingly important. There is also some emerging evidence, albeit preliminary, that brain systems that are important in the processing of social information may undergo remodeling around the time of puberty that conceivably could lead to an increase in adolescents' awareness of and attentiveness to the opinions of their peers **(Nelson, Leibenluft, McClure and Pine, 2005).**

A higher mean of happiness has been found out for early adolescents (M=119.50) as compared to late adolescents (M=113.04).Happiness can be defined as a person's positive cognitive and affective evaluation of one's life and is thought to have three components: global life satisfaction, the presence of positive affect, and the absence of negative affect **(Demir and Weitekamp, 2007).** Happiness is related to positive outcomes in multiple life domains, such as work, health, and relationships **(Lyubomirsky, King and Diener, 2005).** Individuals who are happy do have strong social ties and report having close family and friends. One is motivated by a need to belong and relate to other people; it is essential for

well-being. Several studies have documented that adolescents derive happiness and positive affect from close friendships **(Argyle, 2001; Demir et. al., 2011)** which is in line with the findings of the present study. However there is also evidence to show that negative peer influence may result in emotional turmoil **(Mrug et. al., 2012).** In early adolescence there is greater conformity to peer pressure as documented in the present research work and if such peer pressure is positive, it may lead to higher happiness quotient for this age group which is consistent with the recent research findings.

Happiness may be transferred indirectly because friends influence each other's appraisal styles. According to appraisal theories **(Smith, Haynes, Lazarus and Pope, 1993),** cognitive appraisals (or evaluations) of events are important antecedents of emotions. People may be affected by the emotions of others when they observe their emotional reactions to an event, and subsequently change their own interpretation of the event **(Parkinson, 2011).** For instance, adolescents may feel happier when they observe their friend's positive appraisal of a situation, because this appraisal may influence their own appraisal of the situation. Thus, friends' emotional reactions may change adolescents' own appraisals, which in turn may affect their emotions. Over time, adolescents' and their friends' appraisal styles may become increasingly similar, which may lead to increasing similarity in happiness. It can be concluded that early adolescents feel a greater need to identify with their peers even in terms of experiencing similar emotional states of happiness as compared to late adolescents. This explains higher mean score obtained in both peer pressure and happiness by early adolescents.

The present findings reveal higher achievement motivation in early adolescents (M=137.47) as compared to late adolescents (M=132.65).One long standing perspective on Motivation is the Expectancy Value Theory which states that an individual's choice, persistence and performance can be explained by their beliefs about how well they will do the activity and the value they place on the activity **(Atkinson, 1957; Eccles et. al.,1983; Wigfield, 1994; Wigfield and Eccles,1992).** In early adolescence, there is greater instability about aspirations. They want to achieve everything, engage in a variety of activities and excel in each. They often form high self concepts, further reinforced by appreciation from peers and thus aim high. As they place high value on a number of activities and expect to attain

mastery in most of them, their achievement motivation soars high which is in line with the above mentioned research evidences.

Goal theorists have investigated both the achievement goals **(Ames and Archer, 1988; Elliot, 1999)** and the social goals **(Anderman, 1999b; Urdan and Maehr, 1995)** that influence adolescents' motivation at school. Research shows that adolescents are concerned about developing and demonstrating competence (achievement goals) and that social goal to form relationships, demonstrate responsibility and achieve status within the peer group also influence students' motivation. Achievement goals have centred on the construct of competence, with students either striving to develop competence (mastery goals) or demonstrate competence (performance goals). Extensive research regarding performance goals **(Elliot, 1997,1999)** has shown that students can aim to demonstrate high levels of competence relative to others (performance approach goals) or aim to avoid demonstration of low levels of competence relative to others (performance avoidance goals). Research has consistently shown the positive effects of mastery goals on learning and achievement **(Elliot, McGregor and Gable, 1999),** whereas the results for performance goals have been less consistent **(Kaplan and Maehr, 2007).** Social goals have been investigated from both a content perspective i.e. what social goals are students trying to achieve at school **(Wentzel, 1991)** and the social goals students pursue with regard to their school achievement (i.e. for what social reasons do students aim to succeed at school). Such goals include responsibility (desire to comply with the social requirements of the classroom, including following rules and instructions), relationships (desire to form and maintain good friendships at school) and status (desire for acceptance and status within the peer group) **(Anderman and Anderman, 1999). Anderman and Anderman (1999)** found that responsibility goals were associated with mastery goals, so that students who aimed to develop competence in their academic work were also likely to follow rules and expectations in the school environment. They also found a positive relationship between performance, relationship and status goals, meaning that students aiming to demonstrate competence were also likely to focus on developing relationships at school and attaining status in their peer group which is in line with the findings of the present study showing higher mean scores of peer pressure (M=24.61), happiness (M=119.50), and achievement motivation (M=137.47) for the early adolescents. **Bong (2009)** found that young children "expressed stronger endorsements to all other

achievement goals, compared with their older counterparts". Particularly, a greater need for peer affiliation in early adolescence has resulted in stronger achievement motivation in order to maintain a high social status amongst peers thus explaining the high achievement motivation scores obtained in the present research (M=137.47).

Aggression is generally defined as a behavioural act that results in harming or hurting others. However, there are numerous types of aggression, depending on the intentions of the aggressor and the situation that stimulated the aggressive response. Because aggressive behaviour, and thus the treatment of aggression, varies greatly according to the intentions and conditions surrounding the aggression, aggression is typically categorized according to type. Aggression is commonly viewed as being either proactive or reactive; overt or covert; or physical verbal, or relational **(Werner and Crick, 2004).**

Research indicates, for example, that toughness and aggressiveness are important status considerations for boys, while appearance is a central determinant of social status among girls **(Eder, 1995).** In the present research higher aggression of all types have been found for early adolescents (Mean of Physical aggression=27.13; Mean of Verbal aggression=17.26; and Mean of Anger=21.96). Some researchers believe that the pressure to gain peer acceptance and status may be related to an increase in teasing and bullying. This behaviour may be intended to demonstrate superiority over other students for boys and girls, either through name-calling or ridiculing. **(Espelage, 2002)**

During early adolescence, there is greater physical aggression, verbal aggression and anger primarily due to immature orientations. Adolescent physical aggression and violence can be predicted by a dynamic cascade model involving risk factors that contribute to each other and directly influence physical aggression across development: early adverse environments, poor preparedness for school, conduct problems, low school achievement, low parental monitoring, and affiliation with a deviant peer group **(Dodge et. al., 2008).** Indirect, relational, and social aggression have been characterized as most frequent in middle and late adolescence **(Bjorkqvist et. al., 1992; Cairns et. al., 1989).** As individuals mature they may engage in less direct aggression and more indirect aggression, a form of heterotypic continuity, because the risk of punishment for indirect aggression is far less **(Bjorkqvist,**

1994) which is in line with the present findings showing higher scores on most of the direct aggression measures for early adolescents. However, social aggression may also increase in early adolescence because peer relationships are ascending in importance **(Buhrmester, 1996)** and so disrupting social status and friendships may be an even more potent means of harm.

5.1.2 PROFILE OF LATE ADOLESCENTS

The developmental tasks of late adolescence that **Erikson (1959)** outlined include the development of a sense of mastery, identity, and intimacy. Others have added the establishment of autonomy, management of sexuality and intimacy, and finding a niche for oneself in education and work.

