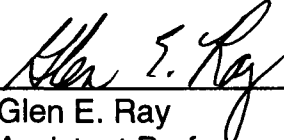




PEER RELATIONSHIPS AND SOCIAL BEHAVIORS
AMONG INSTITUTIONALIZED JUVENILE MALES


Neal Eugene Preveaux

Certificate of Approval:


Glen E. Ray
Assistant Professor
Psychology


Sheila Mehta
Associate Professor
Psychology


Steven G. LoBello
Chairman
Associate Professor
Psychology


Roger A. Rirvo
Vice Chancellor for Academic
and Student Affairs

PEER RELATIONSHIPS AND SOCIAL BEHAVIORS
AMONG INSTITUTIONALIZED JUVENILE MALES

Neal Eugene Preveaux

A Thesis

Submitted to

the Graduate Faculty of

Auburn University at Montgomery

in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the

Degree of

Master of Science

Auburn, Alabama

May 29, 1999

PEER RELATIONSHIPS AND SOCIAL BEHAVIORS
AMONG INSTITUTIONALIZED JUVENILE MALES

Neal Eugene Preveaux

Permission is granted to Auburn University at Montgomery to make copies of this thesis at its discretion, upon the request of individuals or institutions and at their expense. The author reserves all publication rights.

Signature of Author

Date

Copy sent to:

Name

Date

VITA

Neal Eugene Preveaux, son of James Nelson and Jean Leigh (Hodge) Preveaux, was born on November 25, 1970, in Aiken, South Carolina. He graduated from Walterboro High School in 1988. He attended Anderson College in Anderson, South Carolina for two years, then entered Auburn University in September, 1991, and graduated with a Bachelor of Arts degree in Psychology in March, 1994. After working as the Habilitation Instructor for the East Alabama Mental Health and Mental Retardation Center for a year and a half, he entered Graduate School at Auburn University at Montgomery.

THESIS ABSTRACT
PEER RELATIONSHIPS AND SOCIAL BEHAVIORS
AMONG INSTITUTIONALIZED JUVENILE MALES

Neal Eugene Preveaux

Master of Science,
(B.A., Auburn University)

91 Typed Pages

Directed by Steven G. LoBello

The present study examined sociometric status and social behaviors in a special population of institutionalized juvenile males. Using sociometric nominations and ratings, juveniles ages nine to eighteen nominated and rated dorm and classroom peers for liking and disliking. Juveniles were selected into five sociometric status groups, called popular, rejected, neglected, controversial, and average. Juveniles also evaluated dorm and classroom peer social behaviors using a Modified Class Play Questionnaire. Each Modified Class Play Questionnaire assessed six social behavioral dimensions: sociability/leadership, aggression, passive-withdrawal, relational aggression, victimization, and active-isolation (rejection). Results indicated that, especially for popular and rejected social status groups, institutionalized juvenile males' sociometric status and the social behaviors characterizing these status groups were similar to the "normal population." The findings replicate and extend previous research investigating peer relationships of children in the "normal population." Implications for future research into male juvenile's understanding of peer group standing and social behaviors are considered.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank Dr. Steven LoBello and Dr. Glen Ray for their help and dedication in completing this thesis. Their knowledge and enthusiasm were inspiring and greatly appreciated. Special thanks go to Dr. Ray for his tireless efforts and guidance with statistical analyses. Additional thanks go to Dr. Mehta for her assistance in developing and completing this project. Further, I would like to acknowledge the assistance and support of the Director, Mr. Wayne Booker, and the teachers and dorm staff of Mt. Meigs Juvenile Institution in Montgomery Alabama. I would also like to express my thanks and appreciation to my parents and grandparents for their moral and financial support which encouraged and enabled me to complete this project.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|--|----|
| VITA..... | iv |
| ABSTRACT..... | v |
| ACKNOWLEDGMENTS..... | vi |
| LIST OF FIGURES..... | ix |
| INTRODUCTION..... | 10 |
| Sociometric Classifications..... | 12 |
| Nonbehavioral Correlates of Social Status..... | 18 |
| Behavioral Correlates of Social Status..... | 21 |
| Social-Cognitive Correlates Social Status..... | 24 |
| Conduct Disorder and Sociometry..... | 35 |
| Juvenile Delinquency and Sociometry..... | 35 |
| Present Study..... | 37 |
| METHOD..... | 41 |
| Participants..... | 41 |
| Measures..... | 42 |
| Procedure..... | 43 |
| RESULTS..... | 46 |
| Sociometry..... | 46 |
| Modified Class Play..... | 49 |

| | |
|-----------------------|----|
| Hypothesis One..... | 50 |
| Hypothesis Two..... | 52 |
| Hypothesis Three..... | 56 |
| Hypothesis Four..... | 60 |
| DISCUSSION..... | 62 |
| REFERENCES..... | 71 |
| APPENDICES..... | 82 |

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

APPENDIX A

| | |
|--|----|
| Newcomb and Bukowski (1983) Scoring Table..... | 82 |
|--|----|

APPENDIX B

| | |
|--------------------------------|----|
| Consent for Research Form..... | 83 |
|--------------------------------|----|

APPENDIX C

| | |
|---------------------------|----|
| Student Consent Form..... | 84 |
|---------------------------|----|

APPENDIX D

| | |
|--|----|
| Positive Nomination Sociometric Questionnaire..... | 85 |
|--|----|

APPENDIX E

| | |
|--|----|
| Negative Nomination Sociometric Questionnaire..... | 86 |
|--|----|

APPENDIX F

| | |
|---------------------------------------|----|
| Sociometric Rating Questionnaire..... | 87 |
|---------------------------------------|----|

APPENDIX G

| | |
|--|----|
| Modified Class Play Questionnaire..... | 88 |
|--|----|

APPENDIX H

| | |
|------------------------------|----|
| Intercorrelation Matrix..... | 90 |
|------------------------------|----|

Peer Relationships and Social Behaviors of Institutionalized Juvenile Males

Children's peer relations provide important information that can guide researchers to a better understanding of child development and childhood disorders. A child's peer group has been shown to provide contributions to social and emotional development (Asher & Coie, 1990). Peer relations are important to development because developmental processes in children are related to maladjustment and psychopathology (Cicchetti & Bukowski, 1995; Parker & Asher, 1987). Peer relations also serve developmental functions in childhood such as providing affection, feelings of trust, and emotional security (Vandell & Hembree, 1994). Interestingly, however, little work has focused on the peer relationships and social behaviors of special populations. Thus the purpose of the present study is to investigate male institutionalized juvenile delinquent peer relationships. Specifically, institutionalized juvenile males were interviewed about their peer relationships in classroom and non-classroom settings. Further, the present study extended previous research (e.g., Perry, Kusel, & Perry, 1988; Ray, Cohen, & Secrist, 1995) by investigating linkages between social behaviors (aggression & victimization) and juveniles' peer relationships.

The two most commonly studied and influential types of peer relations are friendships and peer group standing (sociometry) (e.g., Howes, 1990; Vandell &

Hembree, 1994). The assessment of peer relationships is important for two reasons. The behavioral correlates associated with social status in children's peer groups can be used as predictors of future adult psychopathology and can also be used as an index of current social functioning (Cicchetti & Bukowski, 1995). Much of children's time is spent in the school environment, so it is crucial that they employ appropriate social skills. Among the most important skills is learning to control aggression, because aggression has been shown to be an excellent predictor of later criminality (Parker & Asher, 1987; Stattin & Magnusson, 1989). Socialization skills that children learn and display with peers can create a social pattern that they may follow throughout their lives. If children develop proper social skills for displaying emotions and incorporate prosocial skills into their behavioral repertoires, then they have the potential to be liked by peers and teachers. However, if this development progresses in maladaptive ways, children will be disliked by their peers and viewed as disruptive by their teachers.

Childhood peer status has been shown to be a significant predictor of disorders in adolescence and adulthood (Parker & Asher, 1987). By studying childhood peer relations, much can be learned about childhood behaviors that lead to normal outcomes, as well as delinquency and psychopathology. Children with poor social skills can be rejected by their peer group, and are consequently at greater risk for future maladjustment. The information gained from sociometric classifications is being used to identify children who are at risk for

current and future maladjustment and place them in intervention programs (Bierman & Furman, 1984; Ladd, 1981; Oden & Asher, 1977).

Sociometric Classifications

Many techniques and tools have been developed to study children's peer relations (e.g., Asher & Dodge, 1986; Coie, Dodge, & Coppotelli, 1982; Hartup, 1970; and Newcomb & Bukowski, 1983). Sociometry is a measure of group social status where children are classified into positive, negative or "other" categories based on how they are viewed by their peers (Coie et al., 1982; Newcomb & Bukowski, 1983). Specifically, it is a unilateral measure of likability where members of a given group nominate and rate other members of the group.

Sociometric classification in children's peer groups dates back to Moreno's (1934) original work with the sociometric interview in studies of community and group life. The sociometric interview was administered to children and adults in educational and correctional institutions in New York state. From this sociometric interview, Moreno (1934) gained information about which group members were "desirable" based on spontaneous choices by the group members. His results suggested that using the sociometric interview in group settings identified people who were at risk for social maladjustment. However, vast improvements and new uses for this system have been developed over the last two decades as a result of a renewed interest in studying peer relations.

Early investigators used a unidimensional approach to operationally define sociometric status. This approach asked children to nominate peers whom they viewed as friends or preferred playmates. This classification system was used because of the considerable debate over the ethical issues involved in using negative sociometric measures. These measures ask children to indicate peers who they do not like or with whom they would not like to play. It was believed that having children classify peers in a negative way would have negative effects on the children being rated. However, Asher and Hymel (1981) state that using a unidimensional approach (positive ratings only) was too restrictive and that using a two dimensional system (positive and negative ratings) does not negatively affect children. They state that children react to these types of questions (e. g., "which person do you least like") in a way that does not increase interpersonal conflict. Hayvren and Hymel (1984) also found that sociometric testing had no immediate or long-term effects on preschoolers exposed to this method. With these findings, researchers began to use both positive and negative dimensions with greater confidence.

Peery (1979) suggested that the two sociometric scores for "like" and "dislike" be combined to create two new dimensions which he termed "social impact" and "social preference" scores. Social impact is calculated by adding the total number of like and dislike scores. Social preference is calculated by subtracting the "like least" scores from the "like most" scores. Thus, social impact is a measure of social salience or noticeability, whereas, social

preference is a measure of social likability (Newcomb, Bukowski, & Pattee, 1993). This system was adopted by Coie et al. (1982) in a study that employed social preference and social impact scores to determine a child's social status. Their results suggest the importance of using both positive and negative sociometric choice questions. By using positive and negative choice questions, Coie et al. (1982) were able to recognize status groups that were classified as popular, rejected, neglected, controversial, and average. These classifications were not observable using the one dimensional system.

The most common measures of sociometry are peer ratings and peer nominations. One of the drawbacks of the nomination method is that not all children in a group get nominated. To counter act this drawback, many researchers also use peer ratings. The peer rating scale requires members of the reference group (usually the classroom) to rate each peer for likability and/or as a play companion. These ratings are converted into mean peer rating scores for each child. This approach is a unidimensional classification method. The peer nomination method requires members of the reference group to identify peers (usually three) who they like the most and a similar number who they like the least (Terry & Coie, 1991). This method is a two dimensional classification method.

Deciding which measure to use depends on the goals of the researcher. Olson and Lifgren (1988) compared the rating scale with the nomination method in preschool children. Reliability of the rating scale was found to be superior to

nomination measures. However, nomination measures provided more information about each child, because it is a two-dimensional system. The negative peer nomination measure resulted in information about children's social functioning that was not discernable in the rating scale. The negative nomination also resulted in a predictive link with aggressive social problems. Therefore, the nomination measure in preschool children, despite being less reliable than the rating scale, supplied information that could predict social maladjustment. Thus, if a reliable source of children's sociometric classifications is the goal of the researcher, then a rating scale is better suited for the purpose. However, if behavioral correlates of the sociometric classification are of interest, then the nomination measure will perform better.

