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THE RELATIONSHIPS OF SOCIOMETRