

A STUDY OF THE IMPACT OF THE LEVEL OF ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE ON PARENTAL ATTACHMENT AND PEER GROUP RELATIONSHIP

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Abstract : Education is essential for the development of society. The more educated the people of a society are, the more civilized and well disciplined the society might be. Mainly, family has responsibility to socialize children for making them productive members of society. The more the parents involve in the process of imparting education to their children, the more the children might excel in their academic career and to become the productive and responsible members of society. It has been assumed that academic achievement of students may not only depend on the quality of schools and the teachers, rather the extent of parental involvement has vital role to play in academic achievement of their kids. The focus of this study is to examine a relationship (if any) between the extent of parental involvement in academic activities of their children and the level of their children's academic achievement. The transition from middle school to secondary school may be an overwhelming and stressful experience for young adolescents. Developmentally, students are entering a period in their lives when their physical, cognitive, psychological, and social characteristics are beginning to evolve. Secondary school students experience both a contextual change and a personal change during this transition. It may often a confusing time for students, their families, and the other adults in their lives who seek to support their healthy development and learning. The secondary school learning environment may be more complex than elementary school and academic achievement expectations increase. Children are more likely to have higher academic achievement levels and improved behavior when families are involved in their education (Bryan, 2005). Learning begins at home through interaction with one's family.

IndexTerms - Component,formatting,style,styling,insert.

I. INTRODUCTION

Education is essential for the development of society. The more educated the people of a society are, the more civilized and well disciplined the society might be. Mainly, family has responsibility to socialize children for making them productive members of society. The more the parents involve in the process of imparting education to their children, the more the children might excel in their academic career and to become the productive and responsible members of society. It has been assumed that academic achievement of students may not only depend on the quality of schools and the teachers, rather the extent of parental involvement has vital role to play in academic achievement of their kids. The focus of this study is to examine a relationship (if any) between the extent of parental involvement in academic activities of their children and the level of their children's academic achievement. The transition from middle school to secondary school may be an overwhelming and stressful experience for young adolescents. Developmentally, students are entering a period in their lives when their physical, cognitive, psychological, and social characteristics are beginning to evolve. Secondary school students experience both a contextual change and a personal change during this transition. It may often a confusing time for students, their families, and the other adults in their lives who seek to support their healthy development and learning. The secondary school learning environment may be more complex than elementary school and academic achievement expectations increase. Children are more likely to have higher academic achievement levels and improved behavior when families are involved in their education (Bryan, 2005). Learning begins at home through interaction with one's family.

Parental involvement in a child's education along with environmental and economic factors may affect child development in areas such as cognition, language, and social skills. Numerous studies in this area have demonstrated. The importance of family interaction and involvement in the years prior to entering school (Bergsten, 1998; Hill, 2001; Wynn, 2002). Research findings have also shown that a continued effort of parental involvement throughout the child's education can improve academic achievement (Driessen, Smit & Slegers, 2005; Fan, 2001; Hong & Ho, 2005). Academic failure has been linked with risk behaviors and negative outcomes such as; substance abuse, delinquency, and emotional and behavioral problems (Annunziata, Houge, Faw, & Liddle, 2006). There is little research available on the relationship between parental involvement and academic achievement of secondary school students. A majority of the research in this area has been conducted solely with elementary school students (Baily, Silvern, Brabham, & Ross, 2004; Marjoribanks, 2005). This study may provide an in-depth look at one aspect of parental involvement, involvement in academic activities of their children, and academic achievement of secondary school students.

Parental involvement in school has been linked with academic achievement. Although little research has been done in the area of parental involvement and secondary school students, the literature review examines the many factors that may contribute to the level of parental involvement and academic achievement in secondary school. This Master's research project sought to identify the different

levels of parental involvement in academic activities and how parental involvement affects academic achievement of secondary school students.

The Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (2001) defined peer group as a group of people of same age or social status. The peer group is the first social group outside the home in which the child attempts to gain acceptance and recognition. Peer group is an important influence throughout one's life but they are more critical during the developmental years of childhood and adolescence. Adolescents always emulate their mates in whatever form of behavior they exhibit, particularly that which interests them thus, since socialization only refers to changes in behavior, attitudes having their origin in interaction with other persons and those which occur through integration, a child learns more through interaction with peers.

Socialization being a life-long process cannot be limited to the family members alone. As a child grows older and more matured, it becomes more necessary for the external bodies to be involved in his/her life. The family is not expected to provide all the education required by the growing child. The school which is an established academic institution in which the behavior of an individual is sharpened to get him/her equipped for occupational socialization. In the school system, the child gets into the social group of "like minds" and interest. As a result of the various attitudes, skills, knowledge is acquired through role-play. Peer group as an agent of socialization is the most important socializing agent for the developing child. Peer group is the pivot of social change and during interaction with peers; the child's life is transformed from the helpless child into a mature adult.

Each peer group has its code of conduct which does not always conform to adult standards. The important thing is that each child takes his/her membership of the peer group very seriously and attempts to do anything to ensure he/she is accepted and recognized. Lack of acceptance by the peer group disturbs the child especially at adolescent age. Some children have been known to do badly in school not because they lack the academic ability to do well but because they are disturbed by the fact they are not accepted by their peer group. What makes learning comparative is the fact that the child has equal status with the other children. There is an atmosphere of freedom in which each child learns the way of the world from others. The peer group thus becomes more and more important to the child as he advances in age. Other ways in which the peer group can help the child include, teaching the culture of the society at large, making possible social mobility, providing opportunity for the child to play many social roles such as that of a leader, a follower, teacher or student. The peer group also helps the child to win his/her independence easily from domination and set before him a goal which is more easily attainable than the expectation of adults. This in itself provides motivation for learning and is mainly responsible for the fact that all children at one stage or the other regard their membership of peer group as very important.

When the family is not supportive for instance, if the parents work extra jobs and are largely unavailable, their children may turn to their peer for emotional support. This also occurs when the conflict between parents and children during adolescence or at any stage during a child's development becomes so great that the child feels pushed away and seeks company elsewhere. Most children and adolescents in this position do not discriminate about the kind of group they join. They will often turn to a group simply because the group accepts them even if the group is involved in a negative tendency (Peter Smith and Anthony Pellegrini, 2001). The need for affection or closeness is often greater than the need to do the right thing. For some adolescents who feel isolated and abandoned by members of their family being part of a peer group provides such individual with acceptance and security not available at home. In the Nigerian society today, the influence of peer group cannot be over-emphasized in a child's life most especially child education. Peer group has in one way or the other influenced the life of children both academically, socially, morally, psychologically and otherwise.

Socialization such as family, religion, mass media, and school among others help in modifying the behavior of the child. In conclusion, therefore the influence of peer group on the academic performance of secondary school students cannot be over-emphasized. The peer group forms the main basis through which the child learns a lot of empirical facts about his physical and social environment, acquisition of skills and values as well as attitude for a better future.

However, identifying peer effects is a very difficult task. The most problematic issue is that families and students usually choose schools and peer groups where they share similar attributes with other members. Therefore, measures of peer characteristics may just signal other unobservable individual factors that also affect the outcomes, such as student willingness to work and parental ambition and resources. This endogenous choice leads to a selection bias problem. Another problem is that an individual's outcome and that of his peers are formed simultaneously a student's achievement is impacted by the achievement of his classmates and vice versa. This creates a standard simultaneity bias problem, also termed as reflection problem by Manski (1993).

In addition, inference about peer effects is particularly vulnerable to a general misspecification problem omitted variable bias, due to the fact that both individuals and peers are subject to a common environment. Studies attempting to measure peer group effects are susceptible to the endogeneity biases arising from self-selectivity, simultaneity, and omitted variables correlated with peer characteristics. Interestingly, in spite of the fact that theoretical articles on social interaction or peer effects have concentrated most attention on the reflection problems (or simultaneity bias, e.g. Manski, 1993; Moffitt, 2002), selection bias is the most pervasive methodological issue discussed in empirical studies. The majority of empirical research on peer effects circumvents simultaneity bias by examining only peer demographic characteristics (such as race or gender composition) or using lagged values for peer behaviors or outcomes. Meanwhile, most peer effect studies have focused on reducing or eliminating selection bias by implementing a variety of creative techniques, such as 3 instrumental variables (IV), fixed effect models (FE), and randomization experiments (RA).

In recent years, the administration of school choice programs often provides good opportunities of studying peer effects with randomization approach. In many school choice programs, the admissions are conducted through lottery when the choice schools are

oversubscribed --- the unsuccessful lottery participants who enroll in the neighborhood school can then serve as the natural control group for the purpose of measuring the peer group effects on student outcomes. This approach is used in the study by Cullen and Jacob (2007), who find no evidence that lottery winners to higher quality schools (measured by average peer achievement) are better off in academic achievement than those who lost the opportunity to go to the selective schools.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In today's society, schools and parents are responding to increased expectations, economic pressures, and time constraint. In these changing times, effective partnerships between teachers and parents become even more essential to meet the needs of the children. Communicating with parents is one of six major types of parent involvement practices critical to establishing strong working relationships between teachers and parents (Epstein, 1995). Cultivating the teacher-parent relationship is also considered vital to the development team work. Unfortunately, many teachers are not specifically trained in the skills they need to communicate effectively with parents. School communication practices are so fundamental to involving families in the education process, teacher preparation and professional development programs should actively promote the development of communication skills for teachers. Teachers strive to establish partnerships with parents to support student learning. Strong communication is fundamental to this partnership and to building a sense of community between home and school. In these changing times, teachers must continue to develop and expand their skills in order to maximize effective communication with parents. Good communication between parents and teachers has many benefits. When parents and teachers share information, children learn more and parents and teachers feel more supported. Good communication can help create positive feelings between teachers and parents.

A study by Bankole and Ogunsakin [2] investigated the influence of peer group on the academic performance of secondary school students in Ekiti State where a total of 225 secondary school students were randomly selected from five mixed secondary schools. The instrument used in the study is the Peer Group and Adolescent's Academic Performance (PGAAP) questionnaire. The reliability of the instrument was determined through test-re-test method. The finding showed that peers relationship influence academic performance of secondary school students.

Relying on longitudinal panel data from Texas, Hoxby [7] estimate substantial peer effects on student achievement by comparing the idiosyncratic variation in adjacent cohorts race and gender composition within a grade within a school. The author argues that the identification strategies are credibly free of selection biases because the between-cohort peer variations are beyond the easy management of parents and schools. Another study by Sacerdote [15] uses very similar strategies to Hoxby's to examine classroom level peer impacts, and find that a high proportion of a female classmates improve both boys and girls academic performance. Both studies avoid simultaneity bias by only examining only predetermined peer characteristics such as peer race and gender.

The peer group is a source of affection, sympathy, understanding, and a place for experimentation. It is always possible for parent to talk with school counselors and professionals to help with the problem Allen, Porter, McFarland, Marsh, and McElhaney [1] reported that adolescents who were well-liked by many peers displayed high level of ego development and secure attachment, as well as better interactions with their best friends. It was found that associating with students who have a positive affect toward enhanced students own satisfaction with school whereas associating with friends who have a negative affect toward school decreased it [14]. From a social competency perspective, it is likely that students who have difficulty establishing themselves in a peer group may also have academic difficulties in school [16]. While the differences are more observed between adolescents that are neglected and those who are rejected.

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 [10]. The finding emphasizes the importance of which elements are most important in affecting the academic arrivals. However, the percentage of teenager's friends with academic orientation itself is not predictive of academic achievement [6] which may be an evidence of lack of peer influence academic achievement, or a need to investigate other aspect of friendship beyond the similarity in academic success.

Hoxby [7] exploits exogenous variation in peer composition in adjacent years at the school grade level in elementary schools in Texas. The findings showed that peers effects in education ranging from close to zero to about 0.50 standard deviations [7]. In studies where it was possible to identify classmates are possibly are missing out on information on the real reference group of a student. The critical point in measuring the influence of peers is to identify the real peers. Keeping in mind that students spend a relatively big part of their time in class and it seems to be a credible assumption that their classmates are a good proxy of their group peers. However, in some cases there can be significant variation between classes within school- grades and hence the assumption that school grade peers are a good proxy of classmates can be quite strong.

Schools and teachers know that good communication with parents is an important part of their job. Teachers need to know about the children's families, language, and culture in order to help children learn. Parents benefit because they learn more about what goes on in school and can encourage learning at home. Most importantly, children benefit by improved communication because contact between homes and school helps children learn and succeed. But parent-teacher communication can also be hard, especially when parents feel uncomfortable in school, don't speak English well, or come from different cultural backgrounds than teachers. Fortunately, both parents and teachers have developed ways to make communication easier. Some parents might have had a bad experience in school when they were children. Other parents have not felt welcomed by the school or teacher. Fortunately; there are things that can be done to help overcome these barriers. Here are examples of how some parents have become more comfortable and confident. Parents and teachers should check with each other first to make sure they both feel comfortable with these arrangements:

Chat with the teacher. One father just stops by and chats with his daughter's teacher when he picks his daughter up from school. Through these talks they have come to know each other and that can make it easier when it is time to have a parent-teacher conference.

Join in an activity or program for parents at the school. Some parents help a science class by doing gardening and helping children see how plants grow. Some parents attend a parent group at school to learn how to help their children learn at home. When parents do these kinds of things, it is a way of telling the teacher and the child that the parent cares a lot about the child's education and the school.

Talk to other people who spend time in the school. One parent knows the school nurse and is able to talk comfortably to her. This parent is able to learn more about the school by talking with other parents or neighbors who know the school and can provide information.

Watching child in the school. One mother regularly sits in her son's classroom at the beginning of the day for a few minutes when she drops him off. She gets the feel of the classroom and sees how he acts with his friends and his teacher. Sometimes parents do not have a car or someone to watch their other children while they visit the school. Other times, parents work during the day or evening and cannot get to a meeting. But communication can happen even without a visit to the school.

Talk on the phone with the teacher. One mother works full time, but is able to take calls at her job. She gave her work number to her child's teacher. When the child has a problem in class, the teacher can call the mother so they can work on a solution to the problem together. Sometimes the mother will give advice to the child over the phone.

Write a little note. A mother who works a swing shift job has a hard time coming into school during school hours. Sometimes she asks her older daughter who goes to the school to deliver a note to her young son's teacher, to tell the teacher about a doctor's appointment or other news. Studies conducted in USA, sought to evaluate the efficacy of teacher communication with parents and students as a means of increasing student engagement (Kraft, Matthew and Shaun, 2011). It estimated the causal effect of teacher communication by conducting a randomized field experiment in which children were assigned to receive a daily phone call home and a text/written message during a mandatory summer school program. It was found out that frequent teacher-parent communication immediately increased student engagement as measured by homework completion rates, on-task behavior and class participation. On average, teacher-parent communication increased the odds ratio student completed their homework by 42% and decreased instances in which teachers had to redirect students' attention to the task at hand by 25%. Class participation rates among 6th grade students increased by 49%, while communication appeared to have a small negative effect on 8th grade students' willingness to participate. Drawing upon surveys and interviews with participating teachers and students, there are three primary mechanisms through which communication likely affected engagement: stronger teacher-student relationships, expanded parental involvement, and increased student motivation. Parents can talk with their children and communicate positive behaviors, values, and character traits. They can keep in touch with the school and they can express high expectations for children and encourage their efforts to achieve. School communicates with families about school programs and student progress through effective school-to-home and home-to-school communication. A teacher usually calls a parent to report a child's inappropriate behavior or academic failure. But teachers can use phone calls to let parents know about positive behavior and to get input. Parents justifiably become defensive if they think that every phone call will bring a bad report. If teachers accustom parents to receiving regular calls just for keeping in touch, it is easier to discuss problems when they occur (Grolnick, 1994).

According to **T. Z. Keith (1993)**, when a child returns from school with assignment, the parents' role is to make sure that it has been done in the right way and at the right time. Parents checking child's homework, has shown a positive association with academic achievement in some studies. Students whose parents are involved in checking their homework showed higher achievement than students whose parents are not involved in checking homework. Other studies, however, have shown a negative association between parents checking their children's homework and academic achievement (Kurdek et.,al, 1995).