Terry and Coie (1991) also report that two dimensional systems provide better behavioral discrimination. They conclude that:

If the research population is relatively stable and confined to a single classroom, then the children will know each other well and will have their meaningful social relations within this population. Ratings might then be the method of choice because each rating would add information and the loss of additional information from outside the group would not be critical. If, however, there are reasons for classmates not to know each other well, such as high mobility among the school population or several classrooms at a grade level with constantly shifting class assignments from one year to the next, then nominations may provide a more valid picture of social

status. For instance some children may be forced to rate classmates they do not know very well; as such, their play ratings will introduce error into ratings totals (Terry & Coie, 1991, p. 879).

Despite which method is used, children are classified into groups based on how they are perceived by their peers. Coie et al. (1982) identified five social status groups that emerge as a result of peer nominations. Children were placed in these groups based on their social impact and social preference scores, which were obtained from the “like most” and “like least” nomination measure. “Scores were calculated as the sum of all nominations received in a particular category and then were standardized within a grade level, so that cross-grade comparisons could be made independently of the size classes” (Coie et al., 1982, p. 559). The Coie et al. (1982) system classified children as popular, rejected, neglected, controversial, and average. Children not classified by these groups were placed in the “other” group.

Another widely used system classifies children into five social status groups (Newcomb & Bukowski, 1983). These groups consist of a popular, rejected, neglected, controversial, and an average group. Although similar to the Coie et al. (1982) system, Newcomb and Bukowski (1983) used a different method for calculating scores. The popular group consisted of children who received seven or more “like most” nominations, and a “like least” score less than zero. Children who received at least seven “like least” nominations and a “like most” score less than zero were classified as rejected. The neglected group

had a social impact score of two or less. The controversial children received at least seven votes on both “like least” and “like most” nominations, or seven or more “like most” nominations and a “like least” score greater than zero, or seven or more “like least” nominations and a “like most” score less than zero. The average group consisted of all the remaining children (see Appendix A for scoring chart).

The Coie et al. (1982) model and the Newcomb and Bukowski (1983) model have been found to have similar psychometric performance characteristics which yield similar results (Newcomb et al., 1993). However, the drawback to the Newcomb and Bukowski (1983) model, according to Newcomb et al. (1993), is the “complexity of its application if children are allowed to make unlimited nominations” (p. 101). This disadvantage is one reason why the Coie et al. (1982) method is the more popular and more widely used. For the purposes of the present study the Coie et al. (1982) method will be used.

Sociometric measures have consistently been shown to be a valid and reliable source of information concerning peer relations among preschool and elementary school children (e.g., Asher & Hymel, 1981; Asher, Markell, & Hymel, 1981). These measures provide accurate information concerning peer relationships and, therefore, are considered to be valid measuring devices. Sociometric measures also have convergent validity with information from different sources (e.g., teacher reports, parent reports, and direct observation). Over time, these different sources are consistent with child reports of their peers.

Dubow and Cappas (1988) compared teacher reports, parent reports, direct observations, and peer reports, and found that group differences were consistent across raters and the most consistently labeled group across these different sources was the rejected group. They concluded that children's self-reports of adjustment tended to converge with those of teachers, parents, and peers. These findings were independent of the child's grade, gender, or urban/rural locale, and provide evidence that the rejected group is easily and consistently identified by different sources. Sociometric measures have also been shown to be reliable over time. Findings by Coie and Dodge (1983) in a five year longitudinal study state that the rejected social status group is the most stable over time. Test-retest measures using sociometry were conducted among third and fifth graders to illustrate the stability of the rejected group. They report that after a one year interval forty five percent of the children placed in the rejected group remained in that group. After a two and three year interval, thirty four percent remained in the rejected group. Thirty percent remained in the rejected social status group after a four year interval. Coie et al. (1982) used a twelve week test-retest interval and found a median correlation of .65 for the reliability of category placement. Thus, these methods are considered to produce stable predictors of children's social status.

Nonbehavioral Correlates of Social Status

Empirical evidence supports the idea that nonbehavioral characteristics are linked to social status (Li, 1985; Sale & Carey, 1995; Wetstein-Kroft & Vargo,

1984). Children in these studies have been classified into specific sociometric categories based on such variables as birth order, name, physical attractiveness, handicaps and social class. Generally, positively valued characteristics relate to peer acceptance, and negatively valued characteristics relate to peer rejection, despite lack of control over the trait (Hartup, 1983).

Hartup (1983), in review of literature, indicates that later born children are more popular with peer groups. He reports that youngest born children are more socially accepted because they are more socially skilled than older siblings. Thus, younger children learn and refine social skills from older siblings. The youngest child is considered by teachers to be more sociable, friendly, accommodating, tolerant, and negotiable, and therefore is more popular with peers (Romeo, 1994).

Nonbehavioral correlates related to a name have not been shown to have an effect on social status in most cases (Hartup, 1983). However, Hartup (1983), discusses some exceptions (e.g., McDavid & Harari, 1966) in which attractiveness of first names in 10-12 year-old children was related to popularity. Popularity ratings were obtained which revealed a positive relationship between the ratings of names and the popularity of the children. Ratings of the same names were made by children who did not know the children being studied, and again it was found that name ratings were positively correlated with popularity ratings. Despite this, there are little data that would indicate that social status is correlated with a child's name.

Physical attractiveness as related to social status has received more attention than other nonbehavioral correlates (e.g., Kleck & Dejong, 1983; Lerner & Lerner, 1977). In general, data support the idea that physical attractiveness does have an effect on how children are sociometrically classified by their peers (Li, 1985). Hartup (1983) concludes that physical attractiveness is a predictor of social acceptance and that unattractiveness is a predictor of social rejection. In review of literature, Hartup (1983) indicates that children "attribute friendliness and nonaggressiveness to attractive children more readily than to unattractive children and attribute negative social behaviors more commonly to unattractive children" (p. 127). Thus, children pair positive nonbehavioral characteristics with positive behavioral characteristics and negative nonbehavioral characteristics with negative behavioral characteristics. Parent and teacher reports have also been shown to be consistent with peer reports (Maag, Vasa, Kramer & Torrey, 1991).

The empirical data concerning the relationship between social status and disabilities among children are inconsistent. Some studies (e.g., Bruininks, 1978; Bryan, 1974; Gottlieb, 1975; Schleifer, Weiss, Cohen, Elman, Cvejic & Kruger, 1975) have concluded that the correlates of acceptance and rejection concerning physical and mental disabilities are behavioral. Thus, the relatively low social status of disabled children can apparently be traced to negative behavioral characteristics. However, more recent studies (e.g. Sale & Carey, 1995; Wetstein-Kroft & Vargo, 1984) have concluded that disabilities among

children do affect how they are sociometrically classified by their peers, and that this classification is not related to behavioral characteristics. Therefore, having a disability is related to a negative sociometric standing and to being less preferred as friends by their peer group (Kleck & Dejong, 1983). Despite the fact that the data are contradictory, one can conclude that having a disability does affect social status either from a behavioral or nonbehavioral standpoint.

Behavioral Correlates of Social Status

Many studies have investigated the behaviors associated with each sociometric classification group (e.g., Coie et al. 1982; Coie & Kupersmidt, 1983; Dodge, 1983). Behavioral correlates of social status in children stem from three categories which consist of sociability, aggression, and withdrawal (Newcomb et al. 1993). The general results, which are supported by Dubow and Cappas (1988), indicate that children who are socially well adjusted are liked more by their peers than children who are not socially well-adjusted. Newcomb et al. (1993) indicate that popular status children display prosocial behaviors (e.g., cooperative, helpful) with low levels of aggression and withdrawal.

In the neglected social status group, children are similar to their popular peers, but were distinguishable as a separate group because they are not as well-known. Neglected children's behavioral styles are not as salient to their peers as are other groups, however, neglected children as a group are not an at-risk group and are not in need of intervention (Cantrell & Prinz, 1985). Newcomb and Bukowski (1983) show support for this idea by stating that neglected

children were similar to the average group in their positive social actions, but they simply are not as well-known by their peer group.

The controversial group consists of children who are involved in school activities and display positive social skills. However, they also display high levels of aggressive behaviors. This group receives nominations for both "like least" and "like most." Coie et al. (1982) describe this group as children who "possess more positive social skills than they are described as having, simply because it must be hard for peers to describe them as good to have in a group when they also tend to see them as disruptive and aggressive" (p. 568).

The most distinguishable group is the rejected sociometric status group. They tend to be disliked by their peers because their behavioral patterns consist mainly of aggression and disruptiveness. The rejected group has received attention because of current problems and the risk of future maladjustment, and research has concentrated on the different age groups associated with this population (e.g., Kupersmidt, & Patterson, 1991; Pettit, Clawson, Dodge, & Bates, 1996; Stattin & Magnusson, 1989).

Many studies have looked at the preschool and kindergarten sociometric classifications in order to discover antecedents to behaviors that maintain the rejected child's status (Olson & Brodfeld, 1991; Pettit, Clawson, Dodge & Bates, 1996). Olson and Brodfeld (1991), in studying problems in preschool boys, indicate that peer rejected children can be detected at early ages. Their results

indicate that preschoolers can be reliable sources for indicating social maladjustment of peers.

Longitudinal studies have illustrated that rejected group status can be maintained from preschool to kindergarten, from kindergarten to grade school, and so on until adulthood (Bierman & Wargo, 1995; Kupersmidt & Patterson, 1991; Vitaro, Tremblay, Gagnon, & Boivin, 1992). These behavioral patterns can manifest themselves as conduct disorder and juvenile delinquency (Robins, 1991). Newcomb et al. (1993) state that the behavioral correlates characterizing this group are displayed in the domains of disruption, physical aggression, and negative behavior. They conclude that rejected children cannot balance these negative behaviors because they lack the positive social qualities to do so. Cantrell and Prinz (1985) show support for these conclusions in a study comparing sociometric status and behavioral characteristics by stating that "rejected children were clearly distinguished from their same-sex neglected and accepted classmates and were described by teachers and peers as aggressive, disruptive and inattentive" (p. 884).

The behavioral patterns of the rejected social status group lead to problems in the classroom. Rejected children also display the antecedents of serious behavioral disorders such as adult criminality (Stattin & Magnusson, 1989). Rejected children should be properly identified at an early age in order to implement behavioral and social programs.

Social-Cognitive Correlates of Social Status

Social-cognitive correlates are related to social status and social adjustment in children (e.g., Crick & Dodge, 1994; Dodge, Pettit, McClaskey, & Brown, 1986). The purpose of this field of study is to identify the social cognitive correlates that support the behaviors of aggressive, antisocial, and rejected children and adolescents (Lochman & Dodge, 1994; Slaby & Guerra, 1988). This rejected group has been shown to be more stable over time than the average or popular groups (Coie & Dodge, 1983). Popular and average children possess a greater repertoire of social skills when compared to their rejected peers. Therefore, popular and average children display normal social adjustment. The issue of concern in social cognitive research is to identify the social cognitive correlates that maintain aggressive and antisocial behaviors among rejected children.

To understand the social cognitive processes that determine antisocial behavior, psychologists turned to social and cognitive theories of the 1950's (Dodge & Crick, 1990). As the study of social-cognitive processes evolved, psychologists combined social and cognitive theories to form the information-processing theory (e.g., Neisser, 1967; Newell & Simon, 1972). This theory illustrates how individuals process environmental stimuli and, based on previous interactions, come to make a behavioral response.

Psychologists began to apply the information processing theory to social settings. Interest turned to social interactions and cognitive processes, which led

to the development of the social-information processing theory (McFall, 1982).

This theory states that social interactions may be understood from looking at how social cues are processed (Dodge & Crick, 1990). Individuals take in social information, make a decision about the information, and then form a behavioral response. Through this process, social information could be viewed as a cognitive process.

