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Adolescents' Sociometric Status and its Relation to Parenting and
Psychosocial Adaptation Variables

par

Martina Venditti

Département de Psychologie

Faculté des Arts et des Sciences

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Ce mémoire intitulé :

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Présenté par :

Martina Venditti

A été évalué par un jury composé des personnes suivantes :

Monica O'Neill-Gilbert, Ph.D.
Président-rapporteur

Michel Claes, Ph.D.
Directeur de recherche

Judith Comeau, Ph.D.
Membre du jury

RÉSUMÉ

Le présent mémoire s'intéresse au statut sociométrique des adolescents et poursuit deux objectifs principaux : 1) étudier les liens entre le statut sociométrique et diverses pratiques parentales ; 2) examiner les liens entre le statut sociométrique et diverses variables d'adaptation psychosociale. Mille cent douze adolescents situées aux niveaux Secondaire un, deux et trois ont participé à l'étude. Une méthode de classification sociométrique a permis de classer les répondants en cinq groupes : populaires, rejetés, négligés, controversés et moyens. En plus des mesures de nomination sociométrique, les participants ont complété un questionnaire auto-rapporté évaluant la perception de leurs rapports avec leurs parents soient les liens affectifs, la présence de conflits, la supervision, le contrôle et la tolérance. Le questionnaire a également évalué divers indices d'adaptation psychosociale telles que la présence d'actes déviance, la déviance des pairs, la consommation de drogues, la qualité des amitiés et la détresse psychologique. Des analyses statistiques multivariées et univariées ont permis de mettre à l'épreuve les hypothèses générales qui guidaient la recherche. Il apparaît que les adolescents classés en tant que controversés présentent les indices les plus faibles sur le plan des liens avec leurs parents et des mesures d'adaptation psychosociale. Par ailleurs, les répondants classés comme négligés sont ceux qui perçoivent les meilleurs rapports avec leurs parents et présentent la meilleure adaptation psychosociale. Ces résultats sont discutés à la lumière d'autres études sociométriques réalisés auprès d'enfants et d'adolescents, à la fois sur le plan théorique et méthodologique.

Mots-clés: Statut sociométrique, adolescence, pratiques parentales, adaptation psychosociale.

ABSTRACT

The present thesis is interested in the sociometric status of adolescents and pursues two principal goals: 1) to study the relation between sociometric status and various parental practices; 2) to examine the relation between sociometric status and various variables of psychosocial adaptation. One thousand one-hundred and twelve adolescents in Secondary one, two and three took part in the study. A sociometric classification method made it possible to classify the participants in five groups: popular, rejected, neglected, controversial and average. In addition, to the sociometric nomination questionnaire, the participants also completed a self-report questionnaire evaluating their perception of their relationship with their parents, emotional ties, the presence of conflicts, supervision, control and the tolerance. Other questionnaires evaluated various indices of psychosocial adaptation such as the presence of deviancy, the peer deviancy, drug consumption, quality of the friendships and psychological distress. Multivariate and univariate statistical analyses made it possible to put to test the general assumptions which guided the research. It appears that the adolescents classified as controversial present the weakest relationship with their parents and measurements of psychosocial adaptation. In addition, the adolescents classified as neglected are those who perceive the best relationship with their parents and present the best psychosocial adaptation. These results are discussed in light of other sociometric studies performed on children and adolescents, as well as on a theoretical and methodological level.

Key words: Sociometric status, adolescence, parenting practices, psychosocial adaptation.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

1. INTRODUCTION

1. INTRODUCTION

The main focus of the current study is sociometric status in adolescence. This technique was first introduced to the scientific community over seventy years ago (Moreno, 1934). However, in the 1980s sociometry enjoyed immense surge in interest. Furthermore, this renewed interest in the topic caused researchers to develop new and better procedures, resulting in more refined and superior sociometric classification methods.

The introduction will describe the history and the development of sociometry over the years. The next chapter will follow with more in-depth details about sociometry and the characteristics of the four sociometric status groups, as well as discuss the parenting and psychosocial adaptation variables that have previously been associated with sociometric status. This will lead to the main objectives and hypotheses of the study followed by the results. A discussion and conclusion will follow detailing the implications of the results and the strengths and limitations of this study with some considerations for future research.

1.1. Sociometry

The term sociometry originates from Moreno (1934) and has become the collective term for the techniques and models aimed at mapping social structures of groups and the social status of group members (Maassens, van der Linden,

Akkermans, 1997). Ever since Moreno's (1934) work, sociometry has had a prominent place in the research literature on children's social development. It has been widely used in the study of peer relations as both a technique for measuring the positive and negative forces among peers and as a conceptual scheme for understanding the basic processes of the peer system (Bukowski, Sippola, Hoza, & Newcomb, 2000). The goal of sociometric classification is to provide an accurate and parsimonious view of an individual's social position within his or her peer group (Newcomb & Bukowski, 1983).

Despite the long history of research into sociometric status, certain problems with the manner in which sociometric status is measured were revealed in recent years. Firstly, until about 20 years ago, sociometric status was assessed in a one-dimensional way, employing either ratings or nominations (Maassen, van der Linden, Goossens, & Bokhorst, 2000). In the peer rating method all members of the reference group, i.e. classmates, rate all of their peers in terms of how much they like them (Terry & Coie, 1991). The average rating received is calculated for each group member and standardized within the group (Maassens et al., 1997). In the peer nomination method, all classmates are asked to nominate the peers (usually three) whom they like most. The number of nominations is calculated for each group member and standardized within the group (Maassens et al.).

1.2. One-dimensional vs. Two-dimensional Sociometric Procedures

The early sociometric research used only positive nomination questions, that is, they only asked the participants to name the peers that they liked most. In this way, those having received many positive nominations were classified as popular by most of the earlier research standards (e.g. Dunnington, 1957) and those having not received any positive nominations were considered unpopular, or rejected.

The reasons behind using only positive nominations arose from the objections of some investigators, like Moore (1967), for example. He argued that children should not be encouraged to express rejecting qualifications about their groupmates. Furthermore, eliciting negative nominations from children conflicted with the educational views of many educators (Maassens et al., 1997).

Therefore, in order to get around the issue of negative nominations, Asher and Dodge (1986) created a hybrid sociometric classification method, by making use of both the nominations and ratings techniques. In this method, the positive nominations are combined with lowest ratings (which were assumed to be equivalent to dislike) and entered into a standard score computational model to assign individuals to status types.

However, ever since the earliest days of sociometry, it has been recognized that interpersonal relationships and experiences should be understood according to two fundamental dimensions: (1) the positive or attractive forces that bring

persons together and (2) the negative or repulsive forces that keep persons apart (Cillessen, Bukowski, & Haselager, 2000). With this in mind Peery's (1979) model was one of the first elaborate models to use both positive and negative nominations. In his study, respondents were asked which group peers they *liked most* (LM) and those whom they *liked least* (LL). The answer to the first question allowed for the distinction between those who were liked by many and not liked by few. The responses to the second question were not a mirror image of the first, therefore, not liking someone most and disliking someone most are two different things.

As well, Peery's (1979) model calculated two new superordinate dimensions: (1) *Preference* (P) was calculated by subtracting the number of LL scores from the number of LM scores; and (2) *Impact* (I) was calculated by summing the LM and the LL scores. In this way, five distinct groups were derived:

1. Popular: high LM, low LL; therefore high P

2. Rejected: low LM, high LL; therefore low P

3. Neglected: low LM, low LL; therefore low I

4. Controversial: high LM, high LL; therefore high I

5. Average: anyone in between

In the nomination method, the variables LM and LL are dealt with separately and can be plotted on orthogonal axes (Fig. 1), which does not mean that they are

Figure 1

Locations of sociometric status groups on the Impact and Preference dimensions

(from Maassens et al., 1997).
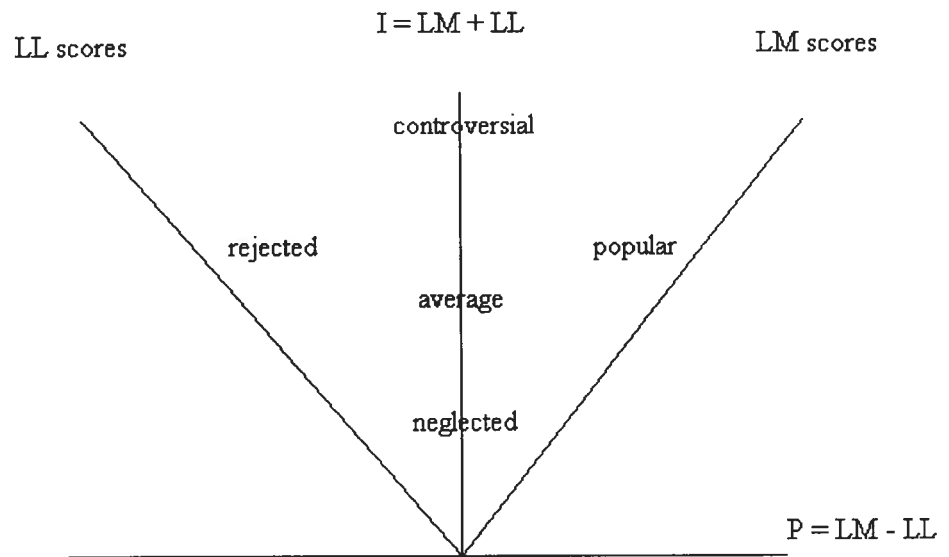
uncorrelated (Maassens et al., 1997). The shape of the scatterplot of the two variables will express the degree of correlation. On the P-axis popular and rejected persons are far apart; while on the I-axis both groups have a mean score or higher. Neglected persons are those whose score is low on the I-axis; while controversial persons have a high score on the same axis. On the P-dimension, controversial persons will score average, as positive and negative nominations are balanced. Since neglected persons are assessed as neither positive nor negative; the total and average preference of them will also be in the middle area. In the I dimension it appears that persons whose P-score is average subdivide into those who are hardly visible (neglected), highly visible (controversial), and average in both dimensions (Maassens et al., 1997).

Sociometry has come a long way from its simple one-dimensional model. The measure has had widespread popularity for good reason: It has been said that it is simple, easily administered and reliable (Cadwallader, 2001). Furthermore, Cadwallader states that sociometric testing is clearly an effective method of identifying peers who are distinguished from one another on such important characteristics as likeability and acceptance. It was especially Peery's (1979) two-dimensional framework that revolutionized sociometric classification (Newcomb, Bukowski, Pattee, 1993).

After the introduction of Peery's (1979) model, the 1980s showed a renewed interest in sociometry. This newfound interest into this domain led to a study by

Bell-Dolan, Foster and Sikora (1989) that concluded that there were no harmful effects of using negative nominations. More and more, research was becoming concerned with the importance of sociometry in the context of clinical and research work. There was increasing recognition that peer relationships played a mediating role in the psychosocial adjustment of children and young people (Williams & Gilmour, 1994). Soon researchers were busy creating newer and better models. Two new models developed at that time, that of Newcomb and Bukowski (1983) and that of Coie, Dodge, and Coppotelli (1982) are still the most common models in use in present sociometric research. The next chapter will reveal more in-depth details about both of these models, as well as discuss the parenting and psychosocial adaptation variables that have previously been associated with sociometric status.

2. THEORETICAL CONTEXT

2. THEORETICAL CONTEXT

With the breakthrough of Peery's (1979) model, the diagnostic methods used for sociometric status determination changed at the beginning of the 1980s, with the development of two new models, that of Newcomb and Bukowski (1983) and that of Coie et al. (1982).

In the Newcomb and Bukowski system (1983) the absolute frequencies of positive nominations and negative nominations are computed for each participant. Standardized liked most and liked least scores, as well as a social impact score, are calculated. Finally a two-dimensional status classification system based on binomial distribution theory creates groups that can be considered extreme by the usual statistical significance criterion of a 0.05 probability level (Terry & Coie, 1991). In this way, no participant is left unclassified.

Meanwhile, the Coie et al. (1982) system uses the standard score method to establish cut-off values. In this method, children are assigned to status groups based on standardized scores for *liked most* (LM), *liked least* (LL), *social preference* (SP) and *social impact* (SI). The goal of the Coie et al. method is to highlight behavioral differences rather than to assign all participants to a status group (Terry & Coie, 1991).

Research has examined the consistency of these two systems and the aforementioned hybrid system of Asher and Dodge (1986), in assigning individuals to status types. Terry and Coie (1991) found an 88 percent overlap in status type membership between the Coie et al. (1982) and the Newcomb and Bukowski (1983) systems, and concluded that these two systems were virtually identical. In 1986, Asher and Dodge compared their hybrid model with the Coie et al. model and found a 91 percent agreement. Overall, the research shows that any of these three systems yields relatively the same sociometric status groups.

However, a review by Cillessen et al. (2000) states that the standard score method of Coie et al. (1982), is the most common diagnostic method currently in use in sociometric studies. The development of Coie et al.'s two-dimensional sociometric classification system aided in the proper classification of all the status groups originally proposed by Peery (1979) and have played a dominant role in peer relations research since the early eighties.

2.1. Sociometric Status Classifications of Coie et al. (1982)

In this two-dimensional sociometric approach, a differentiation is made between the two dimensions of SP and SI (Coie et al.). SP is a measure of social likeability, which reflects the relative extent to which children are liked or disliked by their peers and is calculated by subtracting a subject's LL score from his/her LM score (Coie et al., 1982; Newcomb et al., 1993). In contrast, SI is a

measure of social salience or the degree to which children are noticed by their peers and it is calculated by summing a subject's LM score and his/her LL (Coie et al.).

This two-dimensional sociometric status classification of Coie et al. (1982) identifies not only the rejected and the popular, but also the neglected, the controversial, and the average. In this way, peers who have high LM scores and low LL scores are classified as *popular*. Those peers who receive high LM scores and high LL scores have been called *controversial*. Those that have high LL scores and low LM scores are classified as *rejected*. Those that are simply not nominated in either category are classified as *neglected* (the criteria for this category was later modified in 1983, by Coie and Dodge). Finally, all those that remain are considered *average*. The average peers by virtue of being viewed as neither highly popular nor unpopular; serve as a reference point for the other sociometric categories (Williams & Gilmour, 1994).

2.1.1. Popular

Within this standard sociometric classification, *popular* status is associated with prosocial behaviors (Ladd, Price, & Hart, 1990; Dodge, 1983; Coie & Kupersmidt, 1983). Popular peers are regarded as helpful and considerate (Coie, Dodge, & Kupersmidt, 1990), cooperative and friendly (Asher & Hymel, 1981), they are respectful of authority and the rules that govern their peer group, and are

often actively engaged in positive interaction with peers (Coie et al., 1990). Popular peers show more social problem-solving skills, positive social interactions, positive social traits, and friendship skills (Newcomb et al., 1993). Those identified as members as the popular sociometric status group are well-accepted by their peers, tend to do well academically, and behave in socially competent ways (Wentzel, 2003).

2.1.2. Rejected

Opposing the popular status group on the SP dimension is the rejected status group. The rejected peers do not have the positive actions, positive traits, and friendship skills needed to balance out their aggressive behavior, as do their controversial peers (Newcomb et al., 1993) Peers who are identified as being rejected tend to have poor academic records, behave in socially inappropriate ways (De Rosier, Kupersmidt, & Patterson, 1994; Wentzel, 1991), engage in fewer verbal interactions with their peers and parents (Franz & Gross, 1996), tend to be more disruptive or aggressive (Asher & Hymel, 1981; Coie & Koeppl, 1990; French, 1990), overtly hostile (Coie et al., 1990), as well as, conduct themselves inappropriately and have more irritating behaviors (Coie, Christopoulos, Terry, Dodge, & Lochman, 1989) than their average counterparts.