Research done on these tasks, identifying several more specific challenges: (1) shifts in relationship with parents from dependency and subordination to one that reflects the adolescent's increasing maturity and responsibilities in the family and the community, (2) the exploration of new roles (both social and sexual), (3) the experience of intimate partnerships, (4) identity formation at both the social and personal levels, (5) planning one's future and taking the necessary steps to pursue those plans, and (6) acquiring the range of skills and values needed to make a successful transition into adulthood (including work, partnership, parenting, and citizenship). Thus being one step higher in maturity, late adolescents focus on achievements that reinforce their identity. Narrowing down from the diverse interest patterns of early adolescence, they now restrict their achievement to a few specified areas of endeavour, thus explaining the relatively low achievement motivation found in late adolescents (M=132.65) in the present study. A number of recent studies have also shown changes in adolescents' motivation during an academic year **(Bong, 2005; Corpus, McClintic-Gilbert and Hayenga, 2009; Shim, Ryan and Anderson, 2008).** Other researchers such as **Yeung and McInerney (2005)** have investigated changes in goal orientations in students aged 12-18 in a Hong Kong context where level of motivation of 9th grade students was higher than the level of motivation of the 11th grade students, which is in line with the present study.

Another guiding factor in determining achievement for late adolescents is their desire for autonomy. No longer do they blindly follow peer groups, rather they focus on their own identity. The advancement in personal autonomy during the late years of adolescence is not a given feature of growing into adulthood, but rather that it requires an increased desire of the adolescent to fight for his/her autonomy. Some of the data of the herein study extends previous investigations **(Figueiredo et. al., 1983; Meyer, 1988; Pinquart and Silbereisen, 2002)** and, therefore, may be expected to be consistent with the present findings. For instances, there was a higher percentage of older than young adolescents that achieved autonomy behaviours. Also, older adolescents disobeyed parents more than did younger ones. It is pertinent to propose that it is the capacity of the adolescent to fight for his autonomy (and, of course, of the family to accept the adolescent's desire of autonomy) that is the key mediator of achievement of autonomous behaviours by the adolescents, as they undergo the transition to adulthood.

In addition to the developmental theories that focus on psychosocial aspects of development **(Erikson, 1980; Perry, 1999),** neuroscience researchers contribute critical data related to brain development and the process of decision-making. **Baird, Gruber, Fein, Maas, Steingard, and Renshaw et. al., (1999)** reported that as adolescents grow older and mature, brain activity shifts to the frontal lobe, leading to more reasoned perceptions and improved performance on emotional tasks. There is growing evidence supporting continued maturation of brain processes and activity throughout adolescence, including significant changes occurring well into the late adolescent years, thus demonstrating that frontal lobes of the brain are not fully matured until young adulthood **(Giedd, Blumenthal, Jeffries, Castellanos, Liu and Zijdenbos et. al., 1999; Paus, 2005; Sowell, Delis, Stiles and Jernigan, 2001; Sowell, Trauner, Gamst and Jernigan, 2002).** The increment in problem-solving, decision making and information processing skills result in judiciously demanding what an individual wants to achieve. Thus they are more focused on goals consistent with their specific interests and special abilities which are realistic enough to achieve. This explains the lower achievement motivation as compared to early adolescents (M for early adolescents=137.47 & for late adolescents=132.65).

Late adolescents had relatively lower scores for aggression (Mean for Physical aggression=25.87; Mean for Verbal aggression=17.26; Mean for Anger=21.96) except Hostility (M= 23.54) which is slightly more for late adolescents in the present study.Unnecessary use of aggression stands against a mature orientation. In one recent longitudinal study, **Guerra, Huesmann, and Spindler (2003)** found that the individual's level of exposure to violence, which is an environmental risk factor **(Richters and Martinez, 1993),** led to changes in their beliefs about aggression, such as whether aggression is legitimate or not **(Dodge and Coie, 1987)**, which was then associated with subsequent increased aggression and increased aggressive fantasy (i.e., another internal attribute that seems to exacerbate aggressive behavior). Also by late adolescence, individuals manage to overcome the initial emotional turmoil of early puberty and thus gain better emotional stability. Since aggression is mostly viewed as an undesirable act, late adolescents, as they mature cognitively and emotionally, use less of it as compared to early adolescents. Hostility is used by both early and late adolescents to a similar extent as shown by the present findings. It maybe because it is viewed as undesirable and unacceptable in terms of society and culture. Hence it may be used as a last resort and therefore doesn't reveal age differences.

Thus peer pressure in late adolescence becomes very specific and segregated and sources of happiness also stabilise. This is further reinforced by their advancement in cognitive and emotional capacities. One of the major changes during adolescence is youth's increasing focus on peer relationships as indicated by increases in both the time they spend with peers and their engagement in activities done with peers. However as adolescents get older and more confident in their abilities, social status, and own goals and values, the impact of peer relationships on behavior declines **(Eccles et. al., 2002).**

5.2 DIFFERENCES IN THE PSYCHOSOCIAL PROFILES OF MALES AND FEMALES

Table 2 shows the nature of significant differences between male and female adolescents. Significant differences have been found with respect to Anger (t=2.286) and Achievement Motivation (t=5.032).

The table also highlights the differences in the mean values of the variables between males and females. Males scored higher on Peer Pressure (M=23.32) and Hostility (M=23.87) whereas Females scored higher on Happiness (M=117.35), Physical aggression (M=27.30), Verbal Aggression (M=17.42), Anger (M=21.67) and Achievement Motivation (M=143.62).

5.2.1 PROFILE OF FEMALE ADOLESCENTS

Prior research has indicated that girls, on average, are more resistant to peer pressure than boys, in both neutral and antisocial situations **(Steinberg and Silverberg, 1986),** in contrast to unremitting (but incorrect) stereotypes of adolescent girls as less autonomous than boys. Females are more resistant to peer influence than males in general, and they are so after as well as during adolescence (Mean for females=22.65; Mean for males=23.32). Consistent with this, other studies have found that adolescent girls report greater feelings of self-reliance than adolescent boys **(Steinberg and Silverberg, 1986).** Given the fact that nearly three decades of research have now shown that adolescent girls are as, if not more, autonomous than adolescent boys, perhaps it is time the field abandoned the stereotype of the soft-spined female popularized in depictions of young women written in the 1960s **(Douvan and Adelson, 1966)** and maintained by empirically unsupported lamentations about the loss of "voice" experienced by girls during adolescence **(Brown and Gilligan, 1992).**

There is a higher need for academic achievement in adolescent girls than boys (Mean for Females=143.62; Mean for Males=127.21). **Dornbusch et. al., (1987)** reported that girls students tended to get higher grades than Boys. **Tinku and Biswas (1994)** found that girls are more involved in their studies than boys and get more marks. One research showed that girls in the high GPA group were happier than other girls, but for boys, being academically among the highest achievers did not seem to have an effect on either global or school-related happiness **(Uusitalo-Malmivaara, 2014).** Thus, academic success is of greater importance

for girls than for boys, a result found in previous studies, as well **(Murberg and Bru, 2004; Salmela-Aro et. al., 2008; Salmela-Aro and Tuominen-Soini, 2010)** which is in line with the findings of the present study (M=143.62).

Girls (even as infants) show evidence of more empathy than boys and stronger affiliative tendencies. Girls also show more guilt, remorse and prosocial behaviors. Girls are more likely to show evidence of what is called a "tend-and befriend" response pattern, rather than a "fight or flight" behavioral pattern. Such female empathy provides a potential source of strength and resilience. Parents, as well as teachers, tend to discourage physical aggression in girls and tolerate and encourage it in boys. Girls tend to withdraw from competitive situations more than boys. Sex role prohibitions against physical aggression are stronger for girls. Physically aggressive girls are more disliked by peers than their male counterparts. For girls, aggression tends to be expressed in close relationships, rather than in the community at large**.(Meichenbaum, 2001)** However the gender stereotypes imposed on females may sometimes prompt them to channelize bottled up anger into physical and verbal aggression to achieve their position and establish their worth as they are not weak. This may explain the higher scores for physical aggression(M=27.30) and verbal aggression (M=17.42) for females as compared to males in the present study.

Brody (1999) has argued that gender differences in emotion expression are the result of a combination of biologically based temperamental predispositions and the socialization of boys and girls to adopt gender-related display rules for emotion expression. In this theory, it is proposed that there are gender-related display rules in the United States and many European cultures for girls to be more emotionally expressive than boys (consistent with this, women have been shown to be more emotionally expressive than men; **Kring and Gordon, 1998).** Happiness and internalizing emotions facilitate rather than threaten relationships and in some cases (such as for empathy and sadness) can promote closeness with others **(Barrett and Campos, 1987; Izard and Ackerman, 2000).**This explains higher scores of happiness for females (M=117.35) than males(M=114.9) in the present study.

5.2.2 PROFILE OF MALE ADOLESCENTS

Males typically have lower resistance to peer pressure than females (mean for males=23.32;mean for females=22.65). Gender stereotyping of the society gives males greater freedom and opportunities to mix with peers and exhibit behaviours like smoking, drinking, etc more easily than females. Girls generally have later expectations for *behavioral* autonomy than boys, regardless of race/ethnicity **(Fuligni, 1998).** Yet, gender differences in expectations for behavioral autonomy appear to be less pronounced today than in the past and gender differences may be greater in some cultures than in others **(Feldman and Rosenthal, 1990).** Less is known about why gender differences occur and whether gender differences occur in other dimensions of autonomy (e.g., cognitive autonomy or emotional autonomy).

Males typically show higher hostility (M=23.87) than females (M=22.91) as obtained in the present study. This could result from a sense of superiority as a means to establish oneself. Traditional masculinity causes males to be emotionally suppressed and combat with stress using health damaging lifestyles. To fulfil unfulfilled desires, display of physical strength through hostility may help to stabilise their identity. **Campbell and Muncer (1987)** analyzed social talk and concluded that women and men have different implicit models of their own and others aggression. They suggested that women subscribe to an expressive social representation of aggression whilst men's social representations are instrumental.

Women experience aggressive behaviour as anxiety provoking and unpleasant, a release of tension yet a loss of control. Men perceive it as a challenge and an exercise in social control through which social rewards (respect and material rewards) can be gained. Only physical aggression and destructive behaviors are more common in boys than in girls. Girls rarely show high rates of aggression in elementary school. This “gender gap” tends to close in adolescence. The stability of disruptive aggressive behavior tends to be as high in girls as it is in boys. The first signs of less serious behaviour problems appear at similar ages for boys and girls. The age of onset of violent behaviour is later for girls than for boys. Girls usually develop antisocial behaviour mainly during adolescence rather than earlier**..(Meichenbaum,2001)**

5.3 CORRELATION OF PEER PRESSURE WITH ITS PSYCHOLOGICAL CORRELATES

Table 3 shows correlation of Peer Pressure with each of the variables. Positive correlation was found with-Happiness (r=0.179), Physical aggression (r=0.145), Hostility (r=0.040),Anger (r=0.160) and Achievement Motivation (r=0.074).Negative correlation was found with Verbal aggression (r=-0.073).There is a significant correlation of peer pressure with respect to happiness at 0.05 level of significance.

5.3.1 PEER PRESSURE AND ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Positive peer pressure can lead to gains in achievement motivation and happiness (Correlation with Happiness,r=0.179 and correlation with achievement motivation,r=0.074). Influences and motivations for all sorts of behaviors of adolescents, including study habits and academic personal development, do not come only from their peers, but also by their parents, teachers and others with whom they establish contacts **(Wentzel, 1998).** But, because of the time that many adolescent spend every day with his friends or her coevals the impact can be substantial. From another point of view, previous studies have investigated the impact of peer rejection on academic achievement. Research shows that peer rejection at all time points (in the present and in the past) have negative effects on school attendance, and in external or inner behavioral problems **(DeRosier, Kupersmidt and Patterson, 1994).** Positive peer influence on academic performance depends on adolescent self-identity, self-esteem and self-reliance. 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 **(Ryan, et. al., 2000).** Experiencing peer rejection can produce heightened anxiety (e.g., worry over being teased or left out) which interferes with concentration in the classroom and impedes children's acquisition and retention of information **(Nansel, Overpeck, Pilla, Ruan, Simons-Morton and Scheidt, 2001)** thus supporting positive relationship between peer pressure and achievement motivation (r=0.074). This finding emphasizes the importance of which elements are most important in affecting the academic arrivals. This phenomenon of

similarity among friends is known as homophily and is seen on a variety of characteristics, including academic characteristics **(Kindermann, 2007; Ryan, 2000).** In addition, studies have reported that having a good friend or companion who appreciates your academic achievements, serves as a positive factor to achieve motivation. They also tend to be engaged in and even excel at academic tasks more than those who have peer relationship problems **(Rubin, Bukowski and Parker, 2006).** In this regard, the selection of friendship serves as a purpose to achieve academic development **(Resnick, Ireland and Borowsky, 2004).** Student interaction with friends can positively influence overall academic development, knowledge acquisition, analytical and problem-solving skills, and self-esteem **(Kuh 1993).**

5.3.2 PEER PRESSURE AND HAPPINESS

Research suggests that not only do positive relationships with peers promote happiness, but also negative social interactions may reduce happiness and subsequent social interactions. For example, negative experiences with others, such as having conflict in relationships **(Demir et. al., 2007)** are associated with a decrease in happiness, which is in line with the present findings of a positive relationship between peer pressure and happiness (r=0.179). Consistent with these findings are reports that unstable introverted adolescents (i.e., fearful adolescents who would like to approach their peers but do not) rate themselves as less happy and less popular **(Young and Bradley, 1998).** Social rejection and isolation may decrease happiness. For example, less popular adults **(Feingold, 1983)** and children **(Holder and Coleman, 2007)** are less happy. This decrease in happiness may be self-perpetuating as rejected children expect consequences that are more negative when they interact with their peers **(Underwood, 1997).**

5.3.3 PEER PRESSURE AND AGGRESSION

During adolescence the peer group becomes an important agent of socialisation. They acquire a wide range of behaviour from their peer group by interacting and observing them. If the peer group model aggression during playing, or while interacting with one another, then the possibilities of learning aggression is high. **Bandura's (1973)** social learning theory views aggression not as innate or because of frustration, but as the manifestation of

experiences. He connoted that there are three main components, acquiring of aggressive modes of behaviour, instigation of aggression and reinforcement of the behaviour. **Bandura (1973),** contended that patterns of behaviour can be acquired through direct experience or by observing violent behaviour of others viz. modelling. The role of parents, and peer group are important determinants of modelling. People who are repeatedly exposed to aggressive parent or peer models will be more assaultive in their interaction than those who are not exposed. During the adolescent period of development peer values and belief particularly becomes important as substitute for parental values and beliefs and play an essential role in the development of aggression as has been revealed in the present study by the nature of correlation of peer pressure with Physical aggression (r=0.145), with Hostility (r=0.040), and with Anger (r=0.160).

A large body of work suggests that adolescents affiliate with peers who are similar to themselves in attitudes, preferences, and behaviors (i.e., selection effects). More important, these affiliations prospectively predict increases in the levels of such attitudes, preferences, and behaviors (i.e., socialization effects; **Kandel, 1978**). Peer contagion has substantial implications for adolescents' psychological adjustment. Socialization effects explain variability in adolescents' externalizing symptoms, such as aggressive **(Vitaro, Tremblay, Kerr, Pagani and Bukowski, 1997)** and illegal behaviors **(Paetsch and Bertrand, 1997).**

According to the present research framework, engagement in aggressive and risk behaviors issues, in part, arise from a desire to emulate behaviors that are associated with high status. Indeed, recent research differentiating between two types of peer status finds that adolescents associate aggressive and health risk behaviors with high levels of acceptance and popularity among peers. Initially, peer status was measured as a preference-based construct (often referred to as ''sociometric status''), which represents youths' likeability among peers (i.e., based on like-most and like-least nominations) **(Coie and Dodge, 1983).** Although studies of preference-base status among adolescents are rare, some evidence suggests that high levels of such status correlate with engagement in risk behaviors, such as the use of nicotine **(Allen, Porter, McFarland, Marsh and McElhaney, 2005).** Later studies included assessments of reputation-based peer status (i.e., often referred to as ''peer-perceived'' popularity), which represents youths' reputations of popularity among their

peers **(Parkhurst and Hopmeyer, 1998).** Reputation-based status is conceptually similar to measures of dominance, status in the social hierarchy, access to social resources, and positions of potential influence over others **(Hawley, 1999; Prinstein and Cillessen, 2003).** Research has found that although reputation-based status correlates moderately with preference-based status, it is uniquely associated with higher frequencies of substance use, engagement in sexual risk behaviors, and proactive (i.e., instrumental, goal-oriented) uses of aggressive behavior **(Prinstein and Cillessen, 2003).**

The present study shows a negative correlation between Peer Pressure and Verbal aggression (-0.073). Within the discipline of a school paradigm, as it was with the present sample, verbal aggression is strongly condemned by the authorities and may lead to harsh consequences. This may motivate the peer groups to avoid the use of verbal aggression to safeguard their reputation in school and maintaining their emotional state of happiness (**Underwood, Coie, and Herbsman, 1992)**

Verbal aggression can be defined as deliberately harmful behavior that is typically both unprovoked and repeated. It is an intentional abuse of power, such as teasing, taunting, or threatening, that is initiated by one or more individuals of relatively greater status or power (by virtue of their numbers or size) against a victim of somewhat lesser status or power **(Reitman and Villa, 2004).** Researchers describe two types of bullying that are relevant to verbal aggression: direct or overt bullying and covert or indirect bullying. Direct or overt bullying consists of taking things, hitting, kicking, pushing, tripping, and shoving, as well as cursing, yelling, and threatening. Covert or indirect bullying, consists of secretive actions, typically involving others. Covert aggression is intended to harm the victim without confrontation. Girls are more likely to engage in covert or indirect bullying by spreading rumors (which is covert or indirect aggression). An example of this type of indirect aggression is the devaluing statements written in notes about a student with the intent to hurt or make fun of the student. Other verbal behaviors, such as taunting, cursing, and threatening, better fit the overt confrontational category **(Reitman and Villa,2004).**

After the elaborate discussion of the obtained results, the brief overview and specific conclusions of the study are given in the next section.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

6.0 The discussion of the findings of the present study has lead to summarize the work and to draw the following conclusions.

The objectives of the present study was to draw a comparative profile of early and late adolescents in terms of the psychological correlates of peer pressure with respect to dimensions of aggression, happiness and achievement motivation.

For the purpose of the study, the sample consisted of two groups– a group of early adolescents consisting of 69 individuals which comprised of 35 males and 34 females in the age range of 14-16 years and a group of late adolescents consisting of 71 individuals which comprised of 36 males and 35 females in the age range of 17-18 years. The early adolescent group consisted of students of classes IX-X. Similarly, the late adolescent group consisted of students of classes XI and XII.

A number of scales were used in the present study to measure different variables. For collecting information regarding different sociodemographic details of the respondents, an Information Schedule appropriate for the present research purpose was used. Other than this, Peer Pressure Inventory-by **Clasen and Brown (1985),** which is used to measure the extent of peer pressure, Aggression Questionnaire-by **Buss and Perry (1992),** which measures amount and types of aggression, The Oxford Happiness Questionnaire-by **Hills and Argyle (2002),**which measures happiness, Deo-Mohan Achievement Motivation (n-Ach) Scale-by **Deo and Mohan (1990)** which measures the degree of achievement motivation were also used for the present research study.

To conduct the study, consents were firstly taken from different English medium schools of Kolkata to collect data from both male and female early and late adolescents. The psychological questionnaires were administered in a single session to small groups of about 20-25 subjects; the questionnaires were filled in the presence of only the assessor so that any clarification could be provided immediately. Instructions were adequately provided and sufficient amount of rest was given in between each of the questionnaires, to prevent the creeping of fatigue.

The following statistical analyses were done after scoring the data.

(i) Descriptive Statistics: Computation of mean, S.D., correlation

(ii) Inferential Statistics: Computation of "t" test.

Thus the conclusions drawn from the present study may be summarized as follows :

1. Early Adolescents scored higher on Peer Pressure, Happiness, Physical aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger and Achievement Motivation. Late Adolescents scored higher only on hostility.

2. Males scored higher on Peer Pressure and Hostility. Females scored higher on Happiness, Physical Aggression, Anger and Achievement Motivation.

3. Positive, significant correlation was obtained between Happiness and Peer Pressure. A negative correlation was obtained with Verbal Aggression. Physical Aggression, Hostility, Anger and Achievement Motivation were positively correlated with Peer Pressure.

6.1 LIMITATIONS OF THE PRESENT RESEARCH WORK

Research work in any field cannot be a complete contribution without any limitations and scope for widening areas of further research. Thus it can is assured that, the present study also has its inherent shortcomings that may be improved in future researches conducted in this field. Some of the limitations of this research study are as follows:

1. The present research work has been restricted to the age groups of 14-16 and 17-18 years which have been shown to be the most susceptible to the effects of peer pressure. Other age groups which may have a different pattern of peer influence has not been studied here.

2. Difficulty in the process of data collection and time constraints led to a relatively small sample size.

3. In the present research the cross-cultural variations have not been assessed.

4. In this research only the urban population has been included in the sample, thereby failing to draw a comparison between urban and rural adolescents.

6.2 ORIGINALITY OF THE PRESENT RESEARCH WORK

Since a number of limitations were highlighted in the present research work, it cannot be considered as the only significant research in the field of adolescents to bring out the psychological correlates of peer pressure in the early and late adolescents. However, the newness of the present research may be summarized as follows :

1. This study can be considered as a reflection of the psychological profile of both early and late adolescents in terms of peer pressure in the Indian context.

2. Another originality of the present research is incorporation of both achievement motivation and happiness along with aggression which is primarily seen as negative.

6.3 AREAS OF FURTHER RESEARCH

The present study has opened different arenas that are yet to be explored. Many interesting and fruitful studies may be conducted in this field.

1. Sociocultural differences amongst communities can be studied as contributory to the vulnerability to peer pressure.

2. Sexual aggression as influenced by peer pressure or vice versa can be an area of exploration.

3. Comparison of the effects of peer pressure on achievement motivation in adolescence and adulthood.

4. Relationship between peer pressure and emotional stability as adolescents have emotional difficulties as one of their characteristics.

5. Effect of peer pressure on suicidal tendencies amongst adolescents is an area of significance.

6. The study of the relationship between delinquency and peer pressure amongst adolescents.

Thus within the wide circumference of the present research work, the conclusions drawn from the dimensions or correlates of peer pressure in "early and late adolescents'', adds to the knowledge and awareness of parents and society at large about the "vulnerability" of this age group towards involvement in activities which are not accepted by the society like the delinquent acts, taking of drugs, gambling, indulging in sexual activities and many more. As adolescence is the most important period of human life and the society's success in various fields depends a lot on how this group has been shaped, it is therefore important to take special care and handle their needs in proper manner. One of the needs of this phase is greater dependence and involvement with peers than with parents and this may have its own contributory role in shaping the adolescent into a mature adult. Thus its important to take note of it because as **Burton, Ray and Mehta (2003)** noted that these peers pose an influence that is a common source for negative activities for students like experimentation with drugs, drinking, vandalism and stealing. It was noted that some students often perceive the school as another symbol of adult authority, full of restrictions and rules, and quite often they decide to drop out **(Namugambe, 1999).** Thus through proper guidance a positive perception should be given to them to choose and traverse the right path in the right way.

CHAPTER 7

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