Dodge et al. (1986) have proposed a social information processing model that has proven useful in studying social cognitive processes, especially among child populations (e.g., Feldman & Dodge, 1987). Lochman and Dodge (1994) state that “a child’s behavior can be influenced by social-information processing variables... which indicate how the child perceives and responds to social situations” (p. 367). Crick and Dodge (1994) propose that the processing components of the social information processing model have been more successful in predicting children’s social adjustment than previous constructs. As a result, this model has been employed extensively to determine the social cognitive correlates that maintain social status (especially antisocial behavior) in children’s peer groups (e.g., Gouze, 1987; Lochman & Lenhart, 1993). It has been psychologists’ goal to determine how cognitive processes differ between children who are socially well-adjusted and the socially maladjusted. These processes have been studied empirically to identify correlates that maintain deviant behavior patterns in children and adolescents (Lochman & Dodge, 1994; Slaby & Guerra, 1988).

The first stage of the model is processing informational cues and encoding that information. This stage involves the use of cognitive scripts, which influence future behaviors. Cognitive scripts are encoded into memory and are retrieved when the child faces a new social dilemma (Huesmann, 1988). Aggressive children tend to focus only on a few highly salient cues. They ignore many cues that would aid in their social interactions (Huesmann, 1988). Therefore, aggressive children form scripts that are characterized by aggressive responding and deficits in information. Akhtar and Bradley (1991) report that aggressive children may encode fewer and more irrelevant situational cues than their nonaggressive peers. They also report that the cues which are encoded tend to be more recent ones. This finding suggests that despite the social context, aggressive children fail to encode all of the relevant information needed to make an accurate response. Rather than the information being encoded properly, aggressive children resort to the most recent scripts, whether they are accurate or not. Huesmann (1988), in support of these findings, argues that “the aggressive child is one who has acquired aggressive scripts to guide behavior early in life...once established, these scripts become resistant to change and may even persist into adulthood” (p. 23).

The second stage of the social information processing model is interpreting the encoded information. Many aggressive children display difficulties at this stage because they attribute negative biases or hostility to the social situation when none are present (Akhtar & Bradley, 1991; Huesmann,

1988). Feldman and Dodge (1987) report that low status children were twice as likely as high status children to attribute a hostile intention to peers. This finding has also been supported by Moore, Hughes and Robinson (1992), who report that rejected children are more likely than non-rejected children to respond to an ambiguous social situation with hostility.

Once the information has been interpreted, the third stage in social processing is to generate solutions. Findings by Gouze (1987) indicate that aggressive elementary school boys produce fewer solutions to hypothetical social problems than their nonaggressive peers. The solutions they do generate are more aggressive in content (Gouze, 1987). This process may occur because children at this stage must take into account the goals they are trying to reach. Rejected and/or aggressive children display difficulties at this stage because they pursue inappropriate and less favorable social goals (Akhtar & Bradley, 1991). These goals are likely to be relationship damaging, which is related to social maladjustment (Crick & Dodge, 1994). These goals are based on a different set of social norms for aggressive children, which allow them to internalize aggressive scripts (Huemann, 1988). Thus, aggressive children generate aggressive solutions to social situations in order to meet their individual social goals. Akhtar and Bradley (1991) conclude that “even when aggressive children possess knowledge of appropriate strategies, they may not employ them because they do not serve their personal goals” (p. 630). After a review of literature, Lochman and Lenhart (1993) found that some aggressive boys may

choose solutions to social situations that are less socially appropriate because, despite being maladaptive, they help in reaching social goals.

The fourth and fifth stages in processing social information require children to evaluate each solution response and then to act on it. Feldman and Dodge (1987) report that responses given by low status children, when compared to high status children, were more likely to be aggressive. They also conclude that low status children rate aggression as more effective in solving social problems than high status children. Aggressive children, because they generate maladaptive social solutions, display response repertoires that are maladaptive across a broad range of social contexts (Crick & Dodge, 1994). Huesmann (1988) suggests that aggressive children, because of their maladaptive social norms, do not view their aggressive responses as being wrong. Children who are rejected by their peers believe that aggression is a legitimate response, which they associate with positive outcomes and increase in self-esteem (Perry, Perry & Rasmussen, 1986; Slaby & Guerra, 1988).

Studies identifying social cognitive correlates of social status have revealed that aggressive, rejected, and/or antisocial children display social maladjustments created by biases, deficits, or retardation in social cognitive scripts (Gouze, 1987; Slaby & Guerra, 1988; Huesmann, 1988). A bias is the incorrect identification of a peer's intention as hostile. Biases in social reasoning are defined by Moore et al., (1992), as deficits in "the ability to adopt another's perspective, to evaluate accurately the intentions of others, to predict the

consequences of social actions, and to identify appropriate social responses” (p. 123). Lochman and Lenhart (1993) report that “aggressive children do, in fact, have identifiable distortions and deficiencies” (p. 786), that become evident at each stage of the social information processing model. Crick (1990) supports this theme by concluding that biased or deficient social information processing can lead to deviant, possibly aggressive, social behavior. Thus, peer rejection and adjustment problems are part of a vicious social cycle (Rubin & Daniels-Beirness, 1983).

Well-adjusted and popular children display very few if any deficits in the processing of social information (Feldman & Dodge, 1987). They encode social information properly and effectively. Popular children make the proper interpretations of social information. The proper solutions to social situations are generated, which displays the proper use of informational cues to solve social problems. These children evaluate the response based on a set of prosocial norms and goals, and put the response into action. This type of social information processing is maintained by positive social skills, which are displayed through positive social adjustments. Crick and Dodge (1994) state that positive social adjustment, which is correlated with prosocial behavior and being popular among peers, is significantly related to social goals that are relationship enhancing.

Rejected children display many problems associated with social information processing (e.g., Akhtar & Bradley, 1991; Crick & Dodge, 1994).

Prosocial solutions have been shown by Huesmann (1988) to be less direct and more complex than aggressive solutions. He concluded that if a child cannot think of a prosocial solution (for whatever reason), he or she may have no other alternative but a direct aggressive solution. Recent efforts have focused on finding the social cognitive correlates that maintain such behavioral correlates as aggression and antisocial behaviors, in order to understand rejected children's social difficulties (Crick & Dodge, 1994). These efforts have been displayed empirically among children's populations by identifying specific deficits at each stage of the social information processing model (e.g., Lochman & Lenhart, 1993; Moore et al., 1992).

These previous findings support the idea that aggressive-rejected children display difficulties at each level of social informational processing. Findings suggests that deficits, biases, and distortions in social information processing are correlates of social status in rejected children. Feldman and Dodge (1987), after examining 311 children, concluded that sociometrically unpopular children displayed "distinct deviant patterns of processing social information" (p. 223). Rejected children's cognitive skills have also been shown to be similar to those of younger preschool and kindergarten age children, which suggests a lag in learning social skills among low sociometric groups (Akhtar & Bradley, 1991).

In general, popular sociometric groups of children are well-adjusted socially and display social cognitive processes which are normal (Feldman & Dodge, 1987). However, rejected sociometric groups of children display social

cognitive difficulties which may not only determine their social status, but also maintain it.

Determinants of Social Status among Children

In a longitudinal study, Bukowski and Newcomb (1984) found that whether children are liked or disliked by peers depends on the balance of positive and negative traits. As illustrated previously, peer relationships can be determined by nonbehavioral, behavioral, and social cognitive correlates. High social status among children is determined by the extent to which children are accepted by their peers (Vandell & Hembree, 1994). Peer acceptance, labeled as popular, has been shown to be determined by the exhibition of prosocial behaviors (Coie et al., 1982). Vandell and Hembree (1994) state that prosocial interactions with peers, leadership, and emotional well being are determinants of a popular social status among children. In support of this, Kennedy (1990), conducted a study in which children in different grades were classified into sociometric groups by their peers. These children were then videotaped during their lunch break in order to view their social interactions. A second group of children, who did not know the first group, were asked to view the videotape and rate particular children. The results demonstrate that popular children were rated more positively than rejected children, because rejected children were viewed as exhibiting less prosocial behaviors.

Low social status has been shown to be determined by the extent to which children are rejected by their peer group (Coie et al., 1982). Rejected

social status may be determined by such variables as aggression, antisocial behavior, victimization, and academic failure (e.g. Dishion, Patterson, Stoolmiller & Skinner 1991; Dubow & Cappas, 1988). Dygdon, Conger, and Keane (1987) state that low social status determinants involve three criterion: a) personal characteristics which include nonbehavioral traits, b) behavioral characteristics associated with peers, and c) behavioral characteristics associated with others outside of the peer group. Thus, it is important among this population to identify the determinants of rejected social status in order for the proper interventions to be implemented. Identifying determinants of social status can be the basis for locating specific children who are at risk for future social maladjustment (Coie et al., 1982).

Determinants of rejected social status have been shown to involve personal characteristics (e.g., Hartup, 1983). Low cognitive abilities have also been found to be a determinant of rejected social status, especially when exhibited along with low levels of social ability (Newcomb et al., 1993). Academic failure has also been found to create a dislike by the peer group, which can lead to rejected social status (Dishion et al., 1991). If a child has social skills deficits, then low levels of cognition and academic achievement can place a child in a low social status group. Vandell and Hembree (1994) concluded that rejected status children have lower IQ and achievement test scores than peer accepted children. They also report that academic grades and school work habits are worse among rejected status children.

One of the main determinants of rejected social status among children and adolescent populations is antisocial behavior patterns (e.g., Dubow & Cappas, 1988; Coie & Dodge, 1983). Antisocial behavior patterns can include aggression, which has been defined as “the exhibition of deliberate actions directed towards other people or objects, with some intention to destroy or injure the target” (Lochman & Lenhart, 1993, p. 785). When children display aggressive behaviors, whether elicited or emitted, they can be viewed in a negative way by peers. Aggression in the form of starting fights or retaliatory aggression from being victimized can lead to a rejected social status (e.g. Coie et al., 1982; Perry et al., 1988). Huesmann (1988) reports that a child’s exposure to aggression can increase the chances that, when frustrated or victimized, the child will respond with aggression. Coie, Dodge and Kupersmidt (1990) state that aggression is the greatest single behavioral determinant of rejected social status in childhood populations. Thus, aggressive actions can increase the chances of a child being rejected by his or her peers.

Other negative social behaviors have also been shown to be determinants of rejected social status (e.g., Vandell & Hembree, 1994; Coie & Dodge, 1983). Dubow and Cappas (1988) report that rejected social status can be determined by the exhibition of significant levels of classroom behavioral problems and peer related behavioral problems. These behavioral difficulties, which can lead to rejected social status, have been shown to involve aggression, hyperactivity, and inattention-immaturity (Pope, Biermann & Mumma, 1991). These types of

behaviors can be detected at early ages. Dygdon et al. (1987) found that among first graders, determinants of a rejected social status involved aggressive behaviors, refusals to play, the use of non-normative behavior when they do play, and use of language that is displeasing. This finding is congruent with other findings which report rejected social status as being determined by high levels of aggression and withdrawal, along with low levels of sociability (Newcomb et al., 1993).

While social status has also been shown to be determined by a child's behavior, it is also maintained through a reputation for that behavior (e.g., Coie & Kupersmidt, 1983; Howes, 1990). Coie and Kupersmidt (1983) demonstrate that behavior may lead to a child's social status in unfamiliar groups, but that social status can be maintained by a child's behavioral reputation in familiar groups. In their study, social status was determined among a group of boys in their school peer group. These boys were then placed in a new group situation in which none of them knew each other. A comparison group of boys who already knew each other were also observed. Their findings indicated that social status was reestablished when children were placed into groups with unfamiliar peers. Thus, boys who were rejected in their own school peer groups were labeled as rejected by their peers in the unfamiliar group. The rejected social status group emerged in both unfamiliar and familiar groups. This group was viewed as the boys most likely to start fights. Therefore, behavioral patterns can lead to a specific social status in an unfamiliar group setting. It can also be maintained

through a reputation for that behavior. Coie and Dodge (1983) show support for this finding in a longitudinal study, where they report that social behaviors are resistant to change because reputations are formed for each social status group. This suggests that children who are categorized as rejected during one grade level can be categorized as the same in the next grade, based solely on his/her reputation. Howes (1990) states that “with increasing time in a peer group, a child’s reputation may be better known by others than the child’s actual behavior” (p. 328).