Available evidence also suggests that peer rejection is generally viewed as a more serious risk factor, than peer neglect, for the development of psychopathology

(Coie & Dodge, 1983; Parker & Asher, 1987). Data from Coie and Dodge (1983) indicate that 30% to 50% of rejected children, originally in grades three to five, remain rejected over a 5-year period Even when rejected peers do move into another group, it is rare for them to become well-accepted (Asher, 1990). This stability data indicates that neglected peers are quite likely to move toward more positive social status (average or popular) with the simple passage of time and without intervention, while rejected peers do not appear to move toward positive social status, as a rule. Because of their tendency to be aggressive and disruptive, rejected peers are also most likely to experience serious adjustment problems in later life (Asher & Dodge, 1986; Cowen, Pederson, Babigian, Izzo, & Trost, 1973; Kupersmidt, 1983; Roff, Sells, & Golden, 1972).

2.1.3.   Neglected

Neglected peers are those who, although they may lack friends, are not particularly disliked by classmates (Asher & Dodge, 1986). The neglected group is characterized as being less aggressive, less social, less well-known by their peers and more withdrawn than the average group (Newcomb et al., 1993). In addition, neglected peers have demonstrated positive academic and behavioral profiles (Wentzel, 1991; Wentzel & Asher, 1995).

Coie and Kupersmidt (1983) reasoned that neglected peers who are ignored by classmates are not necessarily deficient in social competence. It is speculated that

these children self-select a low level of involvement in the same-age peer groups (Newcomb et al., 1993). The low levels of social involvement they display may be a reflection of their reaction to a particular peer group. Developmentally, peer neglect may be a relatively unstable classification, as the social problems of neglected peers are often situationally based; they frequently decline as these individuals develop more confidence and move into classrooms with more familiar or more compatible peers (Coie & Kupersmidt, 1983).

Neglected peers are not thought to be a group at risk of later adjustment difficulties (French & Waas, 1985; Kupersmidt & Coie, 1990; Ollendick, Greene, Francis, Baum, 1991; Ollendick, Weist, Borden, Greene, 1992; Parker & Asher, 1987; Rubin, LeMare, & Lollis, 1990).

2.1.4. Controversial

The controversial status group is an interesting group to consider and that other groups seem to have to reckon with. Because the controversial status children receive both high negative and high positive nominations, by definition they have high social impact in their peer group (Coie et al., 1982). This group is often described by some as being disruptive and aggressive; however, these peers can also acquire certain popularity because they may possess leadership qualities (Williams & Gilmour, 1994).

The description of the controversial group is a blend of the description provided for both the popular and the rejected groups. Controversial peers appear to engage in the actively antisocial behavior associated with extremely rejected peers (Newcomb et al., 1993). Nonetheless, controversial peers are viewed as leaders in the peer group, and in this way they are like the popular group. This is because controversial group is more aggressive than average group, but balance out this aggression with well-developed social and cognitive skills (Newcomb et al.). They are not viewed as shy, and they are viewed as neither highly cooperative nor as uncooperative (Roff et al., 1972). This group has elevated levels of social interaction, and in turn, they may be overly engaged with their peers and therefore; viewed as more aggressive and more sociable as a result (Newcomb et al.).

On the one hand, because of their disruptive behavior, controversial peers would be expected to be rejected by their classmates; on the other hand, controversial peers also have other qualities that buffer them from peer rejection and social exclusion (Coie, Finn, and Krehbiel, 1984). They also have significantly better cognitive and social abilities than the rejected group. In fact, their levels of positive social actions, positive social traits, and friendship relations are equivalent to those of popular peers (Coie et al., 1984).

2.2. Parenting Variables Associated with Sociometric Status

In studies of peer relationships, family variables appears rarely; however, family researchers find that there are substantial, significant correlations between the quality of the parent-child relationship and the relationships between peers (Coie & Dodge, 1998; Parke & Buriel, 1998). Furthermore, Peery, Jensen, and Adams (1985) state that because the first social relationships occur in the family, it is reasonable to look for predictors of sociometric status in parenting variables.

One conceptual model of linkage, the social learning theory model, predicts that parenting practices act to model, evoke, and selectively reinforce their child's social behavior, thereby influencing peer relations (Putallaz & Heflin, 1990). Exposure to positive parental models might promote appropriate peer relations in that modeling provides an opportunity for their children to learn affective responses, conflict resolution, and verbal interaction skills (Franz & Gross, 1996).

Studies examining parental influence on their child's social development (Maccoby & Martin 1983) have typically not focused on parent influence on the status of the child in relation to his or her peer group. Researchers are only now beginning to explore the links between the socialization system of the family and the experiences their children have with peers, in order to better understand developmental processes that may account for continuity (or discontinuity) in social–emotional development across these important socialization contexts (Domitrovich & Bierman, 2001).

While some investigators have attempted to examine the potential association between family socialization patterns and peer relationships, most efforts have concentrated on family background characteristics as they predict school adjustment problems in middle childhood or adolescence (Lorion, Cowen, Kraus, & Milling, 1977; Rutter, 1976). Considerably less work has been undertaken in the study of family socialization patterns and peer group popularity, although it is logical to assume that at least some of an individual's social skills necessary for successful interaction with peers are learned through the parent-child interactions (Dekovic & Janssens, 1992; Hartup, 1979).

Consequently, family-peer linkage researchers have theorized that social behavior patterns are learned through interactions within the family. For example, effective parents influence their offspring's social development through modeling of positive social behavior and close monitoring. These parenting behaviors, in turn, foster positive self-concepts, social cognitive patterns, and social behaviors, which are then applied in successful interactions with peers (Putallaz & Heflin, 1990).

Henggeler, Edwards, Cohen, and Summerville (1991) speculated that dysfunctional family relationships lead to negative peer relationships because problematic attachment bonds to parents promote feelings of insecurity, and prevent the development of interpersonal skills required for peer acceptance. In fact, Matza, Kupersmidt, and Glenn (2001), Ladd and Le Sieur, (1995), and Rigby

(1993) all found that those children who reported more problematic relationships with their parents also had greater peer relationship difficulties than their more socially successful counterparts. Furthermore, Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1979) suggested that improvement or deterioration in the parent-child relationship might influence the child's sociometric status.

Although parental behavior and their adolescent's social status do appear related, there is very little research that has examined the role played by parents in the development of their child's social status. The few investigators that have examined this relation, however, have found evidence for such an association. In Domitrovich and Bierman's (2001) study, the correlations between parenting practices and their children's social adjustment were low to moderate in size. The authors stated, however, that although it is important to understand how parents may influence their child's social adjustment in the peer context, one would not expect large effect sizes, particularly by middle childhood, because child social behavior and peer relations are affected by multiple factors. The individual's personal characteristics, such as intelligence, physical attractiveness, and behavioral organization may all affect the quality of peer relations in ways that are not highly influenced by parenting practices (Coie et al., 1990). In addition, as children mature into adolescence they spend more time with individuals their own age, the characteristics of the peer context and the nature of these interactions have a stronger impact on social adjustment (Domitrovich & Bierman, 2001).

2.2.1. Intrusive Psychological Control

Becker (1964) and Schaefer (1965) long ago focused attention on parental behaviors involving shame, guilt, and love-withdrawal, indicating that these were manipulative, negative forms of discipline. The past decade has witnessed increased attention to this notion of psychological control/autonomy (Barber, 1992, 1996; Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch, & Darling, 1992). This work has demonstrated the existence of negative effects of psychological control, which is defined as "control attempts that intrude in to the psychological and emotional development of the child (e.g. thinking processes, self-expression, emotions, and attachment to parents)" (Barber, 1996, p.3296).

While some forms of psychological intervention by parents appear to be positive, as in the use of reasoning to encourage awareness and sensitivity to consequences (Grusec & Goodnow, 1994), psychological control, as a parenting dimension has almost exclusively been conceptualized as a negative form of control (Barber, 1996).

It seems that psychological control is particularly relevant during adolescence given the autonomy-oriented processes occurring in the form of identity development (Eriksson, 1968; Marcia, 1980) and transformations in family and peer relationships (Collins & Repinski, 1990; Steinberg, 1990; Youniss & Smollar, 1985). Thus as young people are in the process of attempting to more

firmly define themselves, it would be expected that intrusions into this process of self-formation would have negative consequences (Barber, 1996).

Finally, parental control has also been previously examined for its effects on sociometric status. Matza et al. (2001) found that rejected adolescents reported less autonomy, and therefore more control, from their parents than their more socially accepted peers. Baumrind (1978) and Kochanska (1992) also found that mothers who used negative control had offspring who were more aggressive and incompetent in dealing with peers.

It has also been suggested that the behaviors of overcontrolling parents may reinforce social fearfulness in their children, and in school their withdrawn behavioral patterns result in peer rejection (Rubin & Stewart, 1996).

2.2.2. Conflict

The majority of arguments between parents and adolescents seem to be about day-to-day living and relationships within the family and there is evidence that adolescents have more conflicts with mothers than fathers (Noller & Callan, 1991). In contrast, adolescents also report that mothers understand them better and that they have more positive interactions with their mother than with their fathers (Noller & Callan). Thus, the higher level of conflict with mothers is likely to be related to the fact that the adolescents tend to have more frequent and more

meaningful communication with their mothers than with their fathers (Noller & Callan; Montemayor, 1982).

Some investigators have documented significant links between adolescent perceptions of conflictual family and peer relations and disruptive problem behaviors and peer rejection in the school context (Baker et al., 1993; Dubow & Tisak, 1989; Dubow, Tisak, Causey, Hryshko, & Reid, 1991; Kurdek, Fine, & Sinclair, 1995; Parker & Asher, 1993; Patterson et al., 1990). On the contrary, other investigators have reported nonsignificant links between adolescent perceived conflict in parent-child and social behavior (Dubow & Tisak, 1989; Dubow et al., 1991; Dubow & Ullman, 1989; Kurdek et al., 1995; Strassberg, Dodge, Bates, & Pettit, 1992). Additional findings suggest that repeated conflictual exchanges within the family train the child in aggressive and coercive behaviors that lead to peer rejection (Patterson, DeBaryshe, & Ramsey, 1989; Patterson, Dishion, & Bank, 1984).

Perhaps teens vary in their proneness to interpersonal conflict, or perhaps the experiences with conflict in one type of relationship may affect conflict in other relationships. Such effects could be explained in terms of imitation (Furman, Simon, Shaffer, & Bouchey, 2002).

2.2.3. Parental bonding

Parental bonding, in the context of this research project, encompasses the notions of parental affection, parental rejection, and parental empathy. Affection, or warmth, has typically denoted parental behaviors such as praise, encouragement, physical affection, physical and psychological availability and approval (Cohn, Patterson, & Christopoulos, 1991). Parental rejection opposes parental affection and is associated with parental negligence and coldness (Cohn et al., 1991).

Parental warmth has been shown to be associated with children's prosocial behavior with peers (Attili, 1989; Hinde & Tamplin, 1983), possibly because it provides children with emotional security and a model of positive social behavior. Previous research has found that parents of rejected peers provide less warmth than parents of more socially successful peers (Putallaz & Heflin, 1990). Other studies (Atilli, 1989; Dekovic & Janssens, 1992; Dishion, 1990; Mackinnon-Lewis et al., 1994; Parke et al., 1989) have also found significant correlations linking high levels of parental warmth with peer status. In two-cross-sectional studies, path analysis confirmed multi-step models in which parenting practices influenced child social behavior, which in turn influenced peer ratings (Bierman & Smoot, 1991; Patterson et al., 1984). Therefore, it can be deduced that adolescents with high emotional security, or strong emotional ties to their parents, would be more likely to be accepted by their peers.

In a study by Domitrovich and Bierman (2001) parental warmth protected children from peer dislike. It was hypothesized that by displaying warm and

supportive behaviors toward their children, parents provide models of empathetic and sensitive social behavior, eliciting similar prosocial behaviors from their children, which they reinforce with praise and affection. When their children apply these learned behaviors in their interactions with their peers, they elicit positive responses from peers, protecting them from peer dislike (Domitrovich & Bierman). Additionally, adolescents who experience warmth and acceptance, rather than rejection or alienation, from their parents may come to expect similar treatment outside the home, and to incorporate warmth and acceptance toward others into their own behavioral repertoire (Bronstein et al., 1996).

2.2.4. Supervision

Supervision is defined as the degree of parents' awareness of their children's activities, friends, and whereabouts (Dishion, 1990). Because children spend increasing amounts of unsupervised time with peers as they grow older, researchers have hypothesized that adequate parental supervision takes on increasing importance in determining adolescents' social and behavioral adjustment (Dishion, 1990; Ladd & Le Sieur, 1995). Supervision, which is considered an important aspect of parenting, may become more important as children move through adolescence and have greater access to the temptations and risks of the world (Bronstein et al., 1996). While adolescents tend to react negatively to parents who try to control them too much, some parental supervision

seems to be important to their well-being, and particularly minimizes the chances of their becoming involved in problem behaviors (Noller & Callan, 1991).

Baker, Barthelemy, & Kurdek (1993), Dishion (1990) and Patterson, Vaden, and Kupersmidt (1991) found that those who were rejected by their peers were more likely than average peers to have experienced low supervision. Overall the findings provided support for the position that the lack of parent supervision and involvement may play key roles in the maintenance of unstable, antisocial, and unsuccessful friendships (Baker et al., 1993; Dishion).

2.2.5. Tolerance

Parental tolerance is described as the level of a parent's permissiveness concerning their child's behaviors related to friendship; however, in a review of the literature, no mention of parental tolerance was found in relation to sociometric status. Nonetheless, tolerance has previously been examined as it relates to adolescents' psychosocial adaptation. In a recent study by Claes et al. (2005) an important link was found between parental tolerance and drug use, particularly in the case of girls. The authors concluded that adolescents who perceive parental permissiveness will more often be involved in alcohol and drug use (Claes et al., 2005). As the current research attempts to examine both parenting practices and psychosocial adaptation variables, the tolerance variable was also included as a possible contributing influence on sociometric status.

2.2.6. Mothers vs. Fathers

In a review of research on family-peer linkages, Ladd and Le Sieur (1995) noted that most of this work has focused on the influence of mothers. However, other research has shown that relationships with fathers are also linked to peer relationships (Dekovic & Meeus, 1997; Patterson, Kupersmidt, & Griesler, 1990). In recent years, psychologists have had to widen their focus of study to examine the contribution of fathers to their adolescent's development (Roopnarine & Adams, 1987).

In a study by Dekovic and Meeus (1997) the associations between the parent-adolescent relationship and peer relations were generally stronger for the father than for the mother. This finding seems to suggest that the father's behavior toward the adolescent is of greater importance than the mother's, with regard to the development of peer relations. This is contrary to the idea that since mothers spend more time in day-to-day interactions with their adolescents than do fathers, their behavior should bear a stronger relationship with the developmental outcome (Litovsky & Dusek, 1985).

It is possible that the role of the father in child-rearing becomes more pronounced in adolescence. In traditional families, fathers are assigned instrumental functions designed to socialize children into society (Youniss & Smollar, 1985). Given the fact that the adolescents are on the verge of entering society, the father's role as

the link to the outside world increases in importance as a socializing agent for this transitional period. Moreover, Montemayor (1982) showed that between childhood and adolescence mothers become less involved with child-care activities, whereas fathers' involvement with their children, especially sons, increases.

2.3. Psychosocial Adaptation Variables Associated with Sociometric Status

Research in the area of sociometry has become more prominent since studies have suggested that early peer problems predict later maladjustment (Kupersmidt, Coie, & Dodge, 1990; Parker & Asher, 1987) and that social adjustment is a significant predictor of later disorder (Coie & Dodge, 1983). Furthermore, social rejection is an independent predictor of later disorders of behavior, such as delinquency (Coie, Lochman, Terry, & Hyman, 1992; Dodge, 1983; Kupersmidt & Coie, 1990; Ollendick et al., 1992). Other studies (Parkhurst & Asher, 1992; Parker & Asher, 1993; Coie et al., 1992; Rubin et al., 1990) have shown that peer rejection may have a similar role in predicting later emotional disturbances.

Accordingly, there has been a metamorphosis in sociometric status, as applied to research. Moreno (1934, 1953) was originally concerned with the specific connections each individual had to others within the context of a group. However, over time the sociometric test has been transformed from an instrument used to measure interactions within a social network, to a psychometric instrument

(Cadwallader, 2001). Recently, it has become a mathematical index of popularity that is presumed to be a marker for current and future maladjustment (Cadwallader).