What parents do is more important to student success than whether they are rich or poor, whether parents have finished high school or not. Every school will promote partnerships that will increase parental participation in promoting the academic growth of children. It is known that children who spend more time on homework, on average, do better in school, and that the academic benefits increase as children move into the upper grades (Tizard et.,al 1993). Good assignments, completed successfully, can help children develop wholesome habits and attitudes. However, homework can help parents learn about their children's education. This can encourage a lifelong love for learning (Tizard et.,al 1993). Learning at home involves families and their children in learning together at home, including homework and other curriculum-linked activities and decisions. Decision making includes families as participants in school decisions, governance, and advocacy through PTA, school councils, committees, and other parent organizations. Studies conducted by Education Research International in USA and Uganda shows that, parental affective support and participation appeared to be one of the strongest predictors of students' academic achievement (Deslandes, 1997). The recent meta-analysis conducted by (Jeynes, 2007) showed a strong positive association between parental style defined as supportive, loving, helpful, and maintaining an adequate level of discipline and academic achievement. These positive associations may be due to the ability of parents with an authoritative parenting style to be loving and supportive and yet maintain an adequate level of discipline in the household. Parents with this parenting style also demonstrate qualities such as trust and approachability that motivate children to discuss academic problems and expectations with their parents. Additionally, such parents are more likely to make contact with teachers when students have academic or behavioral problems (Deslandes, Sophia and Reifel, 1997). Busy parents can include children in such everyday activities as preparing a meal or grocery shopping. Teachers can also suggest that parents set aside time each day to talk with their children about school. Parents may find this difficult if they have little idea of what occurs in school. Parents and children can discuss current events using teacher-provided questions. Teachers often suggest the activity of reading aloud to children. Reading to children

is an important factor in increasing their interest and ability in reading. Teachers can also encourage children to read to parents. In areas where children may not have many books, schools can lend books, and teachers can provide questions for parents and children to discuss (Patrikakou, 2004). Educational activities at home include: reading together with the children, playing math's and playing games, engaging in meaningful educational dialogues, reading to you children, listening to your children reading, engage the children in math's/science activities at home , taking children for educational tours, camps etc.

Parents are involved in Preschool children activities which help the child learn. Some of these activities include provision of play materials like toys and other materials for preschool play. These toy and material help the child to develop in creativity of the mind. The child can be able to remember different types of toys how the look like and how they function. Young children are strongly influenced by toys that are marketed on television. First, many of these toys are related to cartoon shows, current children's movies, or children's television programs that feature violence and action figures. Unfortunately, these toys have little play value and can be related to aggressive play (Frost, 2008). They do not stimulate the imagination, dramatic play, or creativity. Over the past 50 years, the transformation of toys has included more technology and they are mass produced with unlimited variety.

Secondly, a parent is supposed to read together with the child. Reading together with the child helps the parent to identify the weaknesses of the child. For example the child can be able to read vocabulary and in other languages. The parent can also teach the child skills to listen and repeat what he/she has read. The parent will assist the child to count and do simple mathematical problems. Further the child can be helped to do the Counting, Grouping, Pairing, Sorting, Comparing and Matching. This will assist the child in performing better in mathematics since he/ she is doing allot of related activities. The child is provided with computer which has been installed with computer games and programs. These are found in the desktops at home. Some of these activities help the child to be a critical thinker since in any game the participants must think very first for someone to win (Frost, 2008).

Third, Parent – preschool child debate is another example of Parents' participation in educational activities at home. Children also can be introduced to debates by their parents when for example waiting for the supper to get ready. By introducing such motions the child will be to develop skills of communication, listening, arguments, contribution, and broadening of mind. Debates and motions help the child to develop also dialogue skills. This will help in listening, and be able to respond to any particular question being discussed. By doing this well the child is able to apply the same techniques to academics both in school and at home. Finally, another example of Parents' participation in educational activities at home is education tours such as visiting museums, caves, zoos firms etc. These sites help them to study and know world science. The child will feel good after seeing interesting wild animals which are not common to our sight.

Coleman Report (Coleman et al. 1966) is one of the earliest studies on peer group effects in education. In particular, Coleman and colleagues indicate that black students performed better academically if they were in schools with higher fraction of white students. Winkler's study (1975) finds that both white and black student's scholastic achievement is positively related to peer social economic composition; and especially, transferring from a predominantly black school to a school with lower black population adversely affects the achievement of black students. Two studies in the 70s by Summers and Wolf (1977), and Henderson, Mieszkowski and Sauvageau (1978), have shown that students achieve higher if they are placed with high performing peers. However, the early studies take few steps toward addressing the endogeneity problems.

In the past two decades, a growing literature has adopted a variety of innovative techniques to circumvent the methodological challenges in estimating peer effects. Despite the differences among all the methods used in recent studies, the key to overcoming the endogeneity problem is to find exogenous sources of variation in peer composition. The following review will focus on the strengths and weaknesses of identification strategies in some selected studies. Because this study examines peer group effects on both student academic achievement and behavioral outcomes, the literature review also includes previous peer effect studies on both outcomes.

According to **Bowlby John**, in order for secure attachment to occur, the caregiver is available and responds quickly to the infant's distress. This prompt responsiveness helps the child to avoid excessive negative effects and creates a sense of security. The security encourages exploration and helps children master their physical and social environments. In turn, further development is encouraged (Bowlby, 1951). Bowlby studied homeless infants in order to understand what happens when the child does not gain secure attachment to a caregiver. He found that the infants followed a somewhat standard pattern. When infants were separated from an attachment figure they cried and actively searched for their caregiver and resisted soothing from others. As the separation continued, the children became obviously sad and passive. This led to emotional detachment when it became obvious that their caregivers would not return. The mother was considered as the primary caregiver in Bowlby's research. However, the principal attachment figure does not have to be the mother. The father or other principal caregiver can be a primary attachment figure (Geiger, 1996, p. 5). A majority of children develop more than one attachment relationship during the first year of life (Cassidy, 1999). Bowlby was interested in attachment not only to explain infant behavior but to explain behaviors from cradle to grave (Bowlby, 1977). Bowlby believed that early attachment behaviors affected an individual's personality development. Bowlby was particularly interested in how attachment history influenced mental health and criminal behavior (Mercer, 2006). Bowlby (1969/1982) found that human beings at any age were most well-adjusted when they had confidence in the accessibility and responsiveness of a trusted other. This confidence was gained by experiencing secure attachment with a principal caregiver as an infant and child.

Ainsworth et al. (1978) provided additional research on Bowlby's theory of attachment. Ainsworth sought to measure attachment through experimental research (Mercer, 2006, p. 40). Ainsworth's (1978) experiment, called "The Strange Situation Experiment,"

involved observing mothers, children, and strangers in a series of situations in which the parent left the child and a stranger entered the area (p. 43). Her research classified children from the ages of 12 to 18 months by attachment type (p. 45). These types are explained further in the Basic Patterns of Attachment section. West and Sheldon-Keller (1994) pointed out that “Almost all subsequent empirical and theoretical work on attachment in infancy is based on Ainsworth’s methodology” (p. 14). Elicker, Englund, and Stroufe (1992, p. 99) monitored children for at least ten years and found predictable personality and social behaviors based on their attachment history with their parents. Other researchers (Waters et al., as cited in Levy, Blatt & Shaver, 1998) monitored subjects for 20 years and found that 64% of subjects did not show a change in their attachment patterns. These two research studies supported the theory that attachment behaviors are unlikely to change over time.

Basic Patterns of Attachment

There are four recognized patterns of parental (caregiver) attachment:

- (a) secure;
- (b) insecure or anxious-avoidant;
- (c) insecure or anxious-resistant (Ainsworth et al., 1978, pp. 311-321); and
- (d) disorganized-disoriented (Main & Solomon, 1990).

Secure. A child demonstrating secure attachment will use the mother or caregiver as a secure base from which to explore an unfamiliar environment. Secure children actively investigate new situations when an attachment figure is present but become distressed when left alone. When the attachment figure comes back, the child seeks close contact and comfort and then resumes play quickly. Additionally, the child’s interaction with his or her primary caregiver is more harmonious (Weinfeld, Sroufe, Egeland & Carlson, 1999, p. 72). Secure children understand that their attachment figures are accessible and responsive, and they are easily calmed and reassured after a threatening situation (Guttman-Steinmetz & Crowell, 2006). The child is quickly soothed by close bodily contact with the caregiver. The child also appears to be less anxious (Ainsworth et al., 1978, p. 312). Research on mothers of secure infants revealed that they respond to distress with sensitivity and are generally available and cooperative (Levy et al., 1998, p. 408). Thus, secure children feel comfortable with expressing their emotions and communicating their desires to caregivers, and they are confident their needs will be addressed (Bretherton & Munholland, 1999).

Anxious-Avoidant. The second pattern is called anxious-avoidant (Ainsworth et al., 1978). These children display little stress when left alone and often seek distance from the parent (Solomon & George, 1999, p. 291). Research on the mothers of these infants revealed they found close contact aversive and often rejected their infants. These caregivers seem remote and quick to anger (Levy et al., 1998, p. 408). The focus of these attachment figures seems to be on encouraging independence and they respond with limited emotion and physical affection (Ainsworth & Eichberg, 1991). Like secure children, anxious-avoidant children explore the new environment but are not bothered by the departure of the attachment figure. The child blatantly ignores the attachment figure’s return, concentrating solely on the environment. Thus, anxious-avoidant children avoid or minimize the importance of their emotions and seem outwardly calm and indifferent. However, they have been found to have higher stress levels than secure or anxious resistant children (Cassidy, 1999).

Anxious-Resistant. Children who are classified as anxious-resistant display intense distress when their caretaker leaves, and they are unable to be calmed when the caretaker returns. These children lack confidence in the caregiver’s reactions (Peluso, Peluso, White & Kern, 2004, p. 140). Research on the mothers of these children found they were more self-preoccupied and more sensitive to their own needs than those of their children (Levy et al., 1998, p. 408). These caregivers were observed to be unpredictable and indifferent, which resulted in the children’s tendency to cling to their attachment figure and show disinterest in the surrounding environment (Ainsworth et al., 1978, p. 314). The child’s primary focus is on the attachment figure and the child is tremendously upset when separated from the caregiver. Anxious-resistant children exaggerate their distress in a strange situation, and project feelings of distress, anger, and anxiety in order to gain the attention of the inconsistent caregiver (Cassidy, 1999). The inability to be consoled results from the child’s fear that calming down will result in losing the caregiver’s attention.

Disorganized-Disoriented. The fourth category, disorganized-disoriented, was added later (Levy et al., 1998; Main & Solomon, 1990). Disorganized-disoriented children appear to be confused about how to respond to their caregivers and they are more likely to have been maltreated by parents (Lyons-Ruth, Connell, Zoll & Stahl, 1987). They seem frightened by the caregiver and may tend to avoid or resist his/her approaches. One striking characteristic is that infants may become very still when the caregiver is present (Main & Hesse, 1990). Parents of these children are more troubled, depressed, and abusive. These parents may be troubled by their own attachment-related traumas and losses (Belsky & Cassidy, 1994). Research has shown that parents of disorganized-disoriented children were more likely to be alcoholics (Lyons-Ruth & Jacobvitz, 1999) and/or involved in violent relationships (Wekerle & Wolfe, 1998).

In summary, secure children balance their desire for the attention of attachment figures and their interest in exploring the environment (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Secure children are much more likely to explore their environment. Early childhood attachment styles are usually maintained throughout one’s lifetime.

Working Models

Bowlby’s (as cited in Cassidy, 1999) concept of an internal working model consisted of “mental representations of the attachment figure, the self, and the environment, all of which are largely based on experiences” (p. 7). A working model is created by individuals based on their historical experiences with actual attachment figures (West & Sheldon-Keller, 1994, p. 54). Bowlby (1969/1982) referred to the construction of “working models that are based on actual experience but are used to extrapolate those experiences to novel situations” (p. 80). A working model is created and internalized by children as they establish a stable pattern of attachment

which is based on the continuing contact with their caregiver (Heiss, Berman & Sperling, 1996, p. 103). A working model may be partly conscious and partly unconscious. Individuals are often not aware of their internal working models. The model may not always be completely consistent or coherent (Levy et al., 1998).

A working model is a set of expectations about the likelihood that attachment figures will provide support during times of stress (care giving), as well as expectations about how one will interact (care seeking) with attachment figures (Bowlby, 1973/1999). Working models are composed not only of behaviors but also of affective, cognitive, and perceptual components (Chisholm, 1996). They impact the way people interpret situations as well as how they feel, think, and act.

Bowlby (1969/1982) was interested in how attachment influences future behavior and personality. By understanding how early attachment behaviors create working models, one can begin to predict future behavior. Working models create a useful framework for guiding behavior as one interacts with the attachment figure and others in their lives. The working model also enables one to predict one's own behavior as well as the social behavior of others (Kerns, 1994). Most importantly, working models pave the way for attachment throughout an individual's lifetime.

Nancy Feyl Chavkin and David Williams (1993) surveyed 2,967 parents in order to regulate their interest in several school involvement roles. They request parent to rank interest in the following seven roles; paid school staff, audience, decision makers, program supporter, advocate, home tutor, and co-learner.

The data were investigated according to parent ethnicity. Chavkin and Williams (1993) found robust resemblances among all groups (Anglo, African American, and Hispanic) in the top three rankings; audience, home tutor, and program supporter. The sorts that were ranked lower in interest by all parents in the survey were less traditional roles; decision makers, co-learner, and paid school staff. The only variances found among racial groups were in minority parents' greater interest in paid roles. Chavkin and Williams concluded that parents were interested in all seven roles, and that their overall interest in parent involvement in school was high.

Bowlby John (1982) was interested in how attachment influenced future behavior and personality. By understanding how early attachment behaviors create working models one can begin to predict future behavior. The working models create a useful framework for guiding behavior as one interacts with the attachment figure and others. The working model also enables one to predict one's own behavior as well as the social behavior of others (Kerns, 1994). Most importantly, working models pave the way for attachment throughout an individual's lifetime. Although attachment seems most evident in infants and children, researchers have found that attachment behavior is relatively steady throughout life (Sroufe, 1988; Waters, Hamilton & Weinfield, 2000). As children age, their attachment style becomes the working model for expectations of their relationship with others. Engrained attachment behavior influences trust in others and individual self-worth. Every behavioral transaction is subject to the lens with which an individual views the world based on their attachment style (Bowlby, 1980). While parent-child relationships become physically distant with time, psychological attachment is effectively maintained through long distance communications (Bowlby, 1982).

Peer effect on student academic achievement

Relying on longitudinal panel data from **Texas, Hoxby** (2001) estimates substantial peer effects on student achievement by comparing the idiosyncratic variations in adjacent cohorts' race and gender composition within a grade within a school. The author argues that the identification strategies are credibly free of selection biases because the between cohort peer variations are beyond the easy management of parents and schools. However, Hanushek et al (2009) examined the same data set and pointed out that the between cohort peer composition changes actually come from frequent student transfers rather than birth or biological rate differences. Student transfers, however, are related to some unobserved family factors that also impact student achievement. If it is the transfers that cause the variations in peer characteristics, Hoxby's method can not eliminate the endogeneity of family selection. Another study by Lavy and Schlosser (2007) uses very similar strategies to Hoxby's to examine classroom level peer impacts, and find that a high proportion of female classmates improve both boys' and girls' academic performance. Both studies avoid simultaneity bias by only examining predetermined peer characteristics, such as peer race and gender. Hanushek and colleagues (2003) also investigate school level peer effects using the same set of Texas data as Hoxby; but they implement different techniques to address the endogeneity problem. Their study eliminates the across-school sorting problems by using fixed effect (FE) methods, and circumvents the reflection problems using lagged peer achievement measures. As argued by the authors, fixed student effects account for all systematic and unobservable time-invariant individual and family factors that may influence the residential choice as well as student achievement, such as individual ability and parental motivations; fixed school effects are correlated with peer composition through school and neighborhood choices. The paper finds moderate effects of average peer achievement on student learning, but no impacts from average peer economic status or the dispersion of peer achievement. Fixed effects are also used in other school level peer effect studies by Hanushek et al. (2009), McEwan (2003) and Ammermueller and Pischke (2006).

Fixed effects are widely used in studies investigating classroom peer effects to overcome the self-sorting problems. For example, Burk and Sass (2004) measure the peer influences on mathematic achievement within specific math classrooms for middle school students in Florida. Both student and teacher fixed effects, as well as school/grade and year fixed effects are included in the regression. Based on the findings that adding teacher fixed effects purges away the peer influences, the authors argue that the apparent peer impacts found in other studies may just reflect the endogenous matching between teachers and students within a school. Other classroom peer studies using fixed effect method include Betts and Zau (2004), Vigdor and Nechyba (2004), Stiefel, Schwartz, and Zabel (2004), and Sund (2009). Using fixed effects is expected to remove the spurious correlations between the time-invariant unobservables and the peer measures. However, despite its popularity, fixed effect models are not able to overcome the endogeneity that results from time varying factors, such as the year-to-year shocks.

Lindgren Henry Clay (1980) observed that, individuals need to relate to their peers for they are dependent on their attitudes, feelings, and expectations to help them construct their own views of the world. Farmer (2010) also affirms that peers are not inherently positive or negative, they can be both good and bad. He further said that, peer friendships, group interactions, and influences are a

part of positive development. Young people learn to evaluate themselves through the eyes of their peers, they get feedback on their personal characteristics, they gain social skills and confidence and they learn how to defer personal gratification to group goals. Young people also learn how to make themselves more attractive and interesting to others, they learn to control their aggressive reactions in the interest of fitting with others. And that peers can also offer an opportunity to develop various social skills, such as leadership, teamwork and empathy.

But Burton, Ray, & 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 (Namugembe, 1999). It is worth mentioning that individual students who hold negative views towards school and opt to drop out of school bring emotional frustration and shatter the expectations people had in them for their future success.

Lindgren (1980) further observed that an individual's attitudes towards school initially tend to be positive; learning becomes an exciting adventure as new skills are discovered and vistas open, but later something happens. Perhaps learning tasks are increasingly repetitive, teachers become less supportive and permissive, or perhaps children themselves develop goals and motives that are in conflict with those of the school. It is at this stage that peer group influence begins to set goals that compete with those of the school. The school becomes less interesting and attractive, and negative peer group influence sets in.

However, in a report that was compiled which was code-named, Raising the Educational Achievement of Secondary School Students (REASSS, 1995), it was observed that high dropout rates of students, poor attendance, and frequent conflicts between students and teachers and among students themselves often signal alienation among students as peers and need to build their commitment to schooling. Those who dropout of school often attributes this to teachers who do not care about them. Teachers are potentially builders of students' attitudes towards school. This is in agreement with what Hinds, et al. (1999) noted, that teachers wield great potential to shape students' attitudes towards school. This means that peer groups may not only be the ones who influence students' attitudes to school, but also teachers and parents have that potential.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Adolescence is a 'Period of Storm and Stress', it is a crossroad from childhood to adulthood. There are many hurdles and challenges which come up their way. These are imposed by Physiological, Psychological and Environmental conditions. Among these the parents as well as Peer Group casts a lot of influence. The parents pressurize the adolescent to do well in academics and get very high grades. They compare the adolescent with others and ask them to be like other adolescents who have excelled in academics and even extracurricular activities. If the adolescent is unable to achieve high grades or up to the mark of their parent's expectation they start telling lies, build the habit of hiding marks, as they feel guilty and feel withdrawn. They want to live up to the expectations of their parents.

On the other hand the peer group also puts pressure on them and tries to influence and lead them to adopt certain ways of living which may lead them to risk behaviors like addictions, intimacy, sex offences, etc. These in turn my also affects the academic performance of the students. The adolescent at this stage feels that to follow peer action are correct, as they have the fear of being socially rejected, being bullied, and unaccepted by the group. Even though they might know that they are not correct, but the fear over powers them.

The study will cater benefits to the students. They will have a better understanding of themselves with the help of the information provided by this research. They will also realize the worth of their family, particularly their parents, as well as their friends and peers in their life. This will enable them to value and appreciate more their family and friends. These may strengthen the way they perceive their self which may have a positive effect on their academic performance.

The information provided by this study may also help the parents. This study will enable them to become aware on how they influence their children on his academic performance as well as the importance of having a healthy family structure for the benefit of their children. This awareness will make them feel the significance of their role to prevent possible problems that may occur to their children such as low level of educational achievement

METHODOLOGY

Research Problem: A study of the impact of the level of academic performance on parental attachment and peer group relationship.

Objectives:

- To study the parental attachment and peer group relationship of high academic achievers.
- To study the parental attachment and peer group relationship of low academic achievers.
- To study the difference among high and low academic performance pertaining to parental attachment.
- To study the difference among high and low academic performance pertaining to peer pressure.
- To suggest need based measure.

Hypothesis:

- H_0 : There is no significant difference in parental attachment among high and low academic achievers.
- H_{01} : There is no significant difference in peer pressure among high and low academic achievers.

Operational Definitions:

▪ **Parental Attachment:** an emotional bond experienced with another who is sensed as a source of security and who provides a secure base anchoring exploration (Bowlby, 1988, p. 4). The four accepted forms of parental attachment are secure, anxious-avoidant, anxious-ambivalent (Ainsworth et al., 1978), and disorganized-disoriented (Main & Solomon, 1990).

▪ **Peer Pressure:** Peer pressure (or social pressure) is direct influence on people by peers, or an individual who gets encouraged to follow their peers by changing their [attitudes](#), [values](#), or [behaviors](#) to [conform](#) to those of the influencing group or individual. This type of pressure differs from general social pressure because it causes an individual to change in response to a feeling of being pressured or influenced from a peer or peer group. Social groups affected include both membership groups, in which individuals are "formally" members (such as [political parties](#) and [trade unions](#)), and [cliques](#) in which membership is not clearly defined. However, a person does not need to be a member or be seeking membership of a group to be affected by peer pressure.

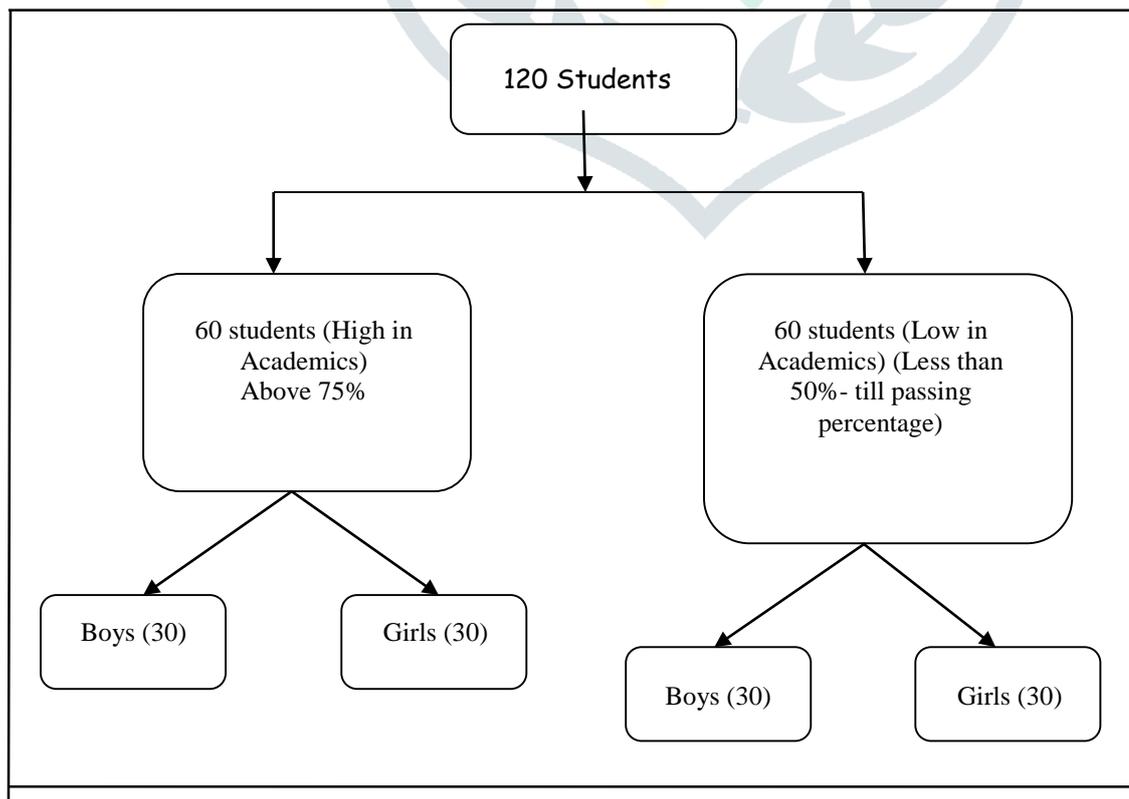
▪ **Academic Performance:** Academic achievement or (academic) performance is the outcome of [education](#) the extent to which a student, teacher or institution has achieved their educational goals. Academic achievement is commonly measured by [examinations](#) or [continuous assessment](#) but there is no general agreement on how it is best tested or which aspects are most important [procedural knowledge](#) such as [skills](#) or [declarative knowledge](#) such as [facts](#).