Social status in childhood and adolescence can be determined by early childhood social experiences such as the influence of poor parenting practices, the child’s behavioral patterns, academic skills, and peer relations (Dishion et al., 1991). The types of behaviors that can be determinants of rejected social status are stable over time (e.g., Howes, 1990; Coie & Kupersmidt, 1983). These early life experiences can determine a social status that can be maintained into adolescence. Thus, “social behavior is controlled to a great extent by programs for behavior that have been learned during a person’s early development” (Huesmann, 1988, p. 15).

Conduct Disorder and Sociometry

Children diagnosed with conduct disorder are a special population in which an interest in peer relations has emerged. Sociometric measures have been used with this population in order to view conduct disordered children’s perceptions of other conduct disordered children and with normal peers. Kolko,

Loar and Sturnick (1990) used peer ratings and nominations among other techniques to assess social status while comparing an inpatient social-cognitive skills training procedure with a social activity procedure among conduct disordered children. They found that social status among this group of conduct disordered children improved more using the social-cognitive skills training procedure than the social activity procedure. Kolko et al. (1990) attribute this improvement to the use of structured group activities in the social-cognitive skills training procedure which taught children verbal interaction skills which helped them to enter play groups more effectively, play reciprocally and nonaggressively, and to provide social reinforcement to their peers. However, this study did not attempt to identify the correlates maintaining each social status group, but rather it identified the effectiveness of intervention treatment programs.

Other researchers have conducted comparison studies of conduct disordered and normal children's peer relations (e.g., Matthys et al., 1985). Conclusions show that conduct disordered children do form friendships, however, this group as a whole had more difficulties than normal children in neutralizing conflicts among peers (Matthys et al. 1995).

Juvenile Delinquency and Sociometry

Previous research among special populations illustrates the effectiveness of using sociometric ratings and nomination techniques (Wasmund, 1988; Panella & Henggeler 1986). Sociometric methods have been used to view peer

relations among mentally retarded persons, conduct disordered children, and children with anxiety disorders. Attention should also been given to the special population consisting of juvenile delinquents, their interactions with peers, their social behaviors and how they stratify over sociometric classifications.

In a review of literature, no juvenile delinquency sociometric classification studies have been identified. Much of the literature concerning delinquents views the friendship patterns and similarity effects in residential treatment centers (e.g., Giordano, Cernkovich, & Pugh, 1986; Jussim & Osgood, 1989; Marcus, 1996). The implications of these studies provide us with important information about juvenile delinquents' friendship patterns. However, they do not supply us with any sociometric classifications among this intact and stable group. Sociometric stratifications, along with the behavioral correlates that support each sociometric group, could lend valuable information about peer relations in delinquents that have not yet been explored.

The Present Study

The purpose of the present study was to investigate male institutionalized juvenile delinquent peer relationships and social behaviors through the use of sociometry in the classroom and dorm settings. The present study was intended to link social behaviors of male institutionalized juvenile delinquents with sociometric classifications gained through peer evaluations across different settings. Thus, by comparing sociometric classifications with the social behaviors with which they were correlated, a sociometric stratification was

formed displaying the behaviors that characterize each status group among this special population. Because sociometric classifications in normal populations reveal children who are at risk for future maladjustment, exploration of the behavioral correlates and sociometric categories among this special population seems warranted.

According to previous research (e.g., Wright, Giammarino, & Parad, 1986), the relationship between social status and some behavioral traits is mediated by person to group similarities. Based on this line of research, it was predicted that negative behavioral correlates as measured by the class play item questionnaire (e.g., antisocial, aggressive, and disruptive behaviors) would be associated with being in the popular social status group among institutionalized juvenile males. This prediction differs from normal population findings, which indicate that popular social status is correlated with prosocial behaviors, and negative social status is correlated with negative behavioral patterns (e.g., Dygdon et al., 1987; Dubow & Cappas, 1988).

Based on previous research (e.g., Wright et al., 1986), it was proposed that male juveniles displaying withdrawn and/or isolated behavioral correlates would be disliked by their peers, because these behavioral patterns are dissimilar to the group. Thus, it was predicted that withdrawn and/or isolated behavioral correlates as measured by the class play item questionnaire, will be associated with being in the rejected and neglected social status groups among institutionalized juvenile males.

It was also predicted that the social status groups and the behavioral correlates that characterize each group would be maintained across the classroom and dorm settings. According to Wright et al., (1986) juveniles who display similar social behaviors will be classified into the same sociometric categories in both environments. This finding would illustrate whether social status and social behaviors are stable across different settings among institutionalized juvenile males.

It was also proposed that the number of nominations for aggressive, withdrawn, victimized, and isolated behavioral roles, as measured by the class play item questionnaire, would be different for juveniles committed for status offenses, opposed to property crimes, and crimes against people. Juveniles committed for status offenses were predicted to have fewer nominations on the class play item questionnaire for aggressive, withdrawn, victimized, and isolated behavioral roles than juveniles who were committed for property crimes and crimes against people. Property and person offenders were predicted to be viewed by peers as displaying a higher level of negative behavioral patterns consisting of aggression, withdrawal, victimization, and isolation than their status offender counterparts.

Thus, it was hypothesized that a) male juveniles displaying antisocial, aggressive, and disruptive behavioral correlates would be associated with the popular social status group; b) male juveniles displaying withdrawn and isolated behavioral correlates would be associated with the rejected and neglected social

status groups; c) social status and social behaviors would be the same for the class and dorm environments; and d) property and person offenders would display higher levels of behavioral patterns consisting of aggression, withdrawal, victimization, and isolation than status offenders.

Method

Participants

Participants were 127 institutionalized juvenile males who were committed to Mt. Meigs Youth Services facility in Mt. Meigs, Alabama. Subjects' ages ranged from nine to eighteen years. The Department of Youth Services facility in Mt. Meigs, Alabama is a complex consisting of three separate facilities. One institution houses younger children with offenses that are less serious than the other institutions. Another institution houses older juveniles and those with more serious offenses. The third facility is a maximum security lock-down facility for juveniles who cannot cooperate or obey rules in the less restricted environments of the other two institutions. Each of these institutions consists of dorms, with approximately 24 boys in each dorm, and separate schools for each institution. The facility provides educational, clinical, and recreational services.

Most of the boys were committed to this facility because of behavioral problems that led to criminal charges. They were placed in this facility because of difficulty functioning in noninstitutional community settings. Many of these boys were from backgrounds of inner city gangs, broken homes in which typically one or both parents were absent, or they have suffered from abuse or neglect.

Informed consent was obtained from the Department of Youth Services in Mt. Meigs, Alabama. Once a juvenile is turned over to the Department of Youth

Services by the court system, the state becomes the legal guardian. Therefore, consent was given by the Department of Youth Services for all participants (see Appendix B). However, all participating juveniles also gave their own written consent prior to the study (see Appendix C).

Measures

Sociometric nominations. The sociometric nomination measure followed the type used by Coie et al., (1982). This measure produced a sociometric stratification which included a) popular, b) rejected, c) neglected, d) controversial, and e) average sociometric groups. Four sociometric interview sheets were used (see Appendices D and E). Two rosters were administered in both settings (dorm and classroom) with one page for "like most" votes and one for "like least" votes. Therefore, peer nominations were gathered twice for each participant.

Sociometric ratings. The sociometric rating measure also followed the type used by Coie et al., (1982). This measure produced a ranking from the most liked boy in the class to the least liked boy in the class. One sociometric rating sheet, which consisted of the classroom or dorm roster was administered. This measure consisted of a six point scale with "1" being "like very little", and "6" being "like very much" from which participants rated their peers (see Appendix F). This measure was administered in the classroom and the dorm setting. Therefore, peer ratings were gathered twice for each participant.

Social Behavior Questionnaire. The social behavior questionnaire was a class play method of peer assessment originally developed by Masten, Morison, and Pellegrini (1985). This study used a modified version of the original questionnaire which consisted of 38 items that determined behavioral correlates associated with sociability/leadership qualities, aggression, passive-withdrawal, relational aggression, victimization, and active-isolation (rejected) (see Appendix G). This measure was administered in the classroom and dorm setting.

Therefore, behavioral correlates were gathered twice for each participant.

Procedure

Participants were given two sociometric nomination sheets (one for “like” and one for “dislike”), one rating sheet, and one social behavior questionnaire answer sheet which consisted of either the classroom or dorm roster.

Participants were instructed to write their name, age, and date of birth in the spaces provided. The examiner circled either “dorm” or “classroom” depending on which setting they were in at that time. All participants were administered the three sociometry measures and the social behavior questionnaire once in both settings.

On the first nomination sheet (see Appendix D), the participants were asked to circle the names of the three peers they liked the most (LM). On the second nomination sheet (see Appendix E), the participants were asked to circle the names of the three peers they liked the least (LL). Frequency scores for

both positive (LM) and negative (LL) nominations were tallied for each participant. These scores were transformed into standardized scores to allow for comparisons between unequal classroom and dorm sizes.

On the rating sheet (see Appendix F), the participants were asked to rate each classmate or dormmate on the roster as to how much they like each peer. Participants were instructed to use the scale at the bottom of the rating sheet to accurately rate each peer. This measure used a six point scale with "1" being "like very little", and "6" being "like very much". Frequency scores were tallied and standardized to determine how much each participant was liked or disliked by his peers.

The modified class play questionnaire was administered according to the procedure used by Masten et al., (1985). It required participants to identify peers who fit into the roles described. Each participant was given a classroom or dorm roster (depending on their location) on which they indicated their choices for each role. Instructions were given as follows:

Now what we want each of you to do is to pretend that you are a director of a movie starring the students in this classroom. The director of a movie has to do many things but the most important job is to select the right people to act in the movie. So, your job is to choose the students who could play each part or role best. Try to pick the students who seem to fit each part in real life (Masten et al., 1985).

Participants were instructed to select only one person per role. However, the same classmate could be selected for more than one role. Participants were instructed not to select themselves for any role. The instructor began by reading each role aloud twice and then instructed the participants to silently write the number of that item (e.g., #1) by the person who best fit that role. Participants could be chosen for more than one role.

Results

Data analysis was conducted in three stages. In the first stage, the various social status categories were determined, along with the distribution of participants within those categories. Behavioral factor scores for the dorm and classroom modified class play were calculated in the second stage. Also included in this stage was an analysis of the relationship between dorm and classroom behavioral nominations. In the third stage, statistical analyses were conducted to test the four hypotheses described earlier, as well as relevant additional analyses.

Sociometry

Using the method developed by Coie et al. (1982), juveniles were assigned to sociometric status groups. "Like most" and "like least" nominations were tallied and converted to z-scores for dorm and classroom to adjust for unequal sample size distributions. A social preference score was calculated by subtracting standardized "like least" nominations from standardized "like most" nominations. A social impact score was calculated by adding standardized "like least" and "like most" nominations. Social impact and social preference scores were also standardized using z-score transformations. Popular juveniles were those who received a social preference score greater than 1.0, a standardized "like most" score greater than 0, and a standardized "like least" score less than 0. Rejected

juveniles were those who received a social preference score less than -1.0, a standardized "like least" score greater than 0, and a standardized "like most" score less than 0. Neglected juveniles were those who received a social impact score less than -1.0, and an absolute "like most" score of 0. Controversial juveniles were those who received a social impact score greater than 1.0, and standardized "like most" and "like least" scores that were each greater than 0. Average juveniles were those who received a social preference score that was greater than -.5 and less than .5 (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
Sociometric Scores and Categories
of Juveniles

| Score | Popular | Rejected | Neglected | Controversial | Average |
|----------------------------|---------|----------|-----------|---------------|---------------|
| Social Preference | >1 | <-1.0 | | | -.51 to + .49 |
| Standardized Like Most | >0 | <0 | | >0 | |
| Standardized Like Least | <0 | >0 | | >1.0 | |
| Social Impact | | | <-1.0 | >1.0 | |
| Absolute Like Most | | | <0 | | -.51 to + .49 |

Note. Social Preference = Standardized Like Most - Standardized Like Least. Social Impact = Standardized Like Most + Standardized Like Least

Following the method used by Asher and Hymel (1981), peer ratings were tallied and standardized by dorm and classroom for each juvenile. Peer ratings

are a unidimensional measure of social likability in which everyone gets a rating score. This is different from peer nominations where some children do not get nominated. Peer ratings produced a ranking for each juvenile from most liked to least liked within a particular classroom.