The study of peer relationships has been based largely on the theoretical argument that social relationships play a critical and unique role in determining social emotional and behavioral adjustment (Hartup, 1983; Williams & Gilmour, 1994). However, much of the evidence cited in support of this view is correlational. There is little research that has directly addressed the question of whether there is a direct causal relationship between low sociometric status and later adjustment difficulties (Kupersmidt & Coie, 1990; Kupersmidt et al., 1990). Moreover, unlike the large amount of research on peer acceptance in childhood, much less in known about social competence in early adolescence (Wentzel & Asher, 1995).

2.3.1. Friendship Quality

Success in the peer area has been linked to such developmental outcomes as the quality of adult relations, psychological health, and even the inhibition of aggression and antisocial behavior (Giordano, Cernkovich, Groat, Pugh, & Swinford, 1998). Most of the studies examining the impact of peers have relied on sociometry, rather than the quality of active friendships (Giordano et al.).

Recently, the interest in the need to distinguish friendship processes from sociometry has increased (Bukowski, Hoza, & Boivin, 1993). This newfound interest arose from the fact that although it may intuitively be thought that the rejected and the neglected children do not have any friends, this is infact not the case. In a study by Giordano et al. (1998) the authors stated that, youths who score low in terms of their general popularity may nevertheless have friends. Furthermore, sociometric status does not provide any information about the quality of these relations. In spite of this, Nangle, Erdley, Newman, Mason, and Carpenter (2003) stated that the better accepted peers, that is the popular peers, tended to perceive their friendships as being higher in quality.

Giordano et al. (1998) maintain that deriving a peer preference score, as is done in sociometry, produces only a measure of popularity among classmates and not a consideration of the nature of the existing friendships. This leads researchers to the false assumption that low status peers are friendless. Therefore, in order to further investigate this phenomenon, friendship quality was also examined for its possible link to sociometric status. It may simply be that those peers who fall into the lower sociometric statuses do indeed have fewer friends, but more intimate, better quality friendships with these few friends, than their peers who have many friends.

2.3.2. Deviancy and Peer Deviancy

Giordano et al. (1998) stated that some theorists have argued that young people who are strongly attached to their parents will tend to also be more attached to their peers. They posit that these strong attachments will in turn influence the adolescent to inhibit involvement in deviant behavior, because such behavior would likely result in the loss of respect of these important attachment figures. However, one can also argue that if an adolescent has formed a particularly strong bond with a deviant group of peers, then the absence of deviant behavior on the part of that adolescent would cause the loss of respect by his deviant peer group.

Zettergren (2005) stated that adolescents typically associate with peers that are similar to themselves. He called these same-age, same-gender, same-class and same-school peers, conventional types of peers and friends of adolescents, nonconventional types were defined as younger, older or working peers. Furthermore, he hypothesized that rejected children would have fewer conventional peers in adolescence, while popular children would have more conventional peers. The reason for this phenomenon is that because of their popularity, popular peers have more opportunities to make friends than do other children, and also possess more positive traits and positive social actions that promote friendship success (Newcomb et al., 1993). In contrast, rejected peers have been found to be lacking in positive social traits and friendship relations (Deptula & Cohen, 2004, Newcomb et al.).

Zettergren (2005) further hypothesized that rejection by classmates may lead to compensatory attempts to associate with peers that are nonconventional, as a substitute for the lack of conventional peers; it is as though rejected peers take whatever friends they can get. Nevertheless, the results of the Zettergren study showed that rejected children did not report more norm-breaking deviancies in adolescence than other children. The results differed from previous studies (Bagwell, Coie, Terry, & Lochman, 2000; Brendgen, Vitaro, Bukowski, 1998; Deptula & Cohen, 2004) that showed a strong association between deviancy and peer deviancy, and further, that peer rejection seemed to set off this process in adolescence. Other studies (Bagwell et al., 2000; Brendgen et al., 1998; Hay, Payne, & Chadwick, 2004) also found peer rejection to be an important antecedent to deviant peer associations in adolescence. Due to these contrasting results in the literature, it is still unclear as to whether or not deviancy and peer deviancy is related to adolescent sociometric status, and these variables still require further investigation.

2.3.3. Psychological Distress

Numerous studies have shown that adolescents who fall into the rejected status experience higher levels of loneliness and social dissatisfaction than their peers in the other status groups (see Asher, Parkhurst, Hymel, & Williams, 1990, for a review). Other studies (Boivin, Hymel, & Bukowski, 1995; Boivin, Poulin, & Vitaro, 1994; Burks, Dodge, & Price, 1995) also found that depression is

associated with problematic peer relationships. Similar to loneliness, friendships experiences can serve as a buffer between peer group rejection and depression (Bagwell, Newcomb, & Bukowski, 1998; Oldenburg & Kerns, 1997).

2.3.4. Drug Use

In a study by Engels, Scholte, van Lieshout, de Kemp, and Overbeek (2006) it was found that adolescent drinkers and smokers in the Netherlands appeared to be more self-confident and sociable, and are also low on nervousness and achievement withdrawal.

So, it is possible that those who start to drink and smoke in early adolescence have a high social status in their peer group, and therefore; positive social attributions are made by others (Bot, Engels, Knibbe, & Meeus, 2005). Or, those sociable and self-confident adolescents are more likely to spend time with their friends at parties where they consume alcohol (Engels, Knibbe, & Drop, 1999). However, one might also hypothesize that rejected adolescents might turn to alcohol and drugs in an attempt to console themselves and make themselves feel better because they are not accepted by their peer group.

2.3.5. Academic Achievement

Research on sociometric status and peer acceptance has consistently shown that peer relationships are related to academic lives at school (Wentzel & Asher, 1995). In children, those who are not accepted by their peers tend to do less well academically than the popular children (Austin & Draper, 1984) and appear to be at risk for dropping out of high school (Coie et al., 1990; Parker & Asher, 1987). However, sociometrically neglected and controversial peers have been studied less frequently, but evidence suggests that during early adolescence neglected peers tend to earn higher grades than those of their average status counterparts (Wentzel, 1991). Given that students' conformity to peers becomes more important during early adolescence, it is likely that peer status would be related to school adjustment during this developmental period (Wentzel & Asher, 1995).

Wentzel and Asher (1995) propose that one explanation for a link between sociometric status and social achievement is that being accepted or rejected might differentially influence the adolescent's desire to achieve academically. Interestingly, the Wentzel and Asher study found that the neglected children were a highly distinct group with regards to classroom functioning. Their findings suggest that at least with respect to academic characteristics, neglected peers develop competencies not found in average or even popular peers. The authors suggest that these adolescents become neglected by their peers because they may simply be more inclined to pursue academic interests rather than social interactions.

2.4. Sociometric Research in Adolescence

Although most family-peer linkage research has been conducted with younger children, research has shown that the parent-child relationship is still a contributing factor throughout adolescence (Furman & Buhrmester, 1992). Investigators have found that although parental influence over peer associations may decline in adolescence, it is far from inconsequential (Brown, Mounts, Lamborn, & Steinberg, 1993) Furthermore, during adolescence, parents continue to influence social, emotional, and behavioral development through the same mechanisms as for younger children, such as modeling (Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn, & Dornbusch, 1991). In studies by Dekovic (1992) and Parke and Ladd (1992), the same aspects of parental behavior that were identified as correlates of positive peer relations during middle childhood, also emerged as significant predictors during adolescence.

Despite extensive research demonstrating family-peer linkages among children, only a handful of studies were located that examined these links among adolescents (e.g. Bronstein et al., 1996; Dekovic & Meeus, 1997; Rigby, 1993). Dodge et al. (1990) and Coie et al. (1990) found that warm, supportive parenting was associated with positive reports of their own peer relations. A study by Bronstein et al. (1996), in particular provided strong evidence that supportive, aware parenting, which combines many of the characteristics found in earlier

childrearing research can serve to enhance the preadolescent's ability to adapt successfully to the developmental changes of early adolescence.

Studies which have examined the link between family and other relations during adolescence have shown that the strength of this relationship does not decline and that parents retain a substantial influence on the development of the adolescent's social relationships outside the family (Dekovic & Meeus, 1997). Feldman and Wentzel (1990) found that during adolescence the parent-child relationship and social support from the family were positively related to the adolescent being liked by peers. Even in late adolescence, close relationships with parents are associated with perceived social competence and greater satisfaction with peer relationships (Bell, Avery, Jenkins, Feld, & Schoenrock, 1985). Within the parent-adolescent relationship the parent also models an interactional style, which the adolescent may imitate in other contexts. Furthermore, according to attachment theory, the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship affects not only feelings about the self but also feelings and expectations regarding others (Holmes, 1993).

3. OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES

3. OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES

Research exploring the relation between adolescent sociometric status and parenting has been limited. Most sociometric research has concentrated on preschool- or elementary-aged children, and of those studies many concentrated on either popular children or rejected children, despite the fact that many psychologists perceive neglected children to be most likely at risk for social difficulties (Peery et al., 1985).

In addition, although family-peer linkage researchers have theorized that children's social behavior patterns are learned through interactions within the family, only a small number of studies on links between family and peers have examined adolescents' sociometric status as a function of their relationships with their parents (Patterson et al., 1990). Furthermore, not all research examining parenting and adolescents' sociometric status have employed measures on both parents, and the studies that have, either found significant differences between mothers and fathers (Peery et al., 1985), or have produced contradictory findings that propose that further investigation into these variables is required (Stolz, Barber, & Olsen, 2005).

Research seems to suggest that if an adolescent comes from a happy, supportive family that models good communication and social skills this adolescent will most likely carry these social skills with them on a daily basis in their interactions

with their peers. By the same token, an adolescent coming from an unfavorable home environment, where conflict and rejection is the norm, will most likely repeat these negative behaviors outside of the home.

The current study is an exploratory one, based on the results from sociometric research on preschool and elementary school children; it will seek to determine if similar results can also be found with adolescents in high school. Adolescents' perceptions of their relationships with their parents (bonding, supervision, tolerance, conflict, and control) and various indices of psychosocial adaptation (deviancy and peer deviancy, psychological distress, drug use, friendship quality, and academic performance) will be examined as they relate to peer sociometric status.

Due to the exploratory nature of this study only general hypotheses are made. In accordance with the previous literature, it is hypothesized that the popular group should report the best perceived home environment, and the best psychosocial adaptation. Conversely, it is hypothesized that in general, the rejected group should report coming from the worst perceived home environment, while also reporting the worst psychosocial adaptation. Both the neglected and the controversial groups are hypothesized to fall somewhere in between the rejected and the popular groups on both parenting variables and psychosocial adaptation variables.

4. METHODOLOGY

4. METHODOLOGY

4.1. Subjects

The present study is part of a larger project started in 1999. The participants were teenagers from two secondary schools in the public sector, one school located on the island of Montreal and the other on the south shore of Montreal. The sample originally contained 1319 teenagers. Twenty-two participants were removed from the analyses because they did not reveal their sex. Ninety-four participants were excluded because they no longer had contact with one of their two parents. A total of 43 participants were excluded because one of their parents was deceased (31 fathers, 12 mothers). Fifty-six participants were removed from the analyses because their results were classified as outliers on one or more of the variables (+/- 3 standard deviations from the average). Finally 576 participants were removed from the analyses because they did not fall into any of the four sociometric status groups as designated by the criteria of Coie et al. (1982). The final sub sample retained for analyses totaled 536 participants, consisting of the four sociometric status groups (popular, rejected, neglected, and controversial).

The age range of the working sample used in analyses was 11-17 years old (M=14.48, SD=1.13), girls comprised 51.1% of the sample and boys 48.9%. Participants responded that 68.5% of their parents were married, while 25.6% were separated or divorced, and 6% other. A high percentage of parents were employed (fathers: 93.1%, mothers: 83.4%), and most parents had completed at

least their high school education. Finally, most of the participants in this study had Canadian born parents (fathers: 81.6%, mothers: 82.7%).

4.2. Procedure

Each participant was given a questionnaire package containing the parenting, sociometry, and psychosocial adaptation questionnaires, as well as other questionnaires that were being used as part of the larger project. All participants were also given a copy of their class roster in order to make their sociometric choices.

4.3. Measures

4.3.1. Sociometry

The sociometry questionnaire consisted of the classic nomination procedure, asking the participants to name three classmates whom he/she liked most and then the three whom he/she liked least from the supplied class roster.

The raw scores from the *liked most* (LM) and *liked least* (LL) categories were standardized within each classroom and then transformed into *social preference* (SP) and *social impact* (SI) scores. SP and SI were derived from the LM and LL

scores as suggested by Peery (1979). SP was calculated by the formula LM – LL, and SI by the formula LM + LL.

The sociometric classifications were defined according to the same criteria used by Coie and Dodge (1983).

The participants classified as "popular" were those who received:

1) A SP score of greater than 1.0

2) A LM standardized score of greater than 0

3) A LL standardized score of less than 0.

The participants classified as "rejected" were those who received:

1) A SP score of less than -1.0

2) A LL standardized score of greater than 0

3) A LM standardized score of less than 0

The participants classified as "neglected" were those who received:

1) A SI score of less than -1.0

2) A LL standardized score of less than 0

3) A LM standardized score of less than 0

The participants classified as "controversial" were those who received:

1) A SI score of greater than 1.0

2) Both LM and LL standardized scores that are each greater than 0

Finally, the *average* group, which was not included in any analyses, consisted of all those adolescents that were not classified in any of the above categories (See Table 1) (Coie & Dodge, 1983; Coie et al., 1982).

4.3.2. Parenting Variables

The parent-child relationship qualities in this study were assessed from the adolescent's perspective because prior research suggests that the child's social cognitive patterns are particularly important in mediating family-peer linkages (Garner, Jones, & Miner, 1994; Hart, Ladd, & Burleson, 1990; Pettit, Harrist, Bates, & Dodge, 1991; Weiss, Dodge, Bates, & Pettit, 1992). Moreover, prior findings indicate that children's perceptions of the parent-child relationship are important in themselves, regardless of their consistency with actual parental behavior (Matza et al., 2001).

4.3.2.1. Intrusive Psychological Control

The psychological control of the parents was evaluated using an original measurement of 11 items inspired by the work of Barber (1996). The items in this scale refer to situations in which the parent exerts an intrusive psychological control (e.g. My mother always tries to change my way of thinking) and responses are on a 4-point Likert scale varying from *not at all* to *a lot*. Factor analyses revealed the presence of only one factor (global control) and indices of internal consistency indicate an alpha = .85 and an alpha = .86, for mothers and fathers respectively (Claes, 2004). A high score on this scale indicate the presence of greater intrusive parental control.

4.3.2.2. Conflict

This 14 item scale is made up of two parts evaluating on the one hand, the frequency of the conflicts with the parents, and on the other hand, the emotional impact on the adolescent stemming from these conflicts. The first part of this scale is frequently used in work relating to the parental relations with adolescents, the *Issues Checklist*. This instrument was initially built by Robin, Kent, O'Leary, Foster, Printz (1977) and then revised by Printz, Foster, Kent, O'Leary (1979). The scale enumerates a series of sources of conflicts and asks the participants to indicate if the source is discussed, the frequency of possible confrontations and the intensity of these confrontations (on a scale varying from *calm* to *angry*).

In order to compile the scores on these scales, Printz et al. (1979) propose: (]) to identify the number of topics that are the subject of conflicts; (2) calculate the average of all the conflict frequencies that are the subject of conflicts; (3) multiply the intensity of the conflict by its frequency and then divide by the number of conflicts.

The laboratory initially used the whole of these sources, but subsequent analyses (not published) showed that many sources of conflict were never named. Therefore out of the original 44 sources of conflicts, only 13 were preserved and one source was added by the laboratory, for a total of 14 items. After having tested the approach suggested by Printz et al. (1979) by way of interviews and questionnaires, the laboratory noted a large difficulty on the part of the teenagers in distinguishing between frequency and intensity. It was thus decided to simplify the approach by preserving only the frequency of the conflicts on a Likert-scale from 1 to 4. The compilation of the frequencies of the conflicts was carried out by adding all the frequencies of 2 or more and then dividing this number by the number of sources giving rise to frequencies of 2 or more.

Laursen and Collins (1994) disputed this way of evaluating the significance of the conflicts within families from a measurement of the frequency of the conflicts. Their argument states that in certain families, the conflicts are frequent because the parents are more centered on questions like cleanliness for example or that they are more restrictive about alcohol consumption. Even if the conflicts are

more frequent in these families, that does not give place to confrontations, because these take place in a positive climate. Moreover, the teenagers, like their parents, generally declare that the conflicts are relatively minor, even if they occur often. Basing itself on the traditional definition of conflicts, they estimate that the thing that is most important to evaluate relates to the emotional impact of the conflicts. Laursen and Collins (1994) thus propose to join to the list a measurement relating to the emotional impact of the conflicts, such as was carried out in this study.

4.3.2.3. Parental bonding

The scale used to measure parental bonding was inspired by three instruments: (1) the *caring* scale of the *Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI)* by Parker, Tupling and Brown (1979), (2) *the family relationship* scale from the *Offer Self-Image Questionnaire for Adolescents (OSIQ)* by Offer, Ostrov and Howard (1981) and (3) from the *Inventory of parent attachment (IPA)* by Armsden and Greenberg (1987).

The scale used in this study's questionnaire contained the entirety of the first scale of the PBI (12 items) as a measure of the presence of the emotional ties with the mother and the father who theoretically, would be made up of two factors: emotional proximity and indifference/rejection. Two items of the IPA were thereafter added in order to account for the concept of empathy (absent from the

PBI) and the concept of alienation in the parental reports. Two other items coming from the OSIQ were added in order to add a concept of alienation turned towards oneself and a concept of safety which reflects the basis of secure attachment. Lastly an original item was added (*my mother expresses her affection to me*) in order to evaluate the tangible signs of the affection which is not evaluated by the item *to be affectionate* from the PBI.

The instrument is thus composed of 17 items with four choices of answer (e.g. *My mother likes to discuss things with me: not at all, sometimes, often, always*). Factor analysis was performed on the measurement (Claes & Miranda, 2002) and it was found to be made up of two opposite factors, affection and rejection, whose indices of internal consistency (alpha) are .85 and .79, respectively for the mother and .86 and .85 for the father (Claes, 2004). A high total score and a high score on the affection factor indicates a high perception of these factors, whereas a low score on the rejection scale would indicate a stronger perception of parental rejection.

4.3.3. Supervision

The parental supervision on behalf of the mother and the father was evaluated using a questionnaire that is an adaptation of a measurement largely used in the field (Patterson & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1984; Dishion & McMahon, 1998) and the work of Brown et al. (1993). This questionnaire stresses the importance that the

parents are informed of the behaviors of their teenager outside of the home. This measurement calls upon the knowledge, on behalf of the parents, of what occurs in the social, personal and academic life of their child (e.g. *My mother knows what I do in my spare time with my friends*). This instrument has 9 items, made up of two groupings: (1) behaviors with friends during outings; and (2) school and financial behaviors. Responses are on a 4-point Likert scale from *not at all* to *very well*, and a high score on this scale indicates a high amount of supervision. This scale is made up of only one factor, global supervision, alpha = .74 (Claes, 2004).

4.3.5. Tolerance

The parental tolerance concerning friends was also evaluated using an original measurement (Claes, 1996) inspired by work of Patterson (1982). This scale of 5 items, examines the tolerance of each parent towards five situations related to associations with friends outside of the home (e.g. *My mother allows me to sleep over at a friend's house*) and responses are on a 4-point Likert varying from *never* to *always*). The results of a factor analysis demonstrated that this scale was composed of one factor (tolerance towards friends; alpha = .78) (Claes, 2004).

4.3.3. Psychosocial adaptation variables

4.3.3.1. Quality of Friendships

This scale comes from the work of Armsden and Greenberg (1987). The original scale by Armsden and Greenberg was composed of 25 items and was used as one part of a two-part instrument to measure parent and peer attachment. For the purposes of this study only 16 items were retained, measuring the quality of the friendships the adolescents have with their best friends of the same sex (e.g. *My friends help me to understand myself better.*) This scale is composed of three factors: communication and confidence, alienation, and conflicts. A global score was also created in order to represent at which point the friendships are lived like as a positive experience, a high score on this scale represents a positive experience and a low score represents a negative experience.

4.3.3.2. Deviance and Peer Deviance

The peer deviancy scale is drawn from Dishion and Loeber (1985). This 8-item scale asks the participants to report how often (from *never* to *very often*) their friends at school or elsewhere participate in deviant behavior. A high global score on this scale represents a high level of peer deviancy.

The deviancy scale was inspired by the work of Le Blanc (1994), who studied social adaptation of problem adolescents in the Quebec population. The scale is made up of three factors: stealing (e.g. shoplifting), violence (e.g. using a weapon), and vandalism (e.g. graffiti). The deviancy questionnaire is similar to the peer deviancy questionnaire; except that it asks the participant to report how

often he/she has participated in deviant behavior. Once again, a high global score on this scale represents a high level of deviancy.

4.3.3.3. Psychological Distress

The psychological distress of the teenagers was evaluated using the *Indice de détresse psychologique* from a study of Santé Québec (Préville, Boyer, Potvin, Perrault & Légaré, 1992) which is a shortened and auto-administrated French version of the Psychiatric Symptoms Index of Ilfeld (1976). This scale is made up of 14 items concerning various symptoms of psychological distress (*During two last weeks, I felt stressed or under pressure; Never, from time to time, rather often, very often*). This tool was validated and largely used in the Québécois population (Préville et al., 1992; Préville, Potvin, & Boyer, 1995). It comprises four dimensions: depression, anxiety, irritability and presence of cognitive problems. This tool acts as a nonspecific measurement which covers two of the most important syndromes observed in mental health: depression and anxiety (Breton, Légaré, Laverdure, & D' Amours, 1999). It considers that the proportion of the population having many or intense symptoms to be classified in a group most probably at risk to be at a level of psychological distress which requires an intervention (Radloff, 1977).

4.3.3.4. Drug Use

The drug use scale was inspired by the work of Le Blanc et al. (1996), who studied social adaptation of problem adolescents in the Quebec population. This scale is simple and composed of only 5 items. It asks the participants to report how often (*every day, 1-2 times a week, 1-2 a month, a couple of times a year, never*) he/she uses drugs. The scale has two dimensions: the soft drugs (includes cigarettes and alcohol and marijuana); and the hard drugs (e.g. ecstasy and PCP). One additional item (Item 6) asks participants to report how many cigarettes he/she smokes in a day.

4.3.3.5. Academic Achievement

To measure academic achievement participants were asked to report their average in two core subjects, French and math. The participant's academic achievement score was compiled by simply calculating the average of these two scores, therefore; a high score signifies higher academic achievement.

5. RESULTS

5. RESULTS

5.1. Preliminary analyses on sociometric status

All participants were assigned to the 4 sociometric status groups (See Table 1) according to the sociometric classifications defined by Coie and Dodge (1983) and explained in the methodology chapter.

It is interesting to note the general tendency of many more girls classified as popular than their male classmates. Moreover, boys are also classified much more as rejected than their female classmates. In order to examine whether boys and girls were differentially selected to the four status groups, chi-square analyses were performed. Results showed that sex was significantly associated with sociometric status (χ^2 (536) = 32.55; p < .001). Coie et al. (1982) noticed this same phenomenon in their study; this is explained by the large body of data that demonstrated that boys experience more overt difficulties in peer relations than do girls (Rutter, 1976).

5.2. Parenting variables

5.2.1. Preliminary analyses of parenting variables

Table 1

Description of the sample by sociometric statuses, by sex, and by the three grade levels (N= 1112)

Status	Secondary I		Secondary II		Secondary III		Total (%)
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	
Popular	38	15	25	19	36	8	141 (12.7)
Rejected	16	32	14	39	24	20	145 (13.0)
Neglected	31	29	31	34	26	29	180 (16.2)
Controversial	10	8	8	14	15	15	70 (6.3)
Average	96	101	98	83	97	101	576 (51.8)
Total	191	185	176	189	198	173	
	376		365		371		1112

The seven parenting practices; bonding (affection, rejection, empathy), supervision, tolerance, intrusive psychological control, and conflicts, across the four sociometric status groups were assessed by conducting a MANOVA with three sources of variation, sex, gender, and grade level, their interaction effects were also examined. In the absence of any significant interaction effects, main effects were examined with univariate analyses, and post hoc comparisons (Tukey tests) will be carried out on significant variables. Table 2 presents the averages and standard deviations of the maternal parenting variables, while Table 3 presents the averages and standard deviations of the paternal parenting variables.

5.2.2. Principal analyses of parenting variables

The multivariate analyses of the seven parenting variables yielded significant multivariate effects for sociometric status, sex, and grade level (see Table 4). Although sociometric status, the main focus of this study, did not have any two- or three-way interaction effects with gender or grade, there was one significant two way interaction effect of sex by grade level. This interaction came from the fact that girls in secondary three experienced more psychological intrusive control, from both their mother and their father, than the girls in secondary one, while the boys did not see any change in this variable over time. For the boys, they experienced more supervision, from both the mother and the father, in secondary one than in secondary three. Finally, for the tolerance variable, while the parents of girls in secondary three were more tolerant than those of girls in

Table 2

Means and standard deviations of maternal parenting variables for the four sociometric status groups.

Variables	Popular	Rejected	Neglected	Controversial
Affection	15.80 (3.53)	15.66 (3.30)	15.79 (3.49)	14.91 (3.93)
Rejection	11.97 (3.95)	12.51 (4.03)	11.78 (3.76)	12.42 (4.40)
Empathy	11.79 (3.24)	11.90 (2.98)	12.31 (2.91)	11.64 (3.21)
Supervision	26.98 (5.31)	26.86 (5.71)	27.05 (5.54)	26.01 (5.67)
Control	16.60 (3.81)	17.24 (3.26)	16.85 (3.40)	18.01 (4.02)
Tolerance	11.86 (3.36)	11.89 (3.54)	12.30 (3.40)	12.88 (3.21)
Conflict	2.02 (.56)	2.06 (.52)	1.93 (.47)	2.18 (.61)

Table 3

Means and standard deviations of paternal parenting variables for the four sociometric status groups.

Variables	Popular	Rejected	Neglected	Controversial
Affection	14.16 (3.92)	13.44 (3.80)	14.05 (3.53)	14.21 (4.09)
Rejection	12.53 (4.58)	13.66 (5.07)	12.87 (4.37)	13.91 (4.67)
Empathy	10.40 (3.11)	10.23 (3.59)	10.35 (3.07)	10.61 (3.41)
Supervision	23.96 (6.43)	23.41 (7.16)	23.94 (6.76)	23.15 (6.66)
Control	16.18 (3.13)	16.75 (3.75)	16.19 (3.18)	16.84 (4.33)
Tolerance	11.80 (3.70)	11.35 (4.01)	12.23 (3.70)	12.91 (3.71)
Conflict	1.88 (.54)	1.88 (.54)	1.73 (.47)	2.00 (.61)

Table 4

MANOVA of the parental practices of the mother and the father as a function of the four sociometric status groups, sex, and grade level.

Variables	λ	F	df	p
Intercept	.007	4825.34***	14	.000
Sociometric Status	.870	1.60**	42	.009
Sex	.881	4.56***	14	.000
Grade Level	.866	2.53***	28	.000
Status X Sex	.927	.860	42	.723
Status X Grade Level	.829	1.08	84	.302
Sex X Grade Level	.893	1.96**	28	.002
Status X Sex X Grade Level	.802	1.27	84	.051

*p<.05, **p < .01, *** p< .00 1

secondary one, boys saw a more linear increase in their parents' tolerance, the level increased from secondary one to secondary two, and secondary two to secondary three (for further details on this interaction see Annex 1).

Subsequent univariate tests showed several significant main effects of sociometric status for five of the parenting variables: paternal rejection, maternal intrusive psychological control, paternal tolerance, conflicts with mother, and conflicts with father (see Table 5 and Table 6).

The variable of paternal rejection gave rise to a significant difference in the univariate analyses, F (1111, 3) = 2.85, $p < .05$; however, post hoc Tukey tests revealed no significant differences between sociometric status groups. Maternal intrusive psychological control was also significant, F (1111, 3) = 2.74, $p < .05$. The post hoc tests found a significant difference between the controversial ($M = 18.01$, $SD = 4.02$) and popular ($M = 16.60$, $SD = 3.81$) statuses ($p < .05$). Paternal tolerance was significant as well, F (1111, 3) = 2.85, $p < .05$. The post hoc tests found a significant difference between the controversial ($M = 12.91$, $SD = 3.71$) and rejected ($M = 11.35$, $SD = 4.01$) statuses ($p < .05$). Conflicts with mother showed a significant effect, F (1111, 3) = 4.12, $p < .01$, and the post hoc tests found a significant difference between the controversial ($M = 2.18$, $SD = .56$) and neglected ($M = 1.93$, $SD = .51$) statuses ($p < .05$). Finally, conflicts with father was also significant, F (1111, 3) = 4.51, $p < .01$. The post hoc tests performed on

Table 5

Univariate tests of the maternal parenting practices as a function of the four sociometric status groups.

Variables	F	df	p
Affection	1.44	3	.231
Rejection	1.74	3	.158
Empathy	1.21	3	.305
Supervision	1.10	3	.351
Control	2.74*	3	.043
Tolerance	1.53	3	.206
Conflict	4.12**	3	.007

*p<.05, ** p < .01

Table 6

Univariate tests of the paternal parenting practices as a function of the four sociometric status groups.

Variables	F	df	p
Affection	1.25	3	.291
Rejection	2.85*	3	.037
Empathy	.75	3	.522
Supervision	.51	3	.676
Control	.66	3	.580
Tolerance	2.85*	3	.037
Conflict	4.51**	3	.004

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

the conflicts with father variable found a significant difference between the controversial ($M = 2.00$, $SD = .61$) and neglected ($M = 1.73$, $SD = .47$) statuses ($p < .05$) (see Table 2 and Table 3 for all means and standard deviations).

There are a certain number of trends apparent in each of the sociometric groups. The general pattern that characterizes the controversial is the high levels of most of the parenting variables, the positive as well as the negative. For example, although the controversials reported the highest perceived levels of paternal affection, at the same time they also reported the highest perceived paternal rejection, this was also coupled with the lowest perceived maternal affection and high maternal rejection. This group is best characterized by the lack of consistency across all of the parenting behaviors.

As for the rejected group, the results showed that although they did not come from the worst home environment as expected, they still had poor relationships with their parents. The rejected group reported the highest perceived maternal rejection, while at the same time the second highest perceived paternal rejection, coupled with the lowest paternal affection and second lowest maternal affection. It is as though these adolescents were experiencing rejection in their own home.

The neglected groups seemed to be best characterized by their differential relationship with their mother and father. The adolescents perceived that their mothers showed high levels of empathy and affection and the lowest level of

rejection towards them. This group also perceived their relationship with their father as moderate, that is, the adolescents did not perceive a very close relationship with their father.

The results of the popular group were in line with the hypotheses, they reported high parental bonding (high affection and low rejection), moderate parental supervision, low psychological control, and few conflicts with parents, however, these results were not significant.

5.3. Psychosocial adaptation variables

5.3.1. Preliminary analyses of psychosocial adaptation variables

The six psychosocial adaptation variables (friendship quality, deviance, peer deviance, psychological distress, drug use, and academic performance), across the four sociometric status groups were assessed by conducting a MANOVA with three sources of variation, sex, gender, and grade level and their interaction effects were also examined. In the absence of any significant interaction effects, main effects were examined with univariate analyses, and post hoc comparisons (Tukey tests) were carried out on significant variables. Table 7 presents the averages and standard deviations of the psychosocial adaptation variables.

Table 7

Means and standard deviations of psychosocial adaptation variables for the four
sociometric status groups.

Variables	Popular	Rejected	Neglected	Controversial
Friendship Quality	48.65 (7.71)	46.28 (8.34)	47.52 (7.52)	48.39 (6.73)
Peer Deviancy	12.06 (3.90)	11.48 (3.75)	11.72 (3.68)	13.10 (4.03)
Psychological Distress	25.27 (8.04)	24.91 (7.27)	23.99 (7.03)	26.10 (10.14)
Deviance	17.18 (4.85)	18.26 (5.38)	17.12 (4.50)	19.73 (6.01)
Drug Use	9.14 (3.63)	8.52 (3.83)	8.35 (3.50)	10.37 (4.48)
Academic Performance	71.15 (9.37)	68.73 (9.75)	71.25 (9.24)	69.28 (10.39)

5.3.2. Principal analyses of psychological adaptation variables

The multivariate analyses of the six psychological adaptation variables yielded significant multivariate effects for sociometric status, sex, and grade level (see Table 8). Although there were no significant two- or three-way interaction effects involving the main focus of this study, sociometric status, there was one significant two way interaction effect of sex by grade level. The interaction comes from the fact that for peer deviancy and deviancy for the girls showed a linear increase from secondary one to secondary two and secondary two to secondary three, while the boys simple had higher levels of these variables in secondary three than in secondary one. Finally, the boys also showed lower grades in secondary one than in secondary three, while there was no effect on this variable for the girls (for further details on this interaction see Annex 1).

Subsequent univariate tests showed several significant main effects of sociometric status for three of the psychological adaptation variables: peer deviance, deviance, and drug use (see Table 9). Post hoc tests performed on the significant variable of peer deviance, $F(1111, 3) = 3.41$, $p < .05$, found a significant difference between the controversial ($M = 13.10$, $SD = 4.03$) and rejected ($M = 11.48$, $SD = 3.75$) statuses ($p < .05$). The second significant variable was deviance, $F(1111, 3) = 2.97$, $p < .05$. The post hoc tests performed on this variable found a significant difference between the controversial ($M = 19.73$, $SD = 6.01$) and popular ($M =$

Table 8

MANOVA of the psychosocial adaptation variables as a function of the four

sociometric status groups, sex, and grade level.

Variables	Λ	F	df	p
Intercept	.009	8470.32*	6	.000
Sociometric Status	.9.15	2.25*	18	.002
Sex	.787	20.31*	6	.000
Grade Level	.866	5.57*	12	.000
Status X Sex	.955	1.17	18	.278
Status X Grade Level	.950	1.18	36	.217
Sex X Grade Level	.922	1.95*	12	.026
Status X Sex X Grade Level	.802	1.03	36	.423

*$p<.05$

Table 9

Univariate tests of the psychosocial adaptation variables as a function of the four

sociometric status groups.

Variables	F	df	p
Quality of Friendships	.752	3	.521
Deviance of Peers	3.41*	3	.018
Psychological Distress	.970	3	.407
Deviance	2.97*	3	.032
Drug Use	5.36*	3	.001
Academic Performance	1.48	3	.220

*$p<.05$

17.18, $SD = 4.85$) statuses ($p < .05$) as well as between the controversial and neglected ($M = 17.12$, $SD = 4.50$) statuses ($p < .05$). Lastly, the drug use variable was also significant, $F(1111, 3) = 5.36$, $p < .01$. The post hoc tests performed on the drug use variable found a significant difference between the controversial ($M = 10.37$, $SD = 4.48$) and rejected ($M = 8.52$, $SD = 3.83$) statuses ($p < .05$) as well as between the controversial and neglected ($M = 8.35$, $SD = 3.50$) statuses ($p < .05$) (see Table 7 for all means and standard deviations).

The results of the psychosocial adaptation variables were perhaps the most interesting and surprising. Contrary to most previous research, the popular group was not the best psychosocially adjusted, infact they had the second worst levels of deviancy, peer deviancy, psychological distress and drug use. However, deviancy and friendship quality results were as expected, the popular group reported the highest levels of friendship quality, as well as low levels of deviancy.

Another interesting finding was that the worst psychosocially adjusted group was not the rejected group as expected, but instead the controversial group. The controversial group had the worst psychosocial adaptation in addition to the second lowest academic results. However, this group also reported the second highest friendship quality.

The results showed that the neglected group had the best overall psychosocial adaptation. This group had low levels of deviancy, peer deviancy, and drugs, while at the same time having the highest academic results.

Finally it is also remarkable to note that the rejected group did not have the worst overall psychosocial adaptation as expected. This group did not report the highest psychological distress or drug use, infact these levels were quite low. Furthermore, the rejected group reported the lowest level of deviant peers. However, this group did report high deviancy levels, the lowest friendship quality and academic achievement.

Although many results were not statistically significant, the general trends seen in the results seem to show some support for the hypotheses. With respect to the parenting variables, the popular group did report coming from a good home environment, however, the reports of the home environments of the neglected group were quite similar, if not better. In contrast, the rejected group was not found to come from the worst home environment; it was instead the controversial group that showed the most problematic relationship with their parents. In terms of the psychosocial adaptation variables, the results are a stark contrast to what was originally hypothesized. The neglected group was found to be the best psychosocially adjusted, while the controversial group was the worst, and the popular and the rejected were the two groups that fell somewhere in between.

6. DISCUSSION

6. DISCUSSION

The main objective of this study was to examine adolescents' sociometric status and its relation to parenting variables and psychosocial adaptation variables. It has often been said that early childhood rejection leads to maladjustment problems in the future (Asher & Dodge, 1986; Cowen et al., 1973; Kupersmidt, 1983; Roff et al., 1972). In addition, those children identified as members as the popular sociometric status group are well-accepted by their peers, tend to do well academically, and behave in socially competent ways (Wentzel, 2003).

These hypotheses and results from childhood literature were assumed to be similar in adolescence, however; few studies actually examined this relation. Furthermore, research into sociometric status in adolescence usually did not take into account the relationships with both parents, usually focusing solely on the relationship with the mother. As for the statuses themselves, many studies compared only the popular and the rejected statuses, usually ignoring the interesting processes taking place in the other statuses.

There were two main objectives of the current study. Firstly, this study set out to explore the effects that parenting might have on the adolescent's sociometric status. Secondly, the study set out to explore the characteristics of the four sociometric status groups, in terms of their psychosocial adaptation. Though many of the results were in the same direction as the hypotheses, the differences

were not large enough to be significant. Furthermore, some results turned out to be quite contrary to what was predicted.

6.1. The Rejected Group

The present study hypothesized that rejected adolescents in particular should come from the worst home environment and the worst psychosocial adaptation. The results only somewhat support the hypotheses.

Although this group did have the highest perceived level of maternal rejection it was not significantly higher than any of the three other groups. In addition, although the univariate tests on the parenting variables showed that paternal rejection was significant, post hoc tests were unable to reveal where this significance came from. These findings are in line with previous research suggesting that dysfunctional family relationships lead to negative peer relationships because problematic attachment bonds to parents promote feelings of insecurity, and prevent the development of interpersonal skills required for peer acceptance Henggeler et al. (1991). Matza et al. (2001), Ladd and Le Sieur, (1995), and Rigby (1993) all found that those children who reported more problematic relationships with their parents also had greater peer relationship difficulties than their more socially successful counterparts Henggeler et al. (1991).

Tolerance was the only variable that was significant for the rejected group; they had the lowest level of paternal tolerance. In this study tolerance was a measure of the tolerance of each parent towards five situations related to associations with friends outside the home. It is speculated that adolescents may become rejected because their fathers are not very tolerant, or lenient, when it comes to allowing their child to go out with their friends, sleep over or come home late. This could result in these adolescents not being able to spend much time with their peers and in turn, not have enough time to form friendships.

Even more striking than the results of the parenting variables, were the results of the psychosocial adaptation variables. Throughout all previous research it was stated that the rejected status group was at the highest risk for serious maladjustment problems. The results of this study, nevertheless, do not show such a strong association. Although it was hypothesized that this group would show the highest levels of both deviancy and peer deviancy, a significant opposite effect was found. Even though this group did have a high level of deviance; it was also the group with the lowest peer deviancy (significantly lower than the highest group, the controversial group). While this result is contrary to most research, it is in agreement with the results of a study by Zettergren (2005) that found that rejected peers did not seem to have developed strong antisocial tendencies or associations with deviant peers. However, results of Agnew (2003) suggest that this result may be limited to younger adolescents, and that this may change in late adolescence, when antisocial activity typically reaches a peak.

A possible explanation for the general lack of significant results on the part of the rejected group is the fact that some research has claimed that there are actually two subcategories to the rejected group, each with its particular characteristics, the aggressive-rejected and the withdrawn-rejected. The withdrawn-rejected peers are thought to be more self-blaming and therefore at a greater risk for internalizing negative feelings about the self in social relationships (Sandstrom & Zakriski, 2004). Aggressive-rejected peers typically have more conflicts and a general lack of interest in people, furthermore, they are not as distressed by their rejection, and are more at risk for externalizing problems (Hecht, Inderbitzen, & Bukowski, 1998).

One possible reason why the aggressive-rejected peers are not distressed by their status is that they do not perceive themselves as being rejected. This group often tends to overestimate how much they are liked by their peer group, compared with other statuses (Zakriski & Coie, 1996). For that reason, the tendency for this group to report less depression may be related to a self-protective distortion that allows them to miss the message that they are disliked by their peers (Sandstrom & Zakriski, 2004). In addition, recent research has raised the possibility that holding positive perceptions of one's social acceptance may buffer against certain less than favorable responses to peer rejection (Paradis & Vitaro, 1999).

In addition to having two subtypes of rejection, there has also been a growing awareness that the actual experiences of sociometrically rejected peers are varied.

Some individuals may experience rejection in very obvious ways, such as, teasing, exclusion or even physical attacks (Sandstrom & Zakriski, 2004). For others, rejection may simply be experienced as the lack of positive experiences, for example, not being invited to parties and not being picked for teams (Sandstrom & Zakriski, 2004). Nonetheless, the nature of the sociometric status classification is such that it lumps all these peers into one group, considering the group to be a homogenous group, while their everyday peer experiences might vary greatly and the group may in fact be very heterogeneous.

6.2. The Popular Group

It was hypothesized that popular adolescents would perceive coming from the best home environment as well as be best psychosocially adjusted group. The results showed a general trend towards support for these hypotheses.

In accordance with previous literature, popular children did come from "warmer" home environments characterized by high affection and low rejection on the part of the parents. In addition, they also reported the lowest perceived levels of parental intrusive psychological control and the second lowest level of conflicts with both their parents. Although these results were in line with the hypotheses, results showed that this group did not report significantly better relationships with their parents.

As for the results of the psychosocial adaptation variables, these were mostly opposite to the original hypothesis. This group had higher than expected levels of drug use. These results are however, in line with the results of Engels et al. (2006). Results of this study showed that drinkers and smokers appear to be more self-confident, sociable and aggressive, and less nervous, emotional, oriented on achievement and withdrawn (Engels et al., 2006). Moreover, adolescents who drink report that they are more sociable, have more friends, and spend more time with their friends (Engels & Ter Bogt, 2001; Maggs, Frome, Eccles, & Barber 1997; Maggs & Hurrelmann, 1998; Pape & Hammer, 1996). It is possible that those who start to drink and smoke in early adolescence have a high social status in the peer group, and therefore; positive social and personal attributions are made by others (Bot et al., 2005).

The high level of psychological distress of this group was another unexpected result. It has been documented that the increased size and relative quality of the friendship networks of popular peers should buffer this group from feelings of loneliness and depression (Nangle et al., 2003). The current study found the opposite effect, although this group did report the highest levels of friendship quality, they nevertheless reported the second highest psychological distress. Perhaps the popular peers simply perceive themselves as having better quality friendships because they have many friends, but quantity is not often equated with quality. These peers may actually be lacking in the more important close intimate friendships that allow them to share their problems, fears and dreams.

Another general explanation for the unexpected poor results of the popular group's psychosocial adaptation is that there has been some research suggesting subtypes of popularity. Cillessen and Mayeux (2004) proposed that there is a difference between peer popularity as a measure of social preference (sociometric popularity; e.g. Coie et al., 1982) and peer popularity as a measure of social visibility (perceived popularity; e.g. Parkhurst & Hopmeyer, 1998). On the one hand, sociometric popularity refers to the level of acceptance of an individual by his or her peer group. On the other hand, studies of perceived popularity were initially conducted by ethological researchers in the sociology of education who were interested in the dynamic nature of high status children's social groups (Cillessen & Mayeux).

The adolescents belonging to these two status groups have been shown to be behavioral different. Adolescents nominated as sociometrically popular are described by their peers as kind, trustworthy, cooperative and sociable (LaFontana & Cillessen, 1999, 2002; Parkhurst & Hopmeyer, 1998). The perceived popular group is instead characterized as athletic, cool, dominant arrogant and both physically and relationally aggressive by their peers and teachers (Parkhurst & Hopmeyer, 1998; Rodkin, Farmer, Pearl, & Van Acker, 2000). It should be noted however, that these two conceptualizations of the popular group are not mutually exclusive (Cillessen & Mayeux, 2004). So, although sociometrically popular youth are usually prosocial in their behavior, perceived popular youth sometimes exhibit behavior that has a significant antisocial edge (Cillessen and Mayeux).

Cillessen and Mayeux (2004) also brought up another interesting point, the pattern of behavior associated with the perceived popular group calls into question the traditional assumption that popularity is an index of social competence. Although one cannot say that these perceived popular peers are incompetent, it raises the question of what can actually be considered competence. This group uses manipulation and aggression in order to achieve their high status in the peer group, two behaviors that are typically considered maladaptive, but in this case at least, it appears that antisocial behaviors can be used in adaptive ways (Cillessen & Mayeux).

6.3. The Neglected Group

As for the neglected group, they were hypothesized to fall somewhere in between the popular group and the rejected group on both the parenting and the psychosocial adaptation variables. Instead, this group was found to be comparable to the popular group on the parenting variables, while also being the best psychosocially adjusted group.

The neglected group reported the highest level of affection and the lowest level of rejection from the mother, in addition to the second lowest level of both affection and rejection from the father. This result has two possible explanations, either these mothers were overly involved in their adolescent's life, or because the adolescents perceived a lack of interest from their fathers, they formed a stronger

relationship with their mother. It follows that perhaps this strong relationship with the mother could lead to teasing (i.e. "momma's boy") and neglect from their classmates, or conversely because these adolescents perceive such a strong bond with their mother they do not feel the need to make strong bonds with children their own age.

The only significant results for this group were on the variables of conflict with mother and conflict with father. This group reported the lowest levels of conflict with both their parents, and this was significantly lower than the group that reported the highest level of conflicts with their parents, the controversial group.

In general, the results of this study conclude that the neglected group is the best psychosocially adjusted group, even more so than their popular counterparts. They have the lowest levels of deviancy, peer deviancy and drug use. The only negative result found for this group is that they perceive to not have quality friendships, however, given that their psychological distress levels were the lowest of all groups, this does not seem to play an important role.

The results of academic performance are particularly interesting and in agreement with the results of Wentzel and Asher (1995). Wentzel and Asher presented the possibility that, at least with respect to academically relevant characteristics, sociometrically neglected peers develop competencies not found in their average, or even popular, counterparts. It might be that children are simply more inclined

to pursue academic or other solitary interests as opposed to more social interaction with their peers (Wentzel & Asher).

6.4. The Controversial Group

Finally, the controversial group was also hypothesized to fall somewhere in between the popular group and the rejected group on both the parenting and the psychosocial adaptation variables. Instead this group showed the highest number of significant results. In general this group reported the most conflictual relationship with their parents, as well as the worst psychosocial adaptation. In a sense, it is as though their conflictual relationships at home were passed on to their relationships at school and their everyday functioning.