Academic Achievement: The marks of students in the two previous annual school examinations were obtained from the school records to get an index of academic achievement.

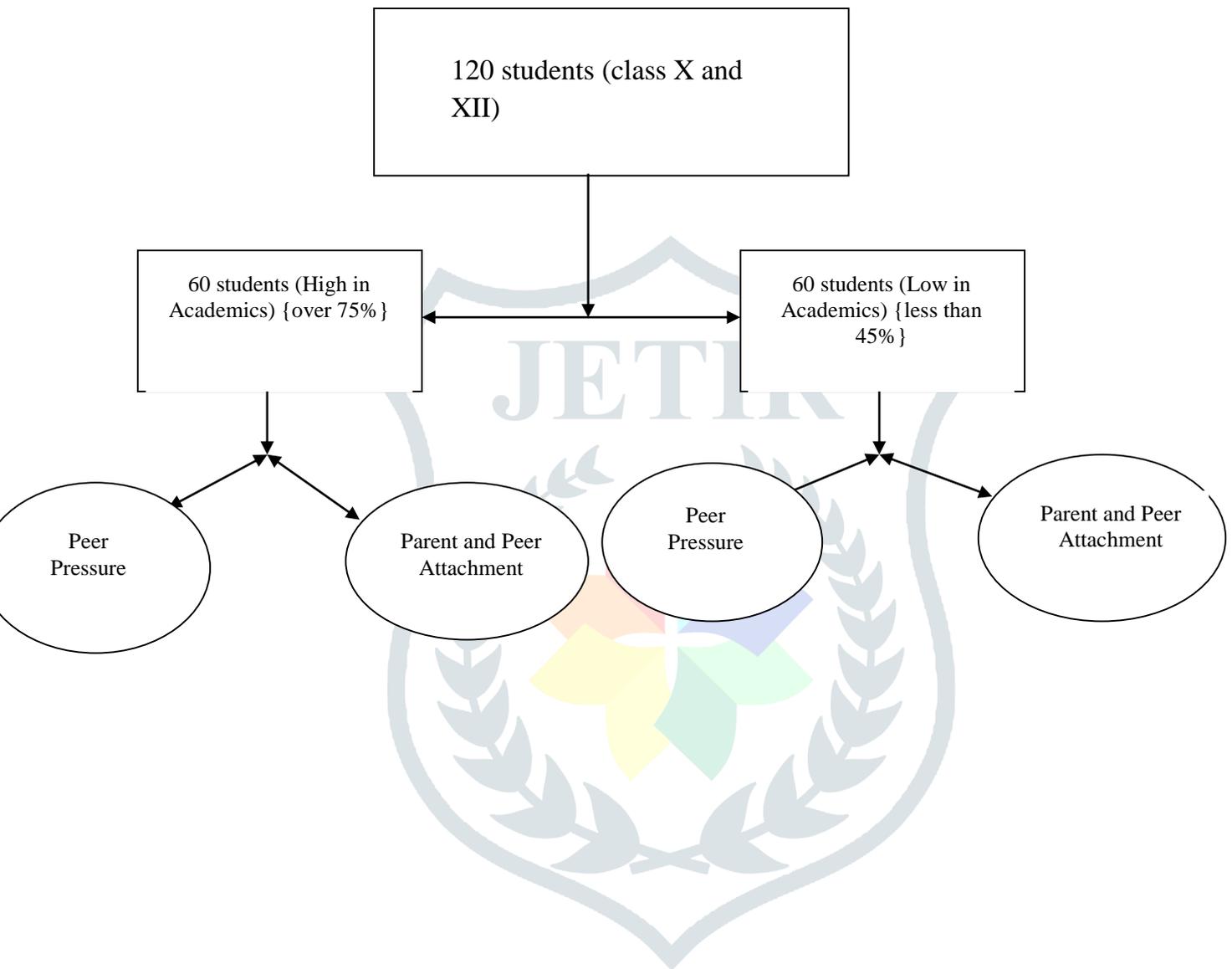
Sample: The sample for the current study included 120 students (60 students who are high in academics and 60 who are low in academics) within the class level of X and XII. Of these students, 60 students of Class X (30 Males and 30 Female students), 60 students of Class XII (30 Males and 30 Female students) Simple random sampling technique will be used to select three Private coeducational secondary schools in city of Kolkata.

Inclusive and Exclusive Criteria for Sample:

- Students with 75% and above were taken into consideration as high academic achievers.
- Students with 45% and below till the level of pass percentage were considered as low academic achievers.
- Students who were unable to pass their academic year were excluded from the study.
- Students who were in Class X there two previous annual school examinations were taken into consideration i.e., Class IX and VIII and then the aggregate was done. Students who were in Class XII there two previous annual examinations were taken into consideration i.e., Class X (board exams) and Class XI (final Examination marks) and then the aggregate was done.



Research Design:



Test/Tools for Data Collection:

- **The Peer Pressure Inventory (PPI):** To measure the peer group influence, the Peer

Pressure Inventory (PPI) will be used on students of Class X and XII. The Peer Pressure Inventory (PPI) was used to measure the peer group influence. The statements were in pairs and in each pair; individuals were to decide whether they were encouraged by their peers to do or not to do something. Each item was scored from -3 to +3 with the “no influence” option scored as zero. Thus: 3 = a lot, meaning a lot of influence from peers; 2 = somewhat, meaning a bit of influence; 1 = little, meaning little influence from peers, and 0 = no influence. In addition, -1 = little, meaning that friends do not encourage you to do something; -2 somewhat, -3 = a lot. The code ranges from -3 to +3 whereas their scores ranges from 0 to 6 so, the coding will be: -3 = 0, -2 = 1, -1 = 2, 0 = 3, +1 = 4, +2 = 5, +3 = 6. The potential range was from 0 - 132. Negative influence ranged from 0 – 44. Low influence ranged from 45 - 89, and positive influence ranged from 90-132. High scores implied positive peer group influence from the positive direction or negative peer group influence from the negative direction.

- **Inventory of parent and peer attachment (IPPA)** The IPPA was developed in order

to assess adolescents' perceptions of the positive and negative affective/cognitive dimension of relationships with their parents and close friends -- particularly how well these figures serve as sources of psychological security. The theoretical framework is attachment theory, originally formulated by Bowlby and recently expanded by others. Three broad dimensions are assessed: degree of mutual trust; quality of communication; and extent of anger and alienation. The development samples were 16 to 20 years of age; however the IPPA has been used successfully in several studies with adolescents as young as 12. The instrument is a self-report questionnaire with a five point likert-scale response format. The original version consists of 28 parents and 25 peer items, yielding two attachment scores. The revised version (Mother, Father, and Peer Version) is comprised of 25 items in each of the mother, father, and peer sections, yielding three attachment scores. The IPPA is scored by reverse-scoring the negatively worded items and then summing the response values in each section. Three week test-retest reliabilities for a sample of 27 18- to 20-year-olds were .93 for parent attachment and .86 for peer attachment. For the revised version, internal reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) are: Mother attachment, .87; Father Attachment, .89; Peer attachment, .92.

Statistical Data: Statistics to be used for this study will be Mean, Standard Deviation (S.D), and T-Test using the SPSS Statistical Package/ Software.

DATA TABULATION

Table 1 – Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment IPPA

Segments	Mother		Father		Peer		N
High Academic Achievers – Boys	110	16.5	105	15.75	48	7.3	30
High Academic Achievers – Girls	102	15.3	112	16.8	32	4.8	30
Low Academic Acheivers – Boys	62	9.3	56	8.4	102	15.3	30
Low Academic Achievers - Girls	48	7.2	50	7.5	79	11.85	30
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	

Note : The Range for the given set of scores is from 25 to 125 for each of the three categories.Higher score indicates greater closeness to the respective stakeholders.