Analysis of Sociometric Categories

To investigate how comparable the current sample was with respect to social status categories of other studies, a chi-square goodness of fit test was conducted. Data in the Coie et al., (1982) study was used as the standard social status category distribution and thus served as the expected frequencies for the chi-square. A statistically significant difference resulted between Coie et al., (1982) and the dorm sociometric categories of the present study, $\chi^2 (5, n=127)=160.16, p < .05$, and between Coie et al., (1982) and classroom sociometric categories, $\chi^2 (5, n=127)=123.60, p < .05$, in the current sample, and therefore, the sociometric classification percentages for each of the status categories were not comparable (see Table 2). However, the sociometric classification percentages for the popular and rejected social status groups were highly similar (see Table 2). Given that sociometry was assessed separately for the dorm and classroom, a chi-square test for independence was conducted to investigate the comparability between the two settings in the current study. Analysis revealed a significant chi-square between the dorm and classroom settings, $\chi^2 (5, n=127)=128.51, p < .05$ (see Table 2). Thus, the frequency distributions for sociometric status groups in the dorm and classroom settings were comparable.

TABLE 2

Percentages for Sociometric Status Categories for Coie,
Dodge, and Coppotelli (1982) and the Present Study

| | Coie, Dodge, & Coppotelli (1982) | Present Study: | |
|---------------|-------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|
| | | Dorm | Classroom |
| Popular | 12.26% (104) | 12.60% (16) | 14.20% (18) |
| Rejected | 13.09% (111) | 11.00% (14) | 12.60% (16) |
| Neglected | 13.21% (112) | 3.10% (4) | 2.40% (3) |
| Controversial | 7.31% (62) | 5.50% (7) | 2.40% (3) |
| Average | 9.08% (62) | 40.90% (52) | 36.20% (46) |
| Other | 45.05% (382) | 26.80% (34) | 32.30% (41) |

Modified Class Play Questionnaire

Using a method similar to Masten et al. (1985), the total number of nominations for each item on the modified class play questionnaire were tallied for each juvenile. The number of nominations received on each item were then tallied for each of six factors: sociability/leadership, aggression, passive-withdrawal, relational aggression, victimization, and active-isolation (rejection), (see Appendix F). This was done separately for the dorm and classroom settings. Thus, each juvenile had six behavioral factor scores for the dorm and

six behavioral factor scores for the classroom. To control for different dorm and classroom sizes, the factor scores were standardized using z-score transformations (see Appendix H for intercorrelation matrix of the dorm and classroom questionnaires).

Hypothesis One: Investigating the Relationship Between Popularity and Negative Social Behaviors

For the hypothesis predicting that negative social behaviors among institutionalized juvenile males would be associated with being popular, Pearson Product-Moment Correlations (r) were calculated between dorm social status and dorm social behaviors and between classroom social status and classroom social behaviors. Specifically, the standardized “like most” scores for juveniles in the popular social status group were correlated with the aggression, victimization, and active-isolation (rejection) standardized factor scores from the modified class play questionnaire (see Table 3). No significant correlations were found between the negative behavior correlates and the popular social status group for either the dorm or the classroom setting.

Additional Analysis

Additional Pearson Product-Moment Correlations were calculated to investigate the relationship between social status and the behavioral factors not examined in hypothesis one (leadership and relational aggression). In the dorm setting, a significant positive correlation was found between standardized “like most” scores and the standardized leadership factor score ($r(125) = .5265$,

$p < .05$). Thus, as likability increased, leadership nominations also increased. No significant correlation was found between “like most” scores and the relational aggression factor score for the dorm setting. Further, no significant correlations were found in the classroom setting between “like most” scores and the leadership or relational aggression factor scores (see Table 3).

TABLE 3

Pearson Product-Moment Correlations (r) Between Social Behaviors and “Like Most” Nominations of Popular Status Juveniles

| Behavior | Dorm | Class |
|---------------------------------|--------|--------|
| Leadership | .5265* | -.1021 |
| Aggression | -.1273 | .1143 |
| Passive- Withdrawal | -.3412 | -.2769 |
| Relational Aggression | .2152 | -.3094 |
| Victimization | -.2359 | .1434 |
| Active-Isolation (Rejection) | -.2937 | -.1569 |

Note. $n=16$ for the dorm popular status group. $n=18$ for the classroom popular status group. * $p < .05$.

Hypothesis Two: Investigating the Relationship Between Rejected and Neglected Social Status and Negative Social Behaviors

It was hypothesized that male juveniles identified as passive-withdrawn and active-isolated (rejection) would have more nominations for the rejected and neglected social status groups than other social status groups. Pearson Product-Moment Correlations were conducted separately for the dorm and classroom settings. The standardized factor scores for passive-withdrawal and active-isolation (rejection) were correlated with the standardized “like least” scores from the rejected and neglected social status groups for the dorm and classroom settings separately (see Table 4). In the dorm setting, a significant positive correlation was found between the active-isolation (rejection) standardized factor score and the standardized “like least” scores from the rejected and neglected social status groups ($r(125) = .6846$, $p < .01$). As a juvenile's active-isolation (rejection) score increased, the juveniles' “like least” nominations also increased. There was not a significant correlation between the passive-withdrawal behavioral correlate and the standardized “like least” scores from the rejected and neglected social status groups for the dorm or classroom setting. Further, no significant correlation emerged between the active-isolation (rejection) behavioral correlate and the rejected and neglected social status groups for the classroom setting.

Additional Analysis

Additional Pearson Product-Moment Correlations were conducted for the dorm and classroom settings investigating the relationship between social status and the behavioral factors not investigated in hypothesis two (leadership, aggression, victimization, and relational aggression). No significant correlations were found for the dorm or classroom settings between the “like least” scores and the leadership, aggression, victimization, or relational aggression factor scores (see Table 4).

Additional Analysis: A More Global Assessment of the Relationship Between Social Likability and Social Behaviors

As an extension of the above analysis, correlations between social behaviors and a more global assessment of a juvenile’s likability within a particular group (ratings) were conducted. Pearson Product-Moment Correlations were used to investigate the relationship between likability scores, and standardized leadership, aggression, passive-withdrawal, relational aggression, victimization, and active-isolation (rejection) factor scores for the dorm and classroom settings separately (see Table 5).

Dorm Analysis

In the dorm setting, a significant positive correlation was found between likability and leadership ($r(125) = .4322$, $p < .01$). A significant negative correlation was found between likability and aggression ($r(125) = -.2273$, $p < .05$). A significant positive correlation was found between dorm ratings and the

passive- withdrawal behavioral correlate ($r(125) = .1880$, $p < .05$). A significant negative correlation was found in the dorm setting between likability and victimization ($r(125) = -.2494$, $p < .01$). A significant negative correlation was found between dorm ratings and the dorm active-isolation (rejection) behavioral correlate ($r(125) = -.3854$, $p < .05$). No significant correlation was found between likability and relational aggression for the dorm setting.

TABLE 4

Pearson Product-Moment Correlations (r) Between Social Behaviors and "Like Least" Nominations of Rejected and Neglected Status Juveniles

| Behavior | Dorm | Class |
|---------------------------------|---------|--------|
| Leadership | -.2450 | -.1967 |
| Aggression | .2445 | -.1734 |
| Passive- Withdrawal | .3602 | .1164 |
| Relational Aggression | .2986 | .0409 |
| Victimization | .4628 | .2001 |
| Active-Isolation (Rejection) | .6846** | .3417 |

Note. $n=18$ for the dorm rejected and neglected status group. $n=19$ for the classroom rejected and neglected status group.

** $p < .01$.

Classroom Analysis

In the classroom setting, a significant positive correlation was found between a juvenile's likability and leadership ($r(125) = .4768$, $p < .01$). As classroom likability increased, nominations for leadership also increased. A significant negative correlation was found between classroom likability and classroom aggression ($r(125) = -.2623$, $p < .01$). As likability scores increased, aggressive nominations decreased. A significant negative correlation was found between classroom likability and classroom victimization ($r(125) = -.3214$, $p < .01$). As likability scores increased, victimization decreased. A significant negative correlation was found between likability and active-isolation (rejection) for the classroom setting ($r(125) = -.2748$, $p < .01$). As classroom likability increased, active-isolation (rejection) nominations decreased. No significant correlation was found between likability and passive-withdrawal or relational aggression for the classroom setting.

Similarities and differences were found across the dorm and classroom settings between a juvenile's social likability and leadership, aggression, passive-withdrawal, relational aggression, victimization, and active-isolation (rejection) factor scores. The correlation between likability and leadership was positive and significant for the dorm and classroom settings. As social likability increased in both settings, nominations for leadership increased. Further, significant negative correlations between likability and aggression and victimization, and active-isolation (rejection) were found for the dorm and

classroom settings. As likability increased in both settings, nominations for aggression, victimization, and active-isolation (rejection) decreased.

TABLE 5

Pearson Product-Moment Correlations (r) Between Dorm and Classroom Social Behaviors and Social Likability (Ratings)

| Behavior | Dorm | Class |
|---------------------------------|----------|----------|
| Leadership | .4322** | .4768** |
| Aggression | -.2273* | -.2623** |
| Passive- Withdrawal | .1880* | -.0346 |
| Relational Aggression | -.1118 | -.1573 |
| Victimization | -.2494** | -.3214** |
| Active-Isolation (Rejection) | -.3854** | -.2748** |

Note. N=127 for dorm and classroom social likability (ratings)

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis Three: Investigating the Stability Across Dorm and Classroom

Settings for Social Status and Social Behaviors

For the hypothesis that social status and the social behaviors characterizing each social status group would be the same for the dorm and classroom settings, one-way ANOVA's were conducted. Six one-way ANOVA's were conducted separately for the dorm and classroom settings. Given small n 's

for the neglected and controversial groups, (see Table 2) these social status groups were omitted from these analyses. Thus, popular, rejected, and average social status groups were compared separately across six standardized class play factors (leadership, aggression, passive-withdrawal, relational aggression, victimization, and active-isolation (rejection)) for the dorm and classroom settings. Newman Keuls post-hoc follow-up tests were used to determine sources of differences for significant main effects.

Dorm Analysis

The analysis of dorm leadership (e.g., A person everyone listens to) revealed a significant main effect for social status, $F(2, 79) = 6.66, p < .002$. Popular status juveniles ($\bar{m} = .73$) received more leadership nominations than rejected ($\bar{m} = -.31$) and average status juveniles ($\bar{m} = -.19$), who did not differ from each other. Analysis of dorm aggression (e.g., Somebody who picks on other kids) revealed a significant main effect for social status, $F(2, 79) = 4.67, p < .008$. Rejected status juveniles ($\bar{m} = .78$) received more aggressive nominations than popular ($\bar{m} = -.11$) and average status juveniles ($\bar{m} = -.12$), who did not differ from each other. Analysis of active-isolation (rejection) (e.g., A person who is often left out) revealed a significant main effect for social status $F(2, 73) = 11.66, p < .000$. Rejected status juveniles ($\bar{m} = 1.01$) received more active-isolation (rejection) nominations than the popular ($\bar{m} = -.31$) and average status juveniles ($\bar{m} = -.22$), who did not differ from each other. No significant

differences emerged for passive-withdrawal, relational aggression, or victimization factors in the dorm setting.

Classroom Analysis

Analysis of classroom leadership revealed a significant main effect for social status, $F(2, 75) = 9.32, p < .000$. Popular status juveniles ($\bar{m} = .63$) received more leadership nominations than rejected ($\bar{m} = -.59$) and average status juveniles ($\bar{m} = -.23$), who did not differ from each other. Analysis of active-isolation (rejection) revealed a significant main effect for social status, $F(2, 62) = 6.53, p < .003$. Rejected status juveniles ($\bar{m} = .47$) received more active-isolation (rejection) nominations than the popular ($\bar{m} = -.58$) and average status juveniles ($\bar{m} = -.22$), who did not differ from each other. Analysis of classroom victimization (e.g., Someone who gets beat up) revealed a significant main effect for classroom social status, $F(2, 62) = 3.81, p < .028$. Rejected status juveniles ($\bar{m} = .56$) received more victimization nominations than the popular ($\bar{m} = -.38$) and average status juveniles ($\bar{m} = -.07$), who did not differ from each other. No significant differences emerged for the aggression, passive-withdrawal, or relational aggression behavioral factors in the classroom setting.

Similarities and differences were found in the dorm and classroom settings between the popular, rejected, and average social status groups when compared across the leadership, aggression, passive-withdrawal, relational aggression, victimization, and active-isolation (rejected) behavioral correlates. The popular juveniles received more leadership nominations than the rejected

and average juveniles for both the dorm and classroom settings. Thus, leadership was stable across the dorm and classroom settings for popular status juveniles. The rejected juveniles received more active-isolation (rejection) nominations than the popular and average groups for the dorm and classroom settings. Thus, active-isolation (rejection) was stable across the dorm and classroom settings for rejected status juveniles. Aggression, passive-withdrawal, relational aggression, and victimization were not stable across the dorm and classroom settings for the popular, rejected or average social status groups.

Additional Analysis on the Stability of Social Status Across Settings

While the one-way ANOVA's reported above investigated the relationship between social status and social behaviors within each setting separately, a series of four Spearman Correlation Coefficients (r_s) were calculated to determine whether or not the same patterns between social status and social behaviors emerged for dorm status and dorm social behaviors and for classroom status and classroom social behaviors. Correlations were calculated using ranked nominations for the behavioral factors for the dorm and classroom settings. A significant positive correlation was found between dorm rejection and classroom rejection ($r_s(4)=.7714$, $p < .036$). Thus, the behaviors which characterize the rejected status group in the dorm also characterize the rejected status group in the classroom. That is, the social behaviors which characterized this status group are comparable across the dorm and classroom settings. No significant correlations were revealed for the popular ($r_s(4)=.2571$, $p < .311$) or

average social status groups ($r_s(4) = -.0286$, $p < .479$).

To further investigate social status/social behavior patterns for the dorm and classroom, a Spearman Correlation Coefficient (r_s) was calculated to determine whether or not a relationship emerged between dorm likability and dorm social behaviors and classroom likability and classroom social behaviors by using Pearson Product-Moment Correlations between social likability and social behaviors in the dorm and classroom settings. A significant positive correlation was revealed between dorm likability and classroom likability ($r_s(4) = .7714$, $p < .036$). Thus, the social behaviors which characterized likability in the dorm also characterized likability in the classroom. Thus, the relationship between likability and social behaviors were comparable across the dorm and classroom settings.

Hypothesis Four: Investigating the Relationship Between Type of Offense and Negative Social Behaviors

For the hypothesis that male juveniles committed for status offenses (e.g., truancy, alcohol consumption) would have fewer nominations for aggression, passive-withdrawal, victimization, and active-isolation (rejection) than juveniles committed for property crimes and crimes against people (the property crime juveniles and the person crime juveniles were combined to form one group), a t-test for a difference between two independent means was used. T-tests were conducted separately for dorm and classroom settings, and then were conducted on dorm and classroom settings combined. T-test were used to reveal significant differences between the number of nominations received for

aggression, passive-withdrawal, victimization, and active-isolated (rejection) behavioral roles among juveniles with status offenses compared to property and person offenses. In the dorm setting, the difference between the means of the two offense groups was significant for the active-isolation (rejection) factor, $t(95) = -2.16, p < .03$. Juveniles who committed property and person offenses ($M = .1094$) received more nominations for rejection than status offense juveniles ($M = -.2542$). No significant differences between status offenses and property and person offenses were revealed for aggression, withdrawal or victimization in the dorm setting. No significant differences between status offense and property and person offense groups for aggression, passive-withdrawal, victimization, and active-isolation (rejection) emerged for the classroom setting. The t-test for the combined settings (dorm and classroom) revealed no significant differences between offense groups and social behaviors. An additional analysis was conducted to observe the differences between status offense and property and person offense groups for the leadership and relational aggression behavioral factors for the dorm and classroom settings. However, no significant differences were revealed.

Discussion

A large literature has accumulated documenting the importance of children's peer relationships to social, cognitive, and emotional development (e.g. Berndt & Ladd, 1989; Hartup, 1983). Within this literature however, little work has focused on the peer relationships of special populations. Thus, the goal of the present research was to extend these research efforts to the special population of juvenile delinquent males by investigating the relationship between social status and social behaviors.

Sociometry was used to investigate the relationship between social status and social behaviors among institutionalized juveniles. Results indicated that the distribution of sociometric categories in the present study were different than the distribution of sociometric categories identified by others using the "normal population" (e.g. Coie et al., 1982). That sociometric categories were stratified differently in the current study compared to others could have been due to the different populations and different ages used. Coie et al., (1982) investigated social status among children from "normal populations," whereas, the present study investigated peer relationships among a special population of institutionalized juveniles. Also, Coie et al., (1982) assessed sociometry among children in third, fifth, and eighth grades, whereas, the present study used juveniles ranging in ages from nine to eighteen.

The major sociometric differences between the two populations were for the average social status group and the "other" (unclassified) group. Among institutionalized juveniles, 40.9% in the dorm and 36.2% in the classroom were nominated for the average group, as compared to 9.1% for the average group by Coie et al., (1982). More children in the Coie et al., (1982) study were unclassified (45.1%) than in the current study for the dorm (26.8%) or the classroom (32.3%) settings. It could be that nominations were spread around more in the current sample because of age effects. Perhaps, because the ages in the present study ranged from nine to eighteen, friendship groups could have been based on age similarity, and therefore, participants nominated peers who were close to their own age. Nominations could have been less spread out among the Coie et al., (1982) sample because the children were all the same age.

Children from the Coie et al., (1982) sample also nominated a larger percentage of their peers for the neglected group (13.2%), compared to institutionalized juveniles in the dorm (3.1%) and the classroom (2.4%) settings. This difference could be due to situational influences in an institutionalized setting. Perhaps juvenile delinquents are less withdrawn and shy than children in the normal population because these behaviors are ridiculed more in an institutionalized setting.

Despite these differences, similarities between the current study and Coie et al. (1982) do exist. The percentage of popular and rejected nominations

were similar between the two studies. Coie et al., (1982) reported 12.3% of their population as popular compared to 12.6% for the dorm and 14.2% for the classroom in the current study. Also, 13.1% of the population in the Coie et al., (1982) study was labeled as rejected compared to 11.0% for the dorm and 12.6% for the classroom in the current study. This illustrates that the frequencies in the social status groups for juvenile delinquents and the “normal population” are similar. This similarity may be attributable to the consistency in how children characterize popular and rejected children in both populations. Thus, in general, while children in the current study identified the extremes with regard to social status, they also spread their nominations around more than children in normal populations.

Within the current sample, sociometric distributions between dorm and classroom settings were similar. That is, percentages of juveniles nominated for each status group were comparable for the two settings. This suggests that perceptions of liking and disliking are similar for the dorm and classroom settings. Perhaps situational influences which would affect juvenile delinquent’s perceptions of social status do not exist between these two settings. What is considered popular in the dorm may also be considered popular in the classroom.

The hypothesis that negative social behaviors (e.g. aggression, victimization, and active-isolation (rejection) among institutionalized juveniles would be associated with being popular was not supported. Results indicated

that popular juveniles were characterized by positive social behaviors rather than negative social behaviors. Specifically, juveniles characterized as leaders were nominated for the popular status group, a finding consistent with Newcomb et al., (1993) showing a relationship between positive social behaviors and popularity. Thus, institutionalized juveniles' conceptions of likability and social relationships appear similar to those children of normal populations. Behaviors associated with popularity in the "normal population" are also associated with popularity among institutionalized juveniles, which suggests that juvenile delinquents have an understanding of peer socialization that is consistent with that of the "normal population."

The hypothesis that juveniles identified as passive-withdrawn and active-isolated (rejected) would have more nominations for the rejected and neglected social status groups than other social status groups was partially supported. Juveniles identified as passive-withdrawn were not nominated for the rejected or neglected social status groups. However, juveniles identified as active-isolated (rejected) were viewed by their peers as being rejected and neglected. As juveniles become more active-isolated (rejected), nominations for the rejected and neglected status groups increased. This finding is consistent with the normal population (Newcomb et al., 1993), which again suggests that institutionalized juvenile's conceptions of negative behaviors, and the relationship between group standing and social behaviors are similar to those of the "normal population."

As a more global assessment of peer relationships, peer ratings were used as a measure of social likability. Unlike peer nominations, this unidimensional measure produced a likability score for each juvenile ranging from most liked to least liked. All juveniles get a likability score because each juvenile rates every other juvenile according to how well they are liked. With peer nominations, some juveniles are unclassified because they are not nominated. Results indicated that as likability increased in both the dorm and classroom settings, nominations for positive behaviors increased and nominations for negative behaviors decreased. Thus, the present study showed support for social status effects: juveniles who were liked by their peers were viewed as leaders, whereas, juveniles who were not liked by their peers were viewed as aggressive, victimized, and rejected. This pattern replicates normal population studies showing a positive association between social status and social behaviors (Newcomb et al., 1993; Dubow & Cappas, 1988). This pattern was also consistent between dorm and classroom settings in the current sample.

The behaviors that characterized high and low likability were similar across settings, except for passive-withdrawn behaviors. Unlike the normal population, juveniles in the dorm who were liked by their peers were viewed as passive-withdrawn. Passive-withdrawn juveniles were characterized as being shy, sad, playing alone and getting their feelings hurt easily. It is possible that juveniles liked by their peers were withdrawn because of situational influences in the dorm. Perhaps, juveniles who were liked in the dorm were withdrawn from the

group and viewed as not causing trouble. Thus, they did not give their peers any reason to dislike them. This passive-withdrawal pattern did not exist in the classroom setting, possibly because likability was more associated with being sociable and outgoing than withdrawn.

The hypothesis that social status and social behaviors characterizing each social status group would be the same for the dorm and classroom settings was partially supported. Leadership and active-isolation (rejection) were the only behaviors shown to be stable across dorm and classroom settings for popular and rejected social status groups. Results indicated that popular juveniles in the dorm and classroom displayed more leadership qualities than rejected or average juveniles. Rejected juveniles in the dorm and classroom displayed more active-isolation (rejection) qualities than the popular or average juveniles. Thus, leadership and active-isolation (rejection) were stable correlates of social status for the popular and rejected groups in dorm and classroom settings. These findings replicate previous studies from the normal population (Newcomb et al., 1993; Coie et al., 1982), illustrating that popular status is associated with positive behaviors and that rejected social status is associated with negative behaviors. These findings also extend previous research (Newcomb et al., 1993; Coie et al., 1982) by illustrating that social status and social behaviors were stable across two settings within a special population of institutionalized juveniles.

The hypothesis that juveniles committed for status offenses (e.g., truancy, alcohol consumption) would have fewer nominations for negative social

behaviors than juveniles committed for property crimes and crimes against people was partially supported. Results indicated that active-isolation (rejection) in the dorm was the only behavior for which status offenders received fewer nominations than property and people offenders. This result may be due to the seriousness of the offense for which they were committed. Status offenses consist of truancy, underage drinking, and parental altercations, whereas, property and person offenses consist of theft, vandalism, robbery, and rape. It is possible that status offenders were less isolated and rejected by their peers because they were viewed as having committed less serious crimes than property and person offenders. Or, juveniles committed for property and people offenses were considered by their peers to be aggressive and dangerous, and therefore, were isolated and rejected out of fear. It could also be that property and person offenders were not as salient to the peer group because they were less sociable than status offenders, and thus, were viewed as isolated and rejected.