Adolescents in this group perceive differential treatment at home; a strong bond with their father and a much weaker bond with their mother. Perhaps they carry over this pattern of differential treatment in their dealings with their peers. In fact, a study did show that controversial children do treat their peers differently. In this study by Duncan and Cohen (1995) the sociometric status of elementary school children were examined and separate analyses on controversial status children were included. In general, the results of the study showed that controversial boys, popular boys, and neglected girls liked the controversial males. In addition, both male and female controversial status children were liked least by rejected status children (Duncan & Cohen). To recall, to be classified as controversial, a child

must be well liked by some and quite disliked by another segment of the peer group. The results of the Duncan and Cohen study showed that the controversial children, in general, appear to be disliked by that segment of the peer group which is itself disliked. Perhaps the behaviors of the controversial children (particularly males) are selectively positive toward the higher status children, and selectively negative toward rejected status children (Duncan & Cohen).

In line with the work of Duncan and Cohen (1995), one may hypothesize that the controversial groups' differential treatment of the populars and the rejected could be the controversial group's attempt to elevate their sociometric status. In attributing positive social actions and behaviors towards the popular group, perhaps the controversials are trying to fit in with them and become popular. By the same token, in order to be accepted by the popular group, the controversials must also distance themselves from the rejected groups.

The most important point to take note of for the controversial status group is the large number of unexpected significant results; this supports the notion that sociometric research should be expanded to include investigation of all the statuses, not just the classical groups of popular and rejected. The results of the current research suggest that it is in fact the controversial group that may be the most at risk for developing serious adjustment problems, while the rejected group appears to be quite well-adjusted in comparison.

7. CONCLUSION

7. CONCLUSION

7.1. Strengths

One of the key strengths of the current study was its large sample size. A large sample size is necessary in order to conduct proper sociometric research. This sample used for the purposes of this study allowed for large comparable groups even after dividing them up into four groups according to the sociometric classification method.

Furthermore, this study also utilized many previously well-established instruments, both for parenting and for psychosocial adaptation, in order to measure all the variables involved. Additionally, the sociometric method of Coie et al. (1982) method is the most well-known and most often used sociometric technique.

Finally, although not all the hypotheses were supported it is important to note two things. Firstly, these hypotheses were based on sociometric research on younger children, and therefore they simply may not apply to older children and adolescents. Secondly, although the differences between the groups were not large enough to be significant, the general pattern of results for the parenting variables was in the same direction as the hypotheses.

7.2. Limitations

It is important to note the limits of the present study, notably that sociometric methods have most often been used and tested with younger children. There are also certain considerations about the possible limitations of the Coie et al. (1982) and Coie and Dodge (1983) classification systems themselves, furthermore, there are possible mediator/moderator effects, bi-directional effects, and gender and race effects.

7.2.1. Use of Sociometric Techniques with Adolescents

Coie and Dodge (1983) noted that the social world of elementary school is quite different than that of high school. They observed that children who have neglected status in elementary school almost never become rejected or controversial in high school, whereas a large number of children who are rejected in elementary school become neglected in high school. This suggests that perhaps neglect has an entirely different meaning in the higher grades. Sociometric status may mean different things in different developmental stages. In fact Cairns, Cairns and Neckerman (1988) found that younger children typically dislike aggressive children, whereas in high school, aggressive behavior is seen in a more positive light.

It may have been this difference that caused Coie and Dodge (1983) to change their criteria for the neglected status from their original criteria in Coie et al. (1982). Originally, the criteria for the neglected status was a *social impact* score of less than -1.0 and an absolute *liked most* score of 0. This criterion was adopted because it was detected that in elementary school it was quite rare for a child to fail to be nominated at least once in the liked most item, but according to the authors, this scenario was not at all rare in high school (Coie & Dodge).

7.2.2. Limitations of the Measures

7.2.2.1. Sociometric Status Classification of Coie & Dodge (1983)

Although the sociometric status classification system of Coie and Dodge (1983) is widely used and widely accepted, it does not mean that it is without flaws. In their method there is a heavy reliance on standardized scores, in an effort to allow greater comparisons across peer groups. In this way, standardization values in all peer groups will be the same; this creates an appearance of similarity that may not actually exist in the raw scores. Nonetheless, such standardization is required because it assures equal contributions of acceptance and rejection to impact and preference, even if it also has the potential side effect of inaccurately representing the actual appearance of social networks (Newcomb & Bukowski, 1983).

Maassen, van Boxtel, and Goossens (2005) also criticized the Coie and Dodge (1983) method. The authors stated that this method usually results in very similar numbers of group membership (12-13% popular, 12-13% rejected, 6-7% neglected, 6-7% controversial, and 58-60% average), which is highly unlikely to reflect actual group membership across samples. The consequence of using standardized scores is that in samples with only a few high scorers and in samples with many high scorers, status categories of approximately the same size occur.

In recent years, researchers have begun investigating alternatives to the classical sociometric methods. One reason is that more and more researchers have begun to apply these sociometric techniques to older age groups, in which they have been used only infrequently in the past (Cillessen & Mayeux, 2004). What's more, is that these techniques were originally based on pre-school and elementary school aged children, while completely different social processes may be at work with adolescents.

Another concern of the classical sociometric classification has been the strength of classification, that is the degree to which an individual falls within a given status group. De Rosier and Thomas (2003) developed a new algorithm that allowed researchers to compare individuals who fall just within the border of the status group, with those who fall more in the mid-range or extreme of a group. With the use of this algorithm, classification strength was found to significantly

increase the predictive power of social status for concurrent behavioral adjustment (De Rosier & Thomas, 2003).

7.2.2.2. Classroom Nominations vs. Grade-Level Nominations

One potential limitation of the current study was in the way sociometric status was assessed. There has been widespread dispute on the use of class nominations as opposed to grade-level or even school wide nominations. Most often class nominations are utilized for elementary grades, because in elementary the same peer group stays together throughout the school day. In high school, children rotate among classrooms throughout the school day; the peer group is, therefore, the entire grade. Perhaps allowing grade level nominations provides a more accurate view of the sociometric statuses of adolescents in high school.

Coie and Dodge (1983) commented on the use of grade level nominations by stating that this method avoids having some children appear friendless when, in fact their best friends might simply be located in a different classroom. Furthermore, by using nominations restricted to the class one cannot account for the fact that perhaps a particular class contains a disproportionate number of troublesome children. Forcing children to restrict their choices to their present classroom might thus distort the real picture of social relations in the school as a whole (Coie & Dodge, 1983). Nevertheless, the use of class nominations is not completely obsolete, and in addition is simpler and less labor intensive.

7.2.2.3. Ratings-Based Approach to Sociometric Status

As was described in the introduction there are two common sociometric classification techniques, nominations and ratings. With ratings, every participant attributes a score to every class mate, thus this approach collects and processes more refined information than the nomination procedure. In addition, Maassens, et al. (2005) stated that the rating method is associated with continuous variables, and such variables are more suitable for correlation and regression analyses, as well as more advanced techniques, such as multidimensional scaling. Furthermore, continuous variables allow for the calculation of group means, which also makes them better suited to within-time between-groups comparisons and to cross-time comparisons within a same group (Maassens et al.).

Considering that the present study was restricted to each classroom, and not the grade as a whole, perhaps ratings scales would have been more appropriate, in some respects. The rating scale method is tailored particularly to groups of 35 or less (approximately class size), who know each other well. However, a disadvantage of the rating scale is that it requires a lot more work on the part of the participants (Maassens et al., 2005). So it appears that perhaps the best solution is to use these two methods in unison as they are complementary to each other and allow for gathering the most information.

7.2.2.4. Limited vs. Unlimited Nominations

Although Terry (2000) promoted the use of unlimited nominations, this is not yet common practice; in most current research, nominations are usually restricted to three. Bukowski and Hoza (1989) had already previously noted that sociometric measures of acceptance may confuse acceptance with friendship. Since sociometric procedures usually ask respondents to indicate only three classmates they like most within a particular group, respondents are most likely to mention their best friends.

Conversely, Maassens et al. (2005) questioned whether limiting the nominations to three was really such a great restriction. Maassens et al. noted that most participants, when allowed to make unlimited nominations, usually mention a few names anyhow.

7.2.3. Indirect Link between Parenting and Sociometric Status

Research suggests that there are two general forms of parental influence on the development of their adolescent's sociometric status. The first form is that which was examined in this study, where parenting directly influences their adolescent. The second form is more indirect and involves the parents providing opportunities for their adolescents to participate in social interactions.

The basic notion underlying the indirect link between parenting and sociometric status is that parents simply provide an environment maximizing the probability

that appropriate social skill acquisition will occur (Putallaz & Heflin, 1990). It is then up to the adolescents to, in turn, utilize these skills in other environments, such as the classroom. Brown et al. (1993) also supports the notion that parents play a more indirect role on the status of their adolescent. They proposed a model by which specific parenting behaviors are significantly associated with specific adolescent characteristics, which in turn predict the peer group to which the adolescent is associated, and then through peer pressure, the group reinforces these behavior patterns. Thus to some degree parents direct their adolescent toward a particular peer group, although not directly (Brown et al.).

Another important thing to note is that this study was confined to concurrent measures of parenting practices and their child's sociometric status in adolescence; however, parenting starts at birth. It is likely that parental influences on adolescent crowd affiliation operate on a more extended developmental timetable (Brown et al., 1993). Cairns et al. (1988) have shown that parenting characteristics contribute to the division of youngsters by middle childhood into clusters of deviant and non deviant peers, which subsequently lead to status group membership. In this way, the adolescent's status may be influenced by parenting behaviors many years prior to adolescence (Brown et al.).

7.2.4. Bi-Directional Effects

Not only should it be noted that adolescents behavior and sociometric status could have been affected by parenting variables that occurred previously to adolescence, it should also be noted that bi-directional effects may also be in play. Although this and most other studies have focused on the impact parenting practices may have on child social behavior, reverse effects also occur, whereby children who exhibit various kinds of social behavior elicit certain kinds of parenting , creating bi-directional and reciprocal influences (Lollis & Kuczynski, 1997).

While the importance of bi-directional effects in parent-child relations is widely acknowledged, very few studies consider how children's behavior influences parental behaviors. The possibility that children's relations with peers may also influence the quality of parent-child relations has not been the subject of much empirical research to date (Cohn et al., 1991).

Bi-directional effects may also be occurring between sociometric status and the psychosocial adaptation variables. It is often assumed that rejection is an outcome resulting from aggressive or withdrawn behaviors in the peer group, despite evidence that rejected status can also influence behavior (Coie et al., 1992). Results of the study by Haselager, Cillessen, van Lieshout (2002) suggest that sociometric status can function as both a predictor and an outcome of social behavior.

7.2.5. Ethnicity and Race Effects

As was stated in the methodology, the majority of the participants of the current study were of Quebecois origin, however, other ethnicities and races also participated. Since the other ethnicities and races made up only a small percentage of the whole sample, this variable was not controlled for; however, it should be noted that the development of sociometric techniques has been based largely on white, North American males. It was found that within a racially mixed peer group, there is a tendency for children to nominate, or otherwise rate positively or negatively, peers within the same racial group (Williams & Gilmour, 1994). What then occurs is that minority group children may be over-represented in low-accepted categories and are often judged controversial (Coie et al., 1982).

7.3. Future Research

The results of this study show that sociometric status in adolescence is not as simple as previous research claimed. There are many interesting processes occurring in both the neglected and the controversial groups, two groups which are often overlooked in order to examine the popular and rejected groups. In order to get a better understanding of all the social processes at work, future research should examine all the sociometric status groups.

Furthermore, perhaps future research should focus more on ratings-based approaches to sociometric status or combinations of ratings and nominations, since both these methods have their respective strengths and weaknesses.

As well, in order to examine the possible bi-directional effects and mediator/moderator effects, future research should consider doing longitudinal studies. Possibly, a longitudinal study commencing in elementary school and stretching in high school may also serve as a means to examining if different social processes are at work at these two levels of schooling. A longitudinal project would also serve as an important way to study the stability of all the sociometric statuses.

Finally, it may also be of great interest for future research to include analyses on the characteristics of the evaluators in peer research (i.e. are popular adolescents choosing other popular adolescents for the liked most question, and are rejected adolescents choosing other rejected adolescents for the liked least question). Sex and sociometric status of evaluators may also be playing important roles in determining how children perceive their peers.

Although this study has some limitations, it has nonetheless provided many interesting results, especially those contrary to previous research. Therefore, the results of this study show that sociometry is still an interesting avenue of research,

and furthermore, much more research is still required in order to further refine

sociometric techniques.

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ANNEX 1

ANNEX 1

Analysis of the interaction effect of sex and grade level for the parenting variables

Upon further investigation of the sex by grade level interaction, girls in secondary three showed higher maternal intrusive psychological control than girls in secondary one, F (2,258) = 3.10; p <.05. Similarly, for paternal intrusive psychological control, girls in secondary three showed higher levels than girls in secondary one, F (2,258) = 5.95; p < .05. For the maternal tolerance variable, once again, girls in secondary three showed significantly higher levels than girls in secondary one, F (2,258) = 10.07; p < .05. Finally, the girls in secondary three also showed higher levels of paternal tolerance than the girls in secondary one, F (2,258) = 3.56; p < .05.

For the boys the interaction effect came from the fact that, higher maternal supervision was found for the boys in secondary one, than the boys in secondary three, F (2,248) = 5.93; p, .05. For the variable of paternal supervision, once again, higher levels were found for boys in secondary one, than boys in secondary three, F (2,248) = 3.55; p < .05. For the variable of maternal tolerance, each grade was found to be significantly higher than the lower grade, (secondary three > secondary two > secondary 1, F (2,258) = 17.23; p < .05. A similar pattern was also revealed for the variable of paternal tolerance, secondary three > secondary two > secondary 1, F (2,258) = 20.77; p < .05.

Analysis of the interaction effect of sex and grade level for the psychosocial adaptation variables

Upon further investigation on the sex by grade level interaction for the variable of peer deviancy, each grade was found to be significantly higher than the lower grades, (secondary three > secondary two > secondary 1, F (2,243) = 12.88; $p <$ .05). The same pattern emerged for girls for the deviancy variable (secondary three > secondary two > secondary 1, F (2,243) = 6.57; $p <$.05). The same pattern emerged once again for girls for the drug use variable, (secondary three > secondary two > secondary 1, F (2,243) = 15.98; $p <$ .05).

For the boys, peer deviancy in secondary three was significantly higher than peer deviancy in secondary one, F (2,243) = 8.02; $p <$ .05. Similarly, boys had higher deviancy levels in secondary three than in secondary one, F (2,243) = 8.10; $p <$ .05. For the drug use variable the boys showed the same pattern as the girls, with each grade found to be significantly higher than the lower grades, (secondary three > secondary two > secondary 1, F (2,243) = 18.33; $p <$ .05). Finally for the boys, grades were higher in secondary one than they were in secondary three, F (2,243) = 3.06; $p <$ .05).

ANNEX 2

Université de Montréal
Faculté des arts et des sciences
Département de psychologie

QUÉBEC
Recherche longitudinale 1999.

Ce questionnaire a été composé par une équipe de recherche de l'Université de Montréal. Le questionnaire vise à mieux connaître la façon dont les jeunes vivent leurs relations avec leurs parents et avec leurs amis. Tu es libre de répondre. Ta collaboration est très précieuse.

Ce questionnaire est **strictement confidentiel.**. Aucune de tes réponses ne seront connues de personne. Personne de l'école ou de ta famille ne verra ce que tu as écrit. Tu peux donc indiquer franchement ce que tu penses et ce que tu fais réellement.

Si tu te trompes, tu peux changer ta réponse en l'effaçant ou en la barrant. Si tu ne comprends pas une question, tu n'as qu'à lever la main, quelqu'un viendra te répondre.

Nous te remercions beaucoup de ta collaboration

1. Quel est ton âge: .... ans .... mois

2. Sexe (cocher):   ( ) féminin
                    ( ) masculin

3. Dans quelle classe es-tu (indiquer):...

4. Lieu de naissance des parents (cocher une réponse ou indiquer où ils sont nés)?

   Père: ( ) Québec ( ) Ailleurs au Canada ( ) Autre pays , lequel:..........................

   Mère: ( ) Québec ( ) Ailleurs au Canada ( ) Autre pays, lequel:..........................

5. Est-ce que tes parents sont (cocher la bonne réponse):

   ( ) mariés
   ( ) séparés ou divorcés
   ( ) autre (spécifie).......................................

6. Actuellement, avec quel(s) adulte(s) habites-tu (encercler **une seule réponse**)?

   1)   père et mère   5)   père et nouvelle conjointe
   2)   mère seulement   6)   autre (spécifie):..........................
   3)   père seulement
   4)   mère et nouveau conjoint

SI TES PARENTS SONT SÉPARÉS OU DIVORCÉS, répond aux questions 7, 8 et 9
SI TES PARENTS VIVENT ENSEMBLE, passe à la question 10

7. Depuis combien de temps sont-ils séparés?.. ans

8. Est-ce que tu vois encore le parent avec lequel tu n'habites plus (cocher)?
                                            ( ) oui
                                            ( ) non

9. Si tu le (la) vois encore, combien de fois tu le (la) rencontres (réponds à l'une OU l'autre):
   dans un mois: .... OU une année: ....

10. Combien as-tu de frère(s)? .... de demi-frère(s)? ....
    Combien as-tu de sœur(s)? .... de demi-soeur(s)?......................

11. Quel est ton rang dans la famille? (encercler)

    1)   1er enfant   5)   5e enfant
    2)   2e enfant   6)   6e enfant
    3)   3e enfant   7)   7e enfant
    4)   4e enfant   8)   jumeau/jumelle: ....

12. Ton père travaille-t-il? (encercler)

1)	oui, il travaille	4)	non, il est invalide (malade, handicapé)
2)	non, il est au chômage	5)	non, il est à la retraite
3)	non, il est prestataire d'aide sociale (B.S.)	6)	mon père est décédé

13. Quel est l'emploi de ton père?

- S'il a plus d'un emploi, indique celui auquel il consacre le plus de temps.
- Décris l'emploi le plus précisément possible.
- S'il est sans emploi, à sa retraite ou décédé, indique ce qu'il faisait avant.

EXEMPLES: Emploi: opérateur de presse d'imprimerie
vendeur d'assurances

Emploi: ....

14. Jusqu'où ton père a-t-il été à l'école? (encercler **une seule réponse**):

1)	études primaires terminées	4)	secondaire terminé
2)	secondaire 1 (7ème année)	5)	cégep ou cours classique terminé
3)	secondaire 3 (9ème année)	6)	études universitaires terminées

15. Ta mère travaille-t-elle? (encercler)

1)	oui, elle travaille	4)	non, elle est invalide (malade, handicapée)
2)	non, elle est au chômage	5)	non, elle est à la retraite
3)	non, elle est prestataire d'aide sociale (B.S.)	6)	ma mère est décédée

16. Quel est l'emploi de ta mère?

- Si elle a plus d'un emploi, indique celui auquel elle consacre le plus de temps.
- Décris l'emploi le plus précisément possible.
- Si elle est sans emploi, à sa retraite ou décédée, indique ce qu'elle faisait avant.

EXEMPLES: Emploi: vendeuse dans un grand magasin à rayons
gérante de banque

Emploi: ....

17. Jusqu'où ta mère a-t-elle été à l'école (cocher **une seule réponse**):

1)	études primaires terminées	4)	secondaire terminé
2)	secondaire 1 (7ème année)	5)	cégep ou cours classique terminé
3)	secondaire 3 (9ème année)	6)	études universitaires terminées

A. Cette partie du questionnaire te demande de parler des relations avec **TA MÈRE**.
Lis chacune des phrases et encercle le numéro qui montre à quel point, cette phrase correspond à ce que tu vis (à quel point cette phrase est vraie pour toi):

1 = Cela **ne correspond pas du tout**
2 = Cela **correspond parfois**
3 = Cela **correspond souvent**
4 = Cela **correspond tout à fait**

		Pas du tout	Parfois	Souvent	Tout à fait
1]	Ma mère aime discuter des choses avec moi.............	1	2	3	4
2]	Elle ne comprend pas ce dont j'ai besoin...................	1	2	3	4
3]	Elle me fait sentir que je suis de trop........................	1	2	3	4
4]	Elle m'exprime son affection..................................	1	2	3	4
5]	Elle m'aide à me sentir mieux quand j'ai des problèmes	1	2	3	4
6]	Ma mère semble froide avec moi..............................	1	2	3	4
7]	Si elle voit que quelque chose ne va pas, elle me demande de lui en parler............................	1	2	3	4
8]	Elle ne me fait pas de compliments...........................	1	2	3	4
9]	Je pense que je suis une cause d'ennui pour elle............	1	2	3	4
10]	Elle paraît comprendre mes problèmes et mes inquiétudes..	1	2	3	4
11]	Ma mère me parle avec une voix chaleureuse et amicale..	1	2	3	4
12]	Elle ne m'aide pas autant que j'en ai besoin.................	1	2	3	4
13]	Je trouve que ma mère est injuste avec moi.................	1	2	3	4
14]	Elle me sourit souvent...	1	2	3	4
15]	Elle est affectueuse envers moi...............................	1	2	3	4
16]	Ma mère ne me parle pas beaucoup...........................	1	2	3	4
17]	Je peux compter sur elle lorsque j'en ai besoin..............	1	2	3	4

1 = **pas du tout**
2 = **un peu**
3 = **assez bien**
4 = **très bien**

	Pas du tout	Un peu	Assez bien	Très bien
1. Ma mère sait qui sont mes ami(e)s............................	1	2	3	4
2. Ma mère sait à quoi je dépense mon argent......................	1	2	3	4
3. Ma mère vérifie régulièrement si j'ai fait mes travaux d'école.	1	2	3	4
4. Ma mère sait où je suis après l'école............................	1	2	3	4
5. Quand je sors le soir, ma mère sait avec qui je suis..............	1	2	3	4
6. Ma mère est au courant de mes résultats scolaires................	1	2	3	4
7. D'habitude, ma mère sait ce que je fais pendant les temps libres avec mes ami(e)s.........................	1	2	3	4
8. Quand je sors le soir, ma mère sait à quelle heure je vais rentrer........................	1	2	3	4
9. Ma mère sait comment je me comporte à l'école..................	1	2	3	4

C. Peux-tu dire si **TA MÈRE** agit avec toi de la façon suivante et si cela correspond à un des chiffres suivants. Réponds en encerclant un seul chiffre.

1 = cela **ne correspond pas du tout** à ce qu'elle fait
2 = cela **correspond un peu** à ce qu'elle fait
3 = cela **correspond assez bien** à ce qu'elle fait
4 = cela **correspond tout à fait** à ce qu'elle fait

	Pas du tout	Un peu	Assez bien	Tout à fait
1. Ma mère change de sujet chaque fois que j'ai quelque chose à dire....................................	1	2	3	4
2. Ma mère finit mes phrases chaque fois que je parle...............	1	2	3	4
3. Ma mère me laisse décider par moi-même........................	1	2	3	4
4. Ma mère m'interrompt souvent...................................	1	2	3	4
5. Ma mère aimerait me dire tout le temps quoi penser ou comment me sentir................................	1	2	3	4

	Pas du tout	Un peu	Assez bien	Tout à fait
6. Elle essaie toujours de changer ma façon de penser	1	2	3	4
7. Ma mère me blâme pour les problèmes des autres membres de la famille............	1	2	3	4
8. Ma mère me laisse faire ce que j'aime..................	1	2	3	4
9. Elle me rappelle mes anciennes erreurs quand elle me critique..................	1	2	3	4
10. Ma mère essaie de contrôler tout ce que je fais..................	1	2	3	4
11. Ma mère ne respecte pas ma vie privée..................	1	2	3	4

D. Voici une série de choses que certaines mères acceptent alors que d'autres ne l'acceptent pas. Peux-tu lire les phrases suivantes et encercler un chiffre selon que:

1 = elle **n'accepte jamais** cela
2 = elle **accepte parfois** cela
3 = elle **accepte souvent** cela
4 = elle **accepte toujours** cela

	Jamais	Parfois	Souvent	Toujours
1. Rentrer tard les fins de semaine (après minuit)................	1	2	3	4
2. Coucher chez un(e) ami(e) (de même sexe que moi)............	1	2	3	4
3. Boire de la bière ou du vin avec mes amis................	1	2	3	4
4. Recevoir à la maison des ami(e)s de l'autre sexe..................	1	2	3	4
5. Aller en vacances chez des ami(e)s..................	1	2	3	4

E. CONFLITS. Comme tu sais, il arrive à la plupart des adolescents d'avoir des discussions, des chicanes, des conflits, avec les parents. Voici une série de questions qui peuvent faire l'objet de conflits entre parents et adolescents. Peux-tu dire si **TA MÈRE** te critique, te formule des reproches, te fait des remarques désagréables sur chacune de ces questions.

Peux-tu également dire si ces conflits te dérangent (te frustrent, te font mal) parce que cela revient souvent ou que ta mère crie, dit des mots blessants ou te menace.

	Est-ce que cela arrive				Cela me dérange, me frustre			
	Jamais	Rarement	Quelques Fois	Souvent	Pas du tout	Un peu	Assez bien	Tout à fait
1. Les tâches domestiques.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
2. L'apparence (vêtements, coiffure...)	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
3. L'argent	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
4. Les résultats scolaires	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
5. Ton comportement à l'école	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
6. Les heures de sortie	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
7. La fréquentation des ami(e)s	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
8. La consommation d'alcool	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
9. La consommation de drogues	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
10. La cigarette	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
11. Mon "chum", ma "blonde"	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
12. Les relations entre frères et soeurs	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
13. L'utilisation du téléphone	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
14. Autre source de conflits laquelle?.....................	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

7

Cette partie du questionnaire te demande de parler des relations avec **TON PÈRE**.
Lis chacune des phrases et encercle le numéro qui montre à quel point, cette phrase correspond à ce que tu vis (à quel point cette phrase est vraie pour toi):

1 = Cela **ne correspond pas du tout**
2 = Cela **correspond parfois**
3 = Cela **correspond souvent**
4 = Cela **correspond tout à fait**

		Pas du tout	Parfois	Souvent	Tout à fait
1]	Mon père aime discuter des choses avec moi............	1	2	3	4
2]	Il ne comprend pas ce dont j'ai besoin............	1	2	3	4
3]	Il me fait sentir que je suis de trop............	1	2	3	4
4]	Il m'exprime son affection............	1	2	3	4
5]	Il m'aide à me sentir mieux quand j'ai des problèmes	1	2	3	4
6]	Mon père semble froid avec moi............	1	2	3	4
7]	Si il voit que quelque chose ne va pas, il me demande de lui en parler............	1	2	3	4
8]	Il ne me fait pas de compliments............	1	2	3	4
9]	Je pense que je suis une cause d'ennui pour lui............	1	2	3	4
10]	Il paraît comprendre mes problèmes et mes inquiétudes............	1	2	3	4
11]	Mon père me parle avec une voix chaleureuse et amicale............	1	2	3	4
12]	Il ne m'aide pas autant que j'en ai besoin............	1	2	3	4
13]	Je trouve que mon père est injuste avec moi............	1	2	3	4
14]	Il me sourit souvent............	1	2	3	4
15]	Il est affectueux envers moi............	1	2	3	4
16]	Mon père ne me parle pas beaucoup............	1	2	3	4
17]	Je peux compter sur lui lorsque j'en ai besoin............	1	2	3	4

B. Les questions suivantes cherchent à savoir si **TON PÈRE** sait ce que tu fais en dehors de la maison et à l'école et avec qui tu te tiens. Réponds en encerclant un des chiffres suivants:

	Pas du tout	Un peu	Assez bien	Très bien
1 = **pas du tout** 2 = **un peu** 3 = **assez bien** 4 = **très bien**				
1. Mon père sait qui sont mes ami(e)s................................	1	2	3	4
2. Mon père sait à quoi je dépense mon argent.......................	1	2	3	4
3. Mon père vérifie régulièrement si j'ai fait mes travaux d'école.	1	2	3	4
4. Mon père sait où je suis après l'école..............................	1	2	3	4
5. Quand je sors le soir, mon père sait avec qui je suis..............	1	2	3	4
6. Mon père est au courant de mes résultats scolaires.................	1	2	3	4
7. D'habitude, mon père sait ce que je fais pendant les temps libres avec mes ami(e)s...........................	1	2	3	4
8. Quand je sors le soir, mon père sait à quelle heure je vais rentrer........................	1	2	3	4
9. Mon père sait comment je me comporte à l'école...................	1	2	3	4

C. Peux-tu dire si **TON PÈRE** agit avec toi de la façon suivante et si cela correspond à un des chiffres suivants. Réponds en encerclant un seul chiffre.

	Pas du tout	Un peu	Assez bien	Tout à fait
1 = cela **ne correspond pas du tout** à ce qu'il fait 2 = cela **correspond un peu** à ce qu'il fait 3 = cela **correspond assez bien** à ce qu'il fait 4 = cela **correspond tout à fait** à ce qu'il fait				
1. Mon père change de sujet chaque fois que j'ai quelque chose à dire..	1	2	3	4
2. Mon père finit mes phrases chaque fois que je parle...............	1	2	3	4
3. Mon père me laisse décider par moi-même.........................	1	2	3	4
4. Mon père m'interrompt souvent.....................................	1	2	3	4
5. Mon père aimerait me dire tout le temps quoi penser ou comment me sentir....................................	1	2	3	4

	Pas du tout	Un peu	Assez bien	Tout à fait
6. Il essaie toujours de changer ma façon de penser………………………	1	2	3	4
7. Mon père me blâme pour les problèmes des autres membres de la famille…………………	1	2	3	4
8. Mon père me laisse faire ce que j'aime…………………	1	2	3	4
9. Il me rappelle mes anciennes erreurs quand il me critique……………………	1	2	3	4
10. Mon père essaie de contrôler tout ce que je fais………………	1	2	3	4
11. Mon père ne respecte pas ma vie privée………………………	1	2	3	4

D. Voici une série de choses que certains pères acceptent alors que d'autres ne l'acceptent pas. Peux-tu lire les phrases suivantes et encercler un chiffre selon que:

1 = **TON PÈRE n'accepte jamais** cela
2 = **il accepte parfois** cela
3 = **il accepte souvent** cela
4 = **il accepte toujours** cela

	Jamais	Parfois	Souvent	Toujours
1. Rentrer tard les fins de semaine (après minuit)…………………	1	2	3	4
2. Découcher chez un(e) ami (de même sexe que moi)……………	1	2	3	4
3. Boire de la bière ou du vin avec mes ami(e)s……………………	1	2	3	4
4. Recevoir à la maison des ami(e)s de l'autre sexe………………	1	2	3	4
5. Aller en vacances chez des ami(e)s…………………………	1	2	3	4

CONFLITS. Comme tu sais, il arrive à la plupart des adolescents d'avoir des discussions, des chicanes, des conflits, avec les parents. Voici une série de questions qui peuvent faire l'objet de conflits entre parents et adolescents. Peux-tu dire si **TON PÈRE** te critique, te formule des reproches, te fait des remarques désagréables sur chacune de ces questions.

Peux-tu également dire si ces conflits te dérangent (te frustrent, te font mal) parce que cela revient souvent ou que ton père crie, dit des mots blessants ou te menace.

	Est-ce que cela arrive				Cela me dérange, me frustre			
	Jamais	Rarement	Quelques Fois	Souvent	Pas du tout	Un peu	Assez bien	Tout à fait
1. Les tâches domestiques.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
2. L'apparence (vêtements, coiffures..)	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
3. L'argent	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
4. Les résultats scolaires	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
5. Ton comportement à l'école	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
6. Les heures de sortie	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
7. La fréquentation des ami(e)s	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
8. La consommation d'alcool	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
9. La consommation de drogues	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
10. La cigarette	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
11. Mon "chum", ma "blonde"	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
12. Les relations entre frères et soeurs	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
13. L'utilisation du téléphone	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
14. Autre source de conflits laquelle?......................	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

E.	Cette partie du questionnaire te demande de parler des relations avec tes meilleurs(es) **AMIS(ES)** de même sexe que toi. Réponds en encerclant un chiffre de 1 à 4 de la façon suivante:

1 = Cela **ne correspond pas** du tout
2 = Cela **correspond parfois**
3 = Cela **correspond souvent**
4 = Cela **correspond tout à fait**

	Pas du tout	Parfois	Souvent	Tout à fait
1. Mes ami(e)s m'aident à parler de mes problèmes...................	1	2	3	4
2. Mes ami(e)s ne comprennent pas ce que je vis ces temps-ci......	1	2	3	4
3. Mes ami(e)s écoutent ce que j'ai à leur dire.........................	1	2	3	4
4. Mes ami(e)s m'aident à mieux me comprendre...................	1	2	3	4
5. Mes ami(e)s se préoccupent de savoir "comment je me sens"...	1	2	3	4
6. Je me choque beaucoup plus souvent que mes ami(e)s ne le pensent.....................................	1	2	3	4
7. Quand je suis choqué(e) au sujet de quelque chose. mes ami(e)s essaient de me comprendre...........................	1	2	3	4
8. Il arrive que mes ami(e)s me reprochent des choses que j'ai faites.................................	1	2	3	4
9. Je peux parler de mes problèmes à mes amis(e)s.................	1	2	3	4
10. Il arrive que je me dispute avec mes ami(e)s......................	1	2	3	4
11. Mes ami(e)s semblent se choquer sans raison à mon sujet.......	1	2	3	4
12. Je peux compter sur mes ami(e)s lorsque j'ai besoin de leur confier ce que j'ai sur le cœur.............................	1	2	3	4
13. Mes ami(e)s m'ont déjà laissé tomber.............................	1	2	3	4
14. Je souhaiterais avoir des ami(e)s différent (e)s de ceux(celles) que j'ai..	1	2	3	4
15. Si mes ami(e)s savent que quelque chose m'ennuie, ils me demandent de leur en parler...............................	1	2	3	4
16. Il arrive que mes ami(e)s se moquent de moi....................	1	2	3	4

F. Réponds en encerclant le bon chiffre:

1. Avec qui fais-tu le plus d'activités, avec tes parents ou avec tes ami(e)s?

   1) beaucoup plus avec mes parents
   2) plus avec mes parents
   3) autant l'un que l'autre
   4) plus avec mes ami(e)s
   5) beaucoup plus avec les ami(e)s

2. Est-ce que tu te sens plus proche de tes parents ou de tes ami(e)s?

   1) beaucoup plus proche de mes parents
   2) plus proche de mes parents
   3) autant l'un que l'autre
   4) plus proche des ami(e)s
   5) beaucoup plus proche des ami(e)s

3. En général, est-ce que tu passes le samedi soir avec tes parents ou avec tes ami(e)s?

   1) presque toujours avec mes parents
   2) plus souvent avec mes parents qu'avec mes ami(e)s
   3) autant l'un que l'autre
   4) plus souvent avec mes ami(e)s
   5) presque toujours avec mes ami(e)s

G. Voici plusieurs situations où tu as besoin de parler à quelqu'un. A qui t'adresses-tu généralement pour parler de ces questions:

   1. le plus souvent à tes parents
   2. plus à tes parents qu'à tes amis(es)
   3. autant à tes parents qu'à tes amis(es)
   4. plus à tes amis(es) qu'à tes parents
   5. le plus souvent à tes amis(es)

1. Quand tu veux parler de tes
   projets d'avenir (scolaires ou professionnels)............1   2   3   4   5

2. Quand tu veux parler de questions qui
   concernent l'école..................................... 1   2   3   4   5

3. Quand tu veux parler de questions qui
   concernent ton physique ou ta santé........................1   2   3   4   5

4. Quand tu as besoin de conseils car tu dois
   prendre une décision................................1   2   3   4   5

5. Quand tu te sens malheureux et que tu as
   besoin de quelqu'un pour te comprendre...................1   2   3   4   5

H. Peux-tu dire si les choses suivantes t'arrivent:

1 = **jamais**
2 = **rarement**
3 = **quelquefois**
4 = **souvent**

	Jamais	Rarement	Quelquefois	Souvent
1. Je passe mon temps avec mes ami(e)s plutôt que faire des choses importantes que je dois faire (préparer un examen, faire des démarches)............................	1	2	3	4
2. Parfois j'agis de façon différente de ce que je suis pour rester proche de mes ami(e)s	1	2	3	4
3. Il m'est arrivé d'avoir des notes basses dans certains cours pour rester proche de mes ami(e)s.....................	1	2	3	4
4. Il m'arrive de ne pas respecter les règles de mes parents pour rester proche de mes ami(e)s.....................................	1	2	3	4

I. Tu trouveras ci-joint, la liste des élèves de ta classe. Peux-tu indiquer ci-dessous, le numéro correspondant aux noms des **trois élèves** de la classe avec lesquels tu te tiens le plus souvent et le nom des trois élèves avec lesquels tu préfères ne pas te tenir:

Indique le numéro des TROIS élèves (filles ou garçons) de ta classe **avec lesquels tu préfères te tenir**:

1_____

2_____

3_____

Indique le numéro des TROIS élèves (filles ou garçons) de ta classe **avec lesquels tu préfères ne pas te tenir**:

1_____

2_____

3_____

14

1 = jamais
2 = parfois
3 = souvent
4 = très souvent

	Jamais	Parfois	Souvent	Très souvent
1. Endommager ou détruire des objets dans un endroit public.........	1	2	3	4
2. Faire des graffitis.................................	1	2	3	4
3. Piquer dans des magasins......................	1	2	3	4
4. Prendre de l'argent (à la maison ou ailleurs).....................	1	2	3	4
5. Se battre	1	2	3	4
6. Utiliser une arme................................	1	2	3	4
7. "Se paqueter" à la bière ou à l'alcool	1	2	3	4
8. Prendre de la mari, du hash...................	1	2	3	4

K. Cette partie du questionnaire se rapporte à des situations difficiles que tu as pu vivre à l'école. Encercle le chiffre qui correspond selon que ces événements sont arrivés:

1 = jamais
2 = 1 ou 2 fois depuis septembre
3 = 1 ou 2 fois/ mois
4 = 1 ou 2 fois/ semaine

	Jamais	1 ou 2 fois depuis septembre	1 ou 2 fois/ mois	1 ou 2 fois/ semaine
1. Je n'ai pas remis mes travaux ou mes devoirs.....................	1	2	3	4
2. J'ai été en retard à mes cours............................	1	2	3	4
3. J'ai foxé mes cours ou manqué l'école sans raison valable..........	1	2	3	4
4. J'ai été envoyé(e) en dehors de la classe....................	1	2	3	4
5. J'ai été envoyé(e) chez le directeur (trice)...................	1	2	3	4
6. J'ai été suspendu(e) de l'école............................	1	2	3	4

L. Quelques questions se rapportent à ton rendement scolaire. Au cours de la présente année scolaire, indique:

1. Quelle est ta note moyenne en français? _____%

2. Quelle est ta note moyenne en mathématiques? _____%

Encercle le chiffre qui correspond le mieux:

2. As-tu déjà été en cheminement temporaire (C. T.) ou en mesure d'appui (M. A.)?
   oui....   non....

3. As-tu déjà doublé une année scolaire?
   1. Non
   2. Oui, une année
   3. Oui, deux années
   4. Oui, trois années

4. Aimes-tu l'école?
   1. Je n'aime pas du tout l'école
   2. Je n'aime pas l'école
   3. J'aime l'école
   4. J'aime beaucoup l'école

5. En pensant à tes notes, comment te classes-tu par rapport aux autres élèves de ton école qui ont ton âge?
   1. Je suis parmi les moins bons
   2. Je suis en-dessous de la moyenne
   3. Je suis dans la moyenne
   4. Je suis au-dessus de la moyenne
   5. Je suis parmi les meilleurs (es)

6. Jusqu'à quel point est-ce important pour toi d'avoir des bonnes notes?
   1. Pas important du tout
   2. Assez important
   3. Important
   4. Très important

7. Si cela ne dépendait que de toi, jusqu'où aimerais-tu continuer d'aller à l'école plus tard?
   1. Cela ne me fait rien, cela ne me dérange pas
   2. Je ne veux pas terminer le secondaire
   3. Je veux terminer le secondaire
   4. Je veux terminer le cégep ou l'université

		Très bien	Assez bien	Pas très bien	Pas du tout

M. Cette partie du questionnaire aborde **ton expérience à l'école**. Encercle le chiffre qui montre à quel point la phrase décrit bien **ton expérience à l'école**.

1 = me décrit **très bien**
2 = me décrit **assez bien**
3 = ne me décrit **pas très bien**
4 = ne me décrit **pas du tout**

		Très bien	Assez bien	Pas très bien	Pas du tout
1.	Les règlements de l'école, ce n'est pas pour moi...................	1	2	3	4
2.	Les matières scolaires ne me serviront pas pour le travail que je veux faire plus tard..	1	2	3	4
3.	Les règlements de l'école sont trop stricts et rigides............	1	2	3	4
4.	L'école va me permettre d'obtenir un emploi.......................	1	2	3	4
5.	Je suis prêt à tricher pour avoir de meilleures notes.................	1	2	3	4
6.	L'école m'apprend ce que je veux apprendre..........................	1	2	3	4
7.	Lorsque je désire avoir quelque chose je tente d'y arriver en respectant les règlements..................................	1	2	3	4
8.	L'école m'aide à me préparer pour ce que je veux faire après le secondaire..	1	2	3	4
9.	J'ai tendance à manipuler et à utiliser les autres pour atteindre mes buts...	1	2	3	4
10.	Ce que j'apprends à l'école n'est pas important dans ma vie.........	1	2	3	4
11.	Lorsqu'un professeur ou un surveillant m'interroge sur ce que j'ai fait, je dis la vérité..................................	1	2	3	4
12.	Si ce n'était que de moi, je changerais les matières qui sont enseignées à l'école..	1	2	3	4

N. Pourrais-tu dire si, **au cours de la dernière semaine**, tu as éprouvé les choses suivantes:

1 = **jamais**
2 = **de temps en temps**
3 = **assez souvent**
4 = **très souvent**

	Jamais	De temps en temps	Assez souvent	Très souvent
1. Je me suis senti(e) tendu(e) ou sous pression........................	1	2	3	4
2. Je me suis senti(e) désespéré(e) en pensant à l'avenir............................	1	2	3	4
3. Je me suis laissé(e) emporter contre quelqu'un ou quelque chose....................	1	2	3	4
4. J'ai eu des blancs de mémoire............................	1	2	3	4
5. J'ai ressenti des peurs ou des craintes....................	1	2	3	4
6. Je me suis senti seul(e)............................	1	2	3	4
7. Je me suis senti négatif(ve) envers les autres........................	1	2	3	4
8. J'ai eu des difficultés à me souvenir des choses....................	1	2	3	4
9. Je me suis senti(e) agité(e) ou nerveux(se) intérieurement............................	1	2	3	4
10. Je me suis senti(e) découragé(e) ou j'ai eu les bleus............................	1	2	3	4
11. Je me suis senti(e) facilement contrarié(e) ou irrité(e)............................	1	2	3	4
12. Je me suis senti(e) ennuyé(e) ou peu intéressé(e) par les choses....................	1	2	3	4
13. Je me suis fâché(e) pour 14. des problèmes sans importance....................	1	2	3	4
14. J'ai pleuré facilement ou je me suis senti(e) sur le point de pleurer....................	1	2	3	4

O. Voici quelques questions concernant le thème du suicide. Il est apparu important de poser ces questions parce que ce phénomène prend de plus en plus de place dans la vie des jeunes au Québec.

1. T'est-il déjà arrivé de penser à te suicider au cours des **12 derniers mois**?
    oui .....   non .....

Si ta réponse est NON, passe à la page suivante.

2. As-tu pensé te suicider au moins trois fois au cours des **12 derniers mois** (chacune de ces pensées ayant pu durer une période de temps plus ou moins longue)?
    oui .....   non ......

3. Peux-tu indiquer par un X combien de temps a duré la période où tu as le plus longtemps pensé à te suicider.
    Moins de deux semaines ..... Deux semaines ..... Un mois .....
    Quelques mois ..... Un an et plus .....

4. Si tu as pensé à te suicider, avais-tu prévu une façon pour le faire?
    oui .....   non .....

Si NON, passe à la page suivante.

5. As-tu cru que cette façon de te tuer pouvait vraiment te faire mourir?
    Il y avait de fortes chances   .....
    Il y avait quelques chances   .....
    Il n'y avait aucune chance   .....

6. Pensais-tu vraiment que tu te suiciderais?
    Il y avait de fortes chances   .....
    Il y avait quelques chances   .....
    Il n'y avait aucune chance   .....

7. As-tu fait une tentative de suicide au cours des **12 derniers mois**?
    oui .....   non .....   Si oui, as-tu été hospitalisé(e)? oui .....   non .....

                Quel moyen as-tu utilisé(e) ?...............................

8. As-tu déjà fait une tentative de suicide auparavant?
    oui .....   non .....   Si oui, à combien de reprises ......

P. Comme tu sais, il arrive que des jeunes font des mauvais coups ensemble. Est-ce qu'il t'est déjà arrivé de faire les choses suivantes avec tes amis. Encercle le chiffre qui correspond selon qu'il t'est arrivé de faire ces choses 1 = **jamais**   2 = **1 ou 2 fois**   3 = **plusieurs fois**   4 = **souvent** Comme pour le reste du questionnaire ces réponses seront gardées strictement confidentielles, tu peux donc écrire la vérité sans crainte.

	Jamais	1 ou 2 fois	Plusieurs fois	Souvent
1. As-tu endommagé ou détruit par exprès des objets dans des lieux publics (métro, parc public, centres d'achat, ...)?	1	2	3	4
2. As-tu pris quelque chose sans payer dans un magasin?	1	2	3	4
3. As-tu utilisé une arme (bâton, couteau, fusil, ...)	1	2	3	4
4. As-tu fait des graffitis dans des lieux publics?	1	2	3	4
5. As-tu pris quelque chose de grande valeur ($100 ou plus) qui ne t'appartenait pas?	1	2	3	4
6. T'es-tu battu(e) à coups de poings avec d'autres personnes?	1	2	3	4
7. As-tu endommagé ou détruit par exprès des objets à l'école?	1	2	3	4
8. As-tu pris quelque chose de valeur moyenne (entre $20 et $100) qui ne t'appartenait pas?	1	2	3	4
9. As-tu déjà agressé quelqu'un physiquement?	1	2	3	4
10. As-tu détruit par exprès une antenne, des pneus ou d'autres parties d'une automobile?	1	2	3	4
11. As-tu pris quelque chose de petite valeur (moins de $20) qui ne t'appartenait pas?	1	2	3	4
12. T'est-il arrivé de porter une arme sur toi (chaîne, couteau, etc.)?	1	2	3	4
13. As-tu pris de l'argent à la maison sans permission et sans l'intention de le rapporter?	1	2	3	4

	Q.	Des jeunes de ton âge fument, boivent ou prennent de la drogue. Au cours des **12 derniers mois**, encercle le chiffre qui correspond à ta consommation :

1 = **jamais**
2 = **quelques fois par an**
3 = **au moins 1 ou 2 fois par mois**
4 = **au moins 1 ou 2 fois par semaine**
5 = **tous les jours**

		Jamais	Quelques fois/an	Au moins 1 ou 2 Fois/mois	Au moins 1 ou 2 Fois/semaine	Tous les jours
1.	As-tu fumé la cigarette?...	1	2	3	4	5
2.	As-tu pris de la bière, du vin, des shooters ou d'autres boissons alcoolisées?.................................	1	2	3	4	5
3.	As-tu pris de la marijuana, du pot, des joints, du haschisch ou toute autre sorte de cannabis?...............................	1	2	3	4	5
4.	As-tu pris des speeds, extasy ou autres stimulants?............	1	2	3	4	5
5.	As-tu pris des hallucinogènes: buvard, champignons, mescaline, PCP...	1	2	3	4	5

Si tu fumes plus d'une cigarette par jour,
inscris le nombre ici: _____

Merci de ta participation.