Table 2 : T test table for high and low academic achievers (IPPA)

Father	<u>High Academic Achievers</u>	N = 60	Mean = 109	SD = 16.35	t-test
	<u>Low Academic Achievers</u>	N = 60	Mean = 53	SD = 7.95	<u>0.0002 (Significant at 0.05level)</u>
Mother	<u>High Academic Achievers</u>	N = 60	Mean = 106	SD = 15.9	<u>0.0001 (Significant ta 0.05 level)</u>

	<u>Low Academic Achievers</u>	N = 60	Mean = 55	SD = 8.25	
Peer	<u>High Academic Achievers</u>	N = 60	Mean = 40	SD = 6	<u>0.0001 (Significant ta 0.05 level)</u>
	<u>Low Academic Achievers</u>	N = 60	Mean = 90	SD = 13.5	

Table 3 : Peer Pressure Inventory Scores

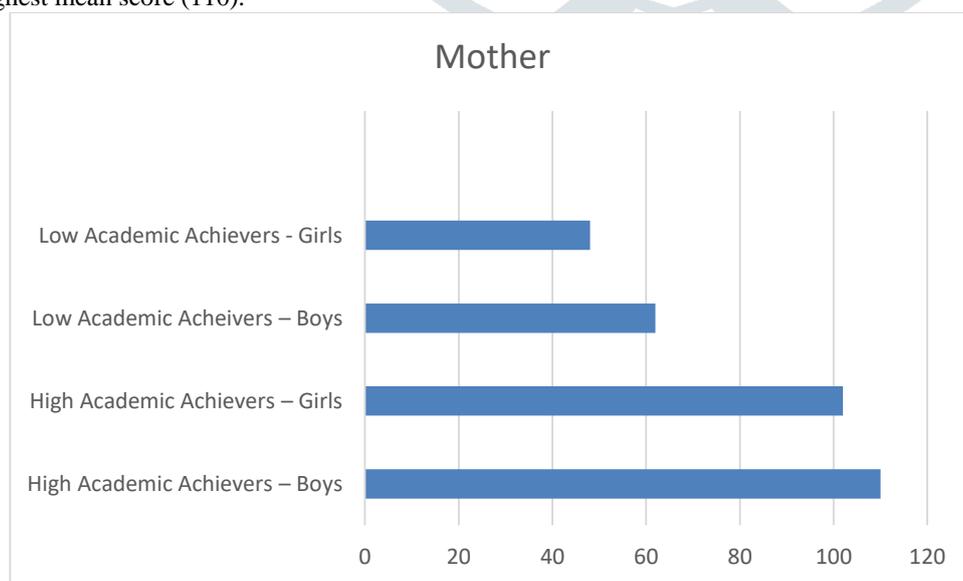
Segments	Peer Influence Inventory		
High Academic Achievers – Boys	75	11.25	30
High Academic Achievers – Girls	68	10.2	30
Low Academic Achievers – Boys	120	17.35	30
Low Academic Achievers – Girls	95	14.25	30
	Mean	SD	N
Range – Negative Influence	0 – 44		
Low Influence	45 – 89		
Positive Influence	90 – 132		

Table 4 : T test for Peer Group Influence among high and low academic achievers

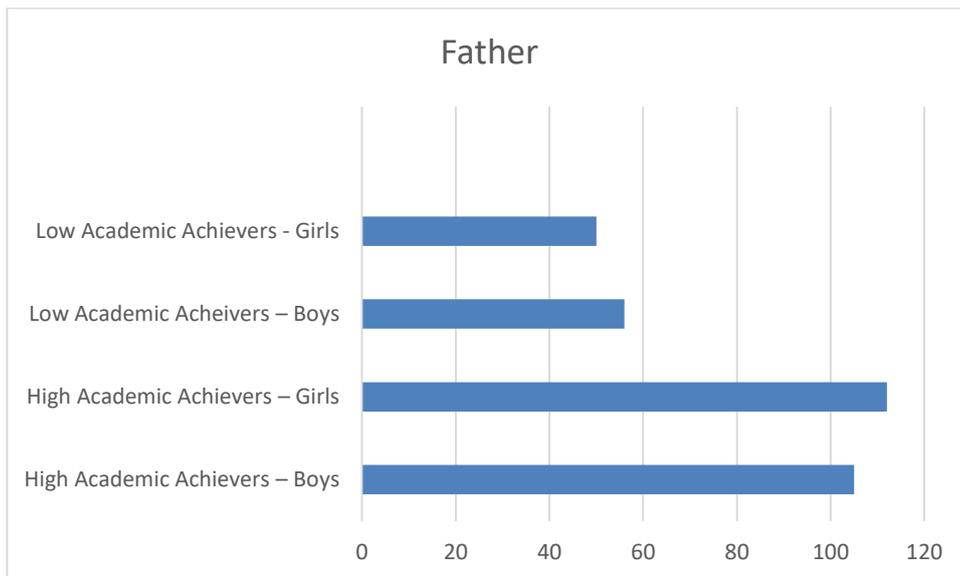
Peer Influence	<u>High Academic Achievers</u>	N = 60	Mean = 72	SD = 10.8	t-test
	<u>Low Academic Achievers</u>	N = 60	Mean = 108	SD = 16.2	<u>0.00012(Significant at 0.05level)</u>

Interpretation and Discussion

A look at the table 1 states that the high academic achievers (boys) are more closer or attached to their mother with a mean score of 110 in comparison to high academic achievers (girls) with a mean score of 102. Taking into consideration low academic achievers here too, the low academic achievers who are boys are comparatively more closer to their mother than their girl counterparts with mean score of 62 and 48 respectively. Highest attachment towards mother is seen in case of high scoring boys as depicted by the highest mean score (110).



The reason attributable to this may be the fact that in general mothers tend to be more protective about their sons in comparison to their daughters. Having made a comparison between high academic achievers and low academic achievers it may be stated that high academic achievers are more attached to their parents in the case of the current investigation.



Taking into consideration the stakeholder “Father” it is observed that high academic achievers that is girls are more attached to their father in comparison to their high achieving male counterpart with a mean score of 112 and 110 respectively. And taking into consideration low academic achievers it may be observed that boys are more attached to their father as depicted by their respective mean scores of 56 and 50 respectively. This may be because of the fact that fathers are more protective and close to their daughters and vice versa.

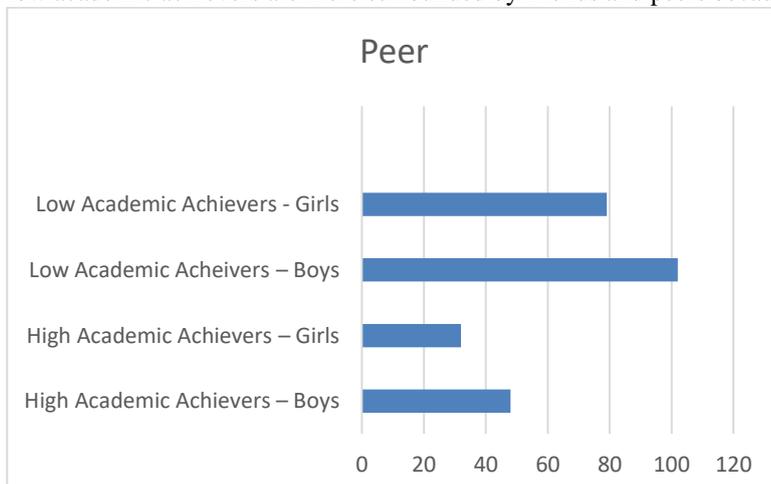
A look at table 1 reveals that low academic achievers (boys) are more closer and attached to peers in comparison to the high achievers as have been depicted by the mean score 102. This is so because , high achievers tend to have more competitors than friends in a class or a course thus ,being more attached to peers in case of high academic achievers be it boys or girls is a distant question.

Taking into consideration table 2 it may be stated that there is a significant difference in attachment between the means of high academic achievers and low academic achievers with their father as have been depicted by the t-test results showing a value of 0.0002 and significant at 0.05 level of significance.

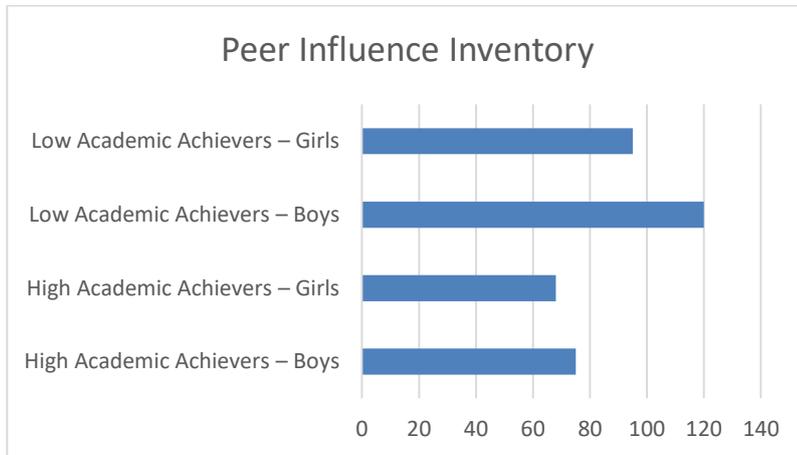
This may be because of the fact that the attachment with the father is all the more strong because of the high scholastic achievement of the child. This positive regard from the father further fosters the child and brings out the best in him or her.

Considering mother as the prime stakeholder it may be stated that there exists a significant difference in the attachment styles between high and low academic achievers as stated by the t test score of 0.0001 being significant at the 0.05 level of significance. The reason attributable can be similar to that as that of the father. The high academic achievers are more attached to the mother because of the unconditional love and care received by the child from the mother and also because of the pride which the mother feels because of the achievement of her child further increases the propensity of the child to achieve even better.

Further ,considering peer as the stakeholder , it may be stated that there exists a significant difference in the attachment with peers in between the high and the low academic achievers with a t test score of 0.0001 being significant at the 0.05 level of significance. This is so because the high academic achievers tend to have less friends and are more participants of an unending rat race. Whereas, the low academic achievers are more surrounded by friends and peers because of the sharing and non competitive nature.

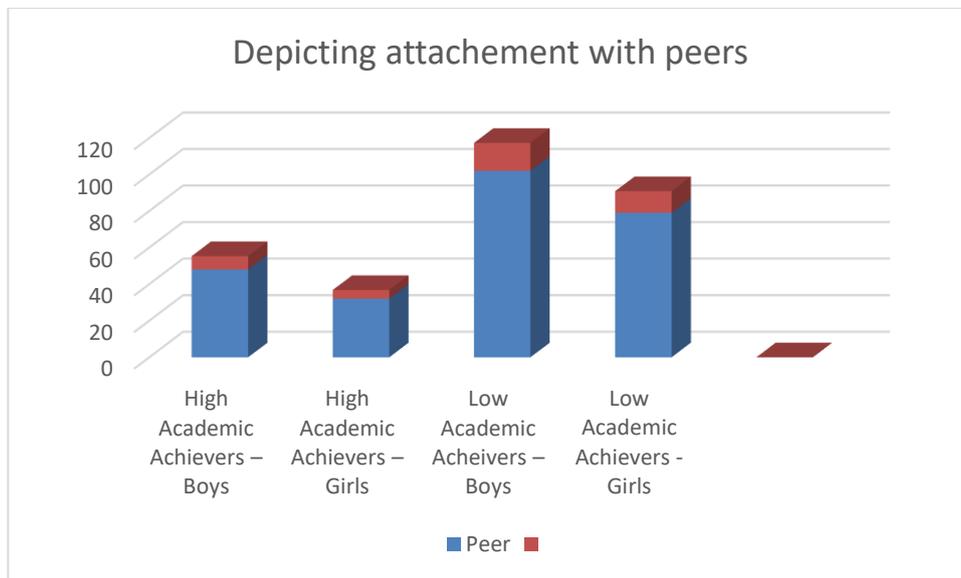


Taking into consideration table 3 ,it may be stated that the highest amount of positive influence is experienced by the low academic achievers who are boys with the highest mean score of 120 in the Peer Influence Inventory in comparison to the other counterparts. The obtained mean score falls in the category of positive influence as per the range stated in the manual for the given scale. And least peer influence is observed in case of high academic achievers who are girls with a mean score of 68. Taking into consideration table 4 , it may be stated with conviction that there exists a significant difference in the experience of peer influence between high and low academic achievers irrespective of gender as have been stated by the t test score of 0.00012 being significant at the 0.05 level of significance.



The prime reason being the fact that girls are of late more sincere about their goals and achievement and thus are more competitive and less gullible. Whereas ,in case of low academic achievers who are boys an antagonistic trend is observed. They are more gullible and are susceptible to more peer influences than in comparison to their girl counterparts. They have lot of peers because of their non-competitive nature and thus their propensity of being susceptible to their influence is more.

Relying on longitudinal panel data from **Texas, Hoxby (2001)** estimates substantial peer effects on student achievement by comparing the idiosyncratic variations in adjacent cohorts' race and gender composition within a grade within a school. The author argues that the identification strategies are credibly free of selection biases because the between cohort peer variations are beyond the easy management of parents and schools. However, **Hanushek et al (2009)** examined the same data set and pointed out that the between cohort peer composition changes actually come from frequent student transfers rather than birth or biological rate differences. Student transfers, however, are related to some unobserved family factors that also impact student achievement. If it is the transfers that cause the variations in peer characteristics, Hoxby's method can not eliminate the endogeneity of family selection. Another study by **Lavy and Schlosser (2007)** uses very similar strategies to Hoxby's to examine classroom level peer impacts, and find that a high proportion of female classmates improve both boys' and girls' academic performance. Both studies avoid simultaneity bias by only examining predetermined peer characteristics, such as peer race and gender. **Hanushek and colleagues (2003)** also investigate school level peer effects using the same set of Texas data as Hoxby; but they implement different techniques to address the endogeneity problem. Their study eliminates the across-school sorting problems by using fixed effect (FE) methods, and circumvents the reflection problems using lagged peer achievement measures. As argued by the authors, fixed student effects account for all systematic and unobservable time-invariant individual and family factors that may influence the residential choice as well as student achievement, such as individual ability and parental motivations; fixed school effects are correlated with peer composition through school and neighborhood choices. The paper finds moderate effects of average peer achievement on student learning, but no impacts from average peer economic status or the dispersion of peer achievement. Fixed effects are also used in other school level peer effect studies by **Hanushek et al. (2009)**, **McEwan (2003)** and **Ammermueller and Pischke (2006)**.



Need Based Measures

If one could communicate one thing to less attached parents, it would be that one needs to lose the idea that attaching is something the child does to the parents. Rather it is the parent who has to ensure that. The following are ways in which the attachment between parents and a child be it achieving or underachieving child can be worked out in a positive manner –

1. Assume the child is doing the best he can.
2. Having few expectations at the beginning.
3. Using positive touch as much as possible and not beating or scolding.

Attachment Suggestions For an Older Child:

1. If your child appears awkward with your touch, begin by placing lots of lotion on each others' arms. Then draw pictures in the lotion, rub the lotion smooth and start drawing pictures over.
2. Make a big deal out of scrapes and hurts. Be the nurturing parent.
3. Throughout the day, pat the child on the shoulder or give him a quick hug.
4. Dress in similar clothing. Wearing the same type of T-shirt and jeans is a visual affirmation that you belong to each other.
5. Put a sticker on your face and wait until your child comments about it.
6. As you play games, add the new rule that eye contact is needed before each turn.
7. Do things together: bake cookies, sort laundry, yard work, walk for exercise, and sit together to watch a video. Your child may not have been exposed to television or movies, so it important to watch the child's reactions to what he sees.
8. Eye-Contact Game: Turn off the lights and play with flashlights. Whenever a beam falls on you or your child, both of you look at each other and count to five. Then move and catch each other again.
9. Put matching washable tattoos on each other.
10. Spend extended time brushing or combing hair your child's hair.
11. Give butterfly kisses until child is comfortable giving or receiving a kiss.
12. Play "London Bridge," "Tower of Hands," and other hand-holding games with your child.
13. Play the game "Who can make the funniest face?" Maintain good eye contact.
14. Sleep in same room for an initial time period. All family members can sleep in sleeping bags on the floor.
15. Play with dolls by acting out your family life. Have dolls nurture and care for each other.
16. Keep a joy journal to share with your child as he develops language.
17. Write these ideas on small note cards or Post-It notes and place the notes throughout your home to remind you.
18. Smile at your child.
19. Laugh together.
20. If your child goes to day care or school, give your child a small laminated family picture he can keep it with him all day long as a reminder of you and other family members.

Recommendations for future research

1. Another Study may be conducted seeking to find out the relationship between parental attachment upon the scholastic achievement and adjustment of the child pertaining to home, health, social and emotional domain.

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