There were several limitations to the present study. First, sociometric nominations in the classroom may have been suspect because small class sizes limited nominations to only a few peers. However, the sociometric distributions for the class were similar to the dorm sociometric distributions. Second, a cross-sectional design was used, as opposed to a longitudinal design. This design resulted in data being collected only once for the dorm and classroom settings during a period of a few weeks. However, Coie et al., (1982) illustrated that

sociometry was a reliable measure of social status showing a .65 reliability coefficient using a twelve week test-retest method with three grade levels. Despite these limitations, the results provide important information concerning institutionalized juvenile peer relationships and social behaviors.

In conclusion, peer relationships are important indicators of current social functioning for children and adolescent populations and useful predictors for later adult adjustment (Parker & Asher, 1993). The present study extended previous research (Newcomb et al., 1993; Coie et al., 1982) from "normal populations" of children to a special population of institutionalized juveniles. Juvenile delinquents have been institutionalized for various reasons (e.g., status offenses, crimes against people, and property crimes). Therefore, the relationship between institutionalized juveniles' peer group standing and social behaviors was of special interest. The present study revealed that the relationship between social status and social behaviors among institutionalized juveniles was similar to that of children from "normal populations." Behaviors which are associated with being popular (e.g., leadership and being friendly) in normal populations were also associated with popularity among institutionalized juveniles. Also, aggressive and antisocial behaviors which characterize rejected children from normal populations characterize rejected juveniles in this special population. This pattern indicates that juvenile delinquents' conceptions and understanding of positive and negative behaviors and peer relationships may be similar to that of children in normal populations.

It was originally hypothesized that social relationships would be viewed much differently by institutionalized juvenile males compared to normal populations. For example, it was believed that aggressive children would value aggressive behaviors. However, this study concluded that the understanding of the relationship between peer group standing and social behaviors is highly similar between institutionalized juvenile males and children in normal populations. It appears that institutionalized juveniles' understanding of global peer relationships and expectations about behaviors that characterize different types of peer relations are similar to non-institutionalized children. In the present study, these results imply that either intervention efforts aimed at improving social understanding and positive peer relationships are helping institutionalized juveniles, or that these juveniles entered this setting with a proper understanding of social concepts. Thus, by showing that institutionalized juvenile males' conceptions and ideation of peer relationships are in fact similar to children from normal populations, the present study serves as base from which future research can explore social relationships among institutionalized juveniles.

References

Akhtar, N., & Bradley, E. J. (1991). Social information processing deficits of aggressive children: Present findings and implications for social skills training. Clinical Psychology Review, 11, 621-624.

Asher, S. R., & Coie, J. D. (1990). Peer Rejection in Childhood. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Asher, S. R., & Dodge, K. A. (1986). Identifying children who are rejected by their peers. Developmental Psychology, 22, 444-449.

Asher, S. R., & Hymel, S. (1981). Children's social competence in peer relations: Sociometric and behavioral assessment. In J. D. Wine & M. D. Smye (Eds.), Social Competence (pp. 125-157). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Asher, S. R., Markell, R. A. & Hymel, S. (1981). Identifying children at risk in peer relations: A critique of the rate-of-interaction approach to assessment. Child Development, 52, 1239-1245.

Berndt, T., & Ladd, G. (Eds.). (1989). Peer relationships in child development. New York: Wiley.

Bierman, K. L., & Furman, W. (1984). The effects of social skills training and peer involvement on the social adjustment of preadolescents. Child Development, 55, 151-162.

Bierman, K. L., & Wargo, J. B. (1995). Predicting the longitudinal course associated with aggressive-rejected, aggressive (nonrejected), and rejected (nonaggressive) status. Development and Psychopathology, 7, 669-682.

Bruininks, V. L. (1978). Actual and perceived peer status of learning-disabled students in mainstream programs. Journal of Special Education, 12, 51-58.

Bryan, T. H. (1974). Peer popularity of learning disabled children. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 7, 621-625.

Bukowski, W. M., & Newcomb, A. F. (1984). Stability and determinants of sociometric status and friendship choice: A longitudinal perspective. Developmental Psychology, 20(5), 941-952.

Cantrell, V. L., & Prinz, R. J. (1985). Multiple perspectives of rejected, neglected, and accepted children: Relation between sociometric status and behavioral characteristics. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 53, 884-889.

Cicchetti, D., & Bukowski, W. M. (1995). Developmental processes in peer relations and psychopathology. Development and Psychopathology, 7, 587-589.

Coie, J. D., & Kupersmidt, J. B. (1983). A behavioral analysis of emerging social status in boys' groups. Child Development, 54, 1400-1416.

Coie, J. D., & Dodge, K. A. (1983). Continuities and changes in children's social status: A five-year longitudinal study. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 29(3), 261-282.

Coie, J. D., Dodge, K. A., & Coppotelli, H. (1982). Dimensions and types of social status: A cross-age perspective. Developmental Psychology, 18, 557-570.

Coie, J. D., Dodge, K. A., & Kupersmidt, J. B. (1990). Peer group behavior and social status. In S. R. Asher, & J. D. Coie (Eds.), Peer Rejection in Childhood (pp. 17-59). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Crick, N. R., & Dodge, K. A. (1994). A review and reformulation of social information-processing mechanisms in children's social adjustment. Psychological Bulletin, 115, 74-101.

Dishion, T. J., Patterson, G. R., Stoolmiller, M., & Skinner, M. L. (1991). Family, school, and behavioral antecedents to early adolescent involvement with antisocial peers. Developmental Psychology, 27, 172-180.

Dodge, K. A. (1983). Behavioral antecedents of peer social status. Child Development, 54, 1386-1399.

Dodge, K. A. (1986). A social information processing model of social competence in children. In M. Perlmutter (Ed.), Minnesota Symposium on Child Psychology (pp. 77-126). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Dodge, K. A., & Crick, N. R. (1990). Social information-processing bases of aggressive behavior in children. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 16, 8-22.

Dodge, K. A., Pettit, G. S., McClaskey, C. L., & Brown, M. M. (1986). Social competence in children. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 51, (2, serial no. 213).

Dubow, E. F., & Cappas, C. L. (1988). Peer social status and reports of children's adjustment by their teachers, by their peers, and by their self-ratings. Journal of School Psychology, 26, 69-75.

Dygdon, J. A., Conger, A. J., & Keane, S. P. (1987). Children's perceptions of the behavioral correlates of social acceptance, rejection, and neglect in their peers. Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 16, 2-8.

Feldman, E., & Dodge, K. A. (1987). Social information processing and sociometric status: Sex, age, and situational effects. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 15(2), 211-227.

Giordano, P. C., Cernkovich, S. A., & Pugh, M. D. (1986). Friendships and delinquency. American Journal of Sociology, 5, 1170-1202.

Gottlieb, J. (1975). Public, peer, and professional attitudes toward mentally retarded persons. In M. J. Begab & S. A. Richardson (Eds.), The Mentally Retarded and Society: A Social Science Perspective. Baltimore, MD: University Park.

Gouze, K. R. (1987). Attention and social problem solving as correlates of aggression in preschool males. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 15(2), 181-197.

Hartup, W. W. (1970). Peer interaction and social organization. In P. H. Mussen (Ed.), Manual of Child Psychology (pp. 361-456). New York: Wiley.

Hartup, W. W. (1983). Peer groups. In P. H. Mussen (Series Ed.) and E. M. Hetherington (Vol. Ed.), Handbook of Child Psychology: Vol. 4. Socialization, personality, and social development (pp.103-196). New York: Wiley.

Hayvren, M., & Hymel, S. (1984). Ethical issues in sociometric testing: Impact of sociometric measures on interaction behavior. Developmental Psychology, 20(5), 844-849.

Howes, C. (1990). Social status and friendship from kindergarten to third grade. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 11, 321-330.

Huesmann, L. R. (1988). An information processing model for the development of aggression. Aggressive Behavior, 14, 13-24.

Jussim, L., & Osgood, D. W. (1989). Influence and similarity among friends: An integrative model applied to incarcerated adolescents. Social Psychology Quarterly, 52(2), 98-112.

Kennedy, J. H. (1990). Determinants of peer social status: Contributions of physical appearance, reputation, and behavior. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 19(3), 233-244.

Kleck, R. E., & DeJong, W. (1983). Physical disability, physical attractiveness, and social outcomes in children's small groups. Rehabilitation Psychology, 28(2), 79-91.

Kolko, D. J., Loar, L. L., & Sturnick, D. (1990). Inpatient social-cognitive skills training groups with conduct disordered and attention deficit disordered children. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 31(5), 737-748.

Kupersmidt, J. B., & Patterson, C. J. (1991). Childhood peer rejection, aggression, withdrawal, and perceived competence as predictors of self-reported behavior problems in preadolescence. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 19(4), 427-448.

Ladd, G. W. (1981). Effectiveness of a social learning method for enhancing children's social interaction and peer acceptance. Child Development, 52, 171-178.

Lerner, R. M., & Lerner, J. V. (1977). Effects of age, sex, and physical attractiveness on child-peer relations, academic performance, and elementary school adjustment. Developmental Psychology, 13(6), 585-590.

Li, A. K. F. (1985). Early rejected status and later social adjustment: A 3-year follow-up. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 13, 567-577.

Lochman, J. E., & Dodge, K. A. (1994). Social-cognitive processes of severely violent, moderately aggressive, and nonaggressive boys. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 62(2), 366-374.

Lochman, J. E., & Lenhart, L. A. (1993). Anger coping intervention for aggressive children: Conceptual models and outcome effects. Clinical Psychology Review, 13, 785-805.

Maag, J. W., Vasa, S. F., Kramer, J. J., & Torrey, G. K. (1991). Teachers' perceptions of factors contributing to children's social status. Psychological Reports, 69(3), 831-836.

Marcus, R. F. (1996). The friendships of delinquents. Adolescence, 31(121), 145-158.

Masten, A. S., Morison, P., Pellegrini, D. S. (1985). A revised class play method of peer assessment. Developmental Psychology, 21(3), 523-533.

Matthys, W., DeVries, H., Hectors, A., Veerbeek, M., Heidemann, W., Goud, M., VanHoof, J., & VanEngeland, H. (1995). Differences between conduct disordered and normal control children in their tendencies to escalate or neutralize conflicts when interacting with normal peers. Child Psychiatry and Human Development, 26, 29-39.

McDavid, J. W., & Harari, H. (1966). Stereotyping of names and popularity in grade-school children. Child Development, 37, 453-459.

McFall, R. M. (1982). A review and reformulation of the concept of social skills. Behavioral Assessment, 4, 1-33.

Moore, L. A., Hughes, J. N., & Robinson, M. (1992). A comparison of the social information-processing abilities of rejected and accepted hyperactive children. Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 21(2), 123-131.

Moreno, J. L. (1934). Who Shall Survive? Washington, D. C.: Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Company.

Neisser, U. (1967). Cognitive Psychology. East Norwalk, CT: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Newcomb, A. F., & Bukowski, W. M. (1983). Social impact and social preference as determinants of children's peer group status. Developmental Psychology, 19, 856-867.

Newcomb, A. F., Bukowski, W. M., & Pattee, L. (1993). Children's peer relations: A meta-analytic review of popular, rejected, neglected, controversial, and average sociometric status. Psychological Bulletin, 113, 99-128.

Newell, A., & Simon, H. A. (1972). Human Problem Solving. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Oden, S., & Asher, S. R. (1977). Coaching children in social skills for friendship making. Child Development, 48, 495-506.

Olson, S. L., & Brodfeld, P. L. (1991). Assessment of peer rejection and externalizing behavior problems in preschool boys: A short-term longitudinal study. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 19(4), 493-503.

Olson, S. L., & Lifgren, K. (1988). Concurrent and longitudinal correlates of preschool peer sociometrics: Comparing rating scale and nomination measures. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 9, 409-420.

Panella, D., & Henggeler, S. W. (1986). Peer interactions of conduct-disordered, anxious-withdrawn, and well-adjusted black adolescents. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 14, 1-11.

Parker, J. G., & Asher, S. R. (1987). Peer relations and later personal adjustment: Are low-accepted children at risk? Psychological Bulletin, 102, 357-389.

Peery, J. C. (1979). Popular, amiable, isolated, rejected: A reconceptualization of sociometric status in preschool children. Child Development, 50, 1231-1234.

Perry, D. G., Kusel, S. J., & Perry, L. C. (1988). Victims of peer aggression. Developmental Psychology, 24(6), 807-814.

Perry, D. G., Perry, L. C., & Rasmussen, P. (1986). Cognitive social learning mediators of aggression. Child Development, 57, 700-711.

Pettit, G. S., Clawson, M. A., Dodge, K. A., & Bates, J. E. (1996). Stability and change in peer-rejected status: The role of child behavior, parenting, and family ecology. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 42(2), 267-294.

Pope, A. W., Biermann, K. L., & Mumma, G. H. (1991). Aggression, hyperactivity, and inattention-immaturity: Behavior dimensions associated with peer rejection in elementary school boys. Developmental Psychology, 27(4), 663-671.

Ray, G. E., Cohen, R., & Secrist, M. E. (1995). Best friend networks of children across settings. Child Study Journal, 25(3), 169-188.

Robins, L. N. (1991). Conduct disorder. Journal of Child Psychology & Psychiatry & Allied Disciplines, 32(1), 193-212.

Romeo, F. F. (1994). A child's birth order: Educational implications. Journal of Instructional Psychology, 21(2), 155-160.

Rubin, K. H., & Daniels-Beirness, T. (1983). Concurrent and predictive correlates of sociometric status in kindergarten and grade 1 children. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 29, 337-351.

Sale, P., & Carey, D. M. (1995). The sociometric status of students with disabilities in a full inclusion school. Exceptional children, 62, 6-19.

Schleifer, M., Weiss, G., Cohen, N., Elman, M., Cvejic, H., & Kruger, E. (1975). Hyperactivity in preschoolers and the effect of methylphenidate. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 45, 38-50.

Slaby, R. G., & Guerra, N. G. (1988). Cognitive mediators of aggression in adolescent offenders: 1 assessment. Developmental Psychology, 24, 580-588.

Stattin, H., & Magnusson, D. (1989). The role of early aggressive behavior in the frequency, seriousness, and types of later crime. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 57(6), 710-718.

Terry, R., & Coie, J. D. (1991). A comparison of methods for defining sociometric status among children. Developmental Psychology, 27(5), 867-880.

Vandell, D. L., & Hembree, S. E. (1994). Peer social status and friendship: Independent contributors to children's social and academic adjustment. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 40(4), 461-477.

Vitaro, F., Tremblay, R. E., Gagnon, C., & Boivin, L. (1992). Peer rejection from kindergarten to grade 2: Outcomes, correlates, and prediction. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 38(3), 382-400.

Wasmund, W. C. (1988). The social climates of peer group and other residential programs. Child and Youth Care Quarterly, 17(3), 146-155.

Wetstein-Kroft, S. B., & Wargo, J. W. (1984). Children's attitude towards disability: A review and analysis of the literature. International Journal for the Advancement of Counseling, 7(3), 181-195.

Wright, J. C., Giammarino, M., & Parad, H. W. (1986). Social status in small groups: Individual-group similarity and the social "misfit". Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 50(3), 523-536.

Appendix A

Newcomb and Bukowski (1983) Sociometric Scoring Table

| | Social Impact (LM+LL) | LM Standardized (z score) | LL Standardized (z score) |
|----------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Popular | | > 7 | < 0 |
| Rejected | | < 0 | > 7 |
| Neglected | < 2 | | |
| Controversial* | | > 7 | > 7 |
| | > 7 | > 0 | |
| | | < 0 | > 7 |
| Average | all remaining children | | |

Note: * the controversial group can be classified by any of the three methods

Appendix B

The following page contains the Consent for Research form from the State of Alabama Department of Youth Services in Mt. Meigs Alabama.



G. WAYNE BOOKER
ADMINISTRATOR

State of Alabama
Department of Youth Services
Institutional Services Division

Post Office Box 66
Mount Meigs, Alabama 36057
Telephone: (334) 215-3807
FAX # (334) 215-3825



JAMES DUPREE, JR.
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR

April 21, 1998

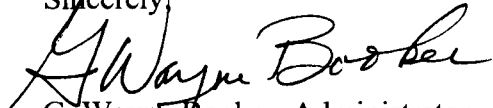
To Whom It May Concern:

Re: Consent for Research

Neal Preveaux has permission from this agency (DYS) to conduct research with the juvenile population of the Mt. Meigs Complex.

This research will not violate the confidentiality nor the rights of the juveniles.

Sincerely,


G. Wayne Booker, Administrator
Institutional Services

GWB:jb

Appendix C

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

At Auburn University at Montgomery, we are doing a project to find out some information about how people get along with one another and we would like for you to participate in the project. You will be asked to fill out some questionnaires which will take about 15 to 20 minutes. We at AUM and the administration at Mt. Meigs have determined that there are no risks to you. This is not a test, so there are no right or wrong answers, and your participation is voluntary. We want to you to know that you can stop at any time. Your opinions are very important to us and anything you tell us will not be used in any written reports about this project and the only people to have access to this information are those directly involved in the project. The information will not be shared with other youth or staff at Mt. Meigs. We greatly appreciate you helping us in this project to better understand how people get along with others. If you have any questions about the project please contact Mr. Neal Preveaux or Dr. Steven LoBello at 244-3306 (AUM).

YOU ARE MAKING A DECISION WHETHER OR NOT TO PARTICIPATE. YOUR SIGNATURE INDICATES THAT YOU HAVE DECIDED TO PARTICIPATE HAVING READ THE INFORMATION PROVIDED ABOVE

Participant's Signature: _____

Today's Date: _____

Witness: _____

Advocate's Signature: _____

Appendix D

Name_____

Age_____ Birthday_____

Dorm/Classroom

Circle the names of the 3 people you like the best.

Student #1

Student #13

Student #2

Student #14

Student #3

Student #15

Student #4

Student #16

Student #5

Student #17

Student #6

Student #18

Student #7

Student #19

Student #8

Student #20

Student #9

Student #21

Student #10

Student #22

Student #11

Student #23

Student #12

Student #24

Appendix E

Name_____

Age_____ Birthday_____

Dorm/Classroom

Circle the names of the 3 people you like the least.

Student #1

Student #13

Student #2

Student #14

Student #3

Student #15

Student #4

Student #16

Student #5

Student #17

Student #6

Student #18

Student #7

Student #19

Student #8

Student #20

Student #9

Student #21

Student #10

Student #22

Student #11

Student #23

Student #12

Student #24

Appendix F

Name _____

Age _____ **Birthday** _____

Dorm/Classroom

How much do you like each person?

| | | | |
|-------------|-------|-------------|-------|
| Student #1 | _____ | Student #13 | _____ |
| Student #2 | _____ | Student #14 | _____ |
| Student #3 | _____ | Student #15 | _____ |
| Student #4 | _____ | Student #16 | _____ |
| Student #5 | _____ | Student #17 | _____ |
| Student #6 | _____ | Student #18 | _____ |
| Student #7 | _____ | Student #19 | _____ |
| Student #8 | _____ | Student #20 | _____ |
| Student #9 | _____ | Student #21 | _____ |
| Student #10 | _____ | Student #22 | _____ |
| Student #11 | _____ | Student #23 | _____ |
| Student #12 | _____ | Student #24 | _____ |

Like **Like**
Very Little **Very Much**

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6

Appendix G

Class Play Items

Someone who could play the part of:

1. Somebody who picks on other kids.
2. A person everybody likes to be with.
3. A person who is very shy.
4. Someone who has trouble making friends.
5. Someone who helps other people when they need it.
6. A person who argues a lot.
7. A person who threatens people.
8. A person who everyone listens to.
9. Somebody who gets beat up.
10. Kids try to hurt his or her feelings.
11. A person who is too bossy.
12. Someone who has a good sense of humor.
13. When mad at someone, ignores them or stops talking to them.
14. A person who kids do mean things to.
15. A person who is a good leader.
16. Someone who would say, "If you don't do what I say, I will stop liking you."
17. A person who is often left out.
18. Somebody who has many friends.
19. Somebody who gets picked on by other kids.
20. A person who can get things going.
21. Someone who is usually sad.
22. A person who kids make fun of.
23. A person who gets called names by other kids.
24. A person who is polite.
25. A person with good ideas for things to do.
26. Somebody who gets pushed and hit by other kids.
27. A person who makes new friends easily.
28. A person who jokes around in a mean way.
29. A person who would rather play alone than with others.
30. Someone whose feelings get hurt easily.
31. A person who fights when others wouldn't.
32. A person who tries to keep certain kids from being in their group at school.
33. Someone who plays fair.
34. Somebody who can't get others to listen.
35. Somebody who teases other children too much.
36. Someone you can trust.
37. A person who gets even by keeping someone from being in their group of friends.
38. Someone who gets into fights for little or no reason.

Sociability/Leadership: 2,5,8,12,15,18,20,24,25,27,33,36 Relational Aggression: 13,16,32,37

Aggression: 1,6,7,11,28,31,35,38

Victimization: 9,10,14,19,22,23,26

Passive-Withdrawal: 3,21,29,30

Active-Isolation (Rejected): 4,17,34

Appendix H

Intercorrelation Matrix for Dorm Modified Class Play and
Classroom Class Play Behavioral Factors

| | Dorm: | | | | | | Class: | | | | | |
|-----------------------|------------|------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|------------------|
| | Leadership | Aggression | Withdrawal | Relational Aggression | Victimization | Rejection | Leadership | Aggression | Withdrawal | Relational Aggression | Victimization | Rejection |
| Dorm: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Leadership | – | -.0578 P=.519 | -.0486 P=.588 | .0721 P=.420 | -.3092 P=.000 | -.3570 P=.000 | .3026 P=.001 | .1573 P=.077 | -.1592 P=.074 | .0969 P=.279 | -.0867 P=.332 | .0857 P=.350 |
| Aggression | – | – | -.2552 P=.004 | .2947 P=.001 | .0316 P=.724 | .1898 P=.037 | -.1922 P=.033 | .3271 P=.000 | -.1535 P=.089 | .1997 P=.026 | .0858 P=.343 | .0935 P=.314 |
| Withdrawal | – | – | – | -.0491 P=.584 | .1935 P=.029 | .0163 P=.859 | -.0151 P=.869 | -.2471 P=.006 | .2415 P=.007 | -.0221 P=.809 | -.0028 P=.976 | -.0273 P=.771 |
| Relational Aggression | – | – | – | – | .2407 P=.006 | .0810 P=.377 | .0187 P=.845 | .2972 P=.002 | -.0902 P=.346 | .0287 P=.765 | -.1365 P=.153 | -.0161 P=.870 |
| Victimization | – | – | – | – | – | .4713 P=.000 | -.3622 P=.000 | -.1370 P=.148 | .0484 P=.611 | -.1958 P=.038 | .3636 P=.000 | .2562 P=.007 |
| Rejection | – | – | – | – | – | – | -.1417 P=.129 | .1287 P=.168 | -.0509 P=.587 | -.2056 P=.027 | .2831 P=.002 | .2549 P=.007 |

Appendix H cont'

Class:

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Leadership | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | -.1389 P=.124 | -.0954 P=.296 | -.1209 P=.206 | -.3138 P=.001 | -.1630 P=.080 |
| Aggression | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | -.1034 P=.257 | .2235 P=.018 | .0387 P=.688 | -.1034 P=.269 |
| Withdrawal | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | .0040 P=.967 | .1887 P=.050 | -.0106 P=.910 |
| Relational Aggression | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | -.1574 P=.114 | .0202 P=.836 |
| Victimization | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | .2855 P=.003 |
| Rejection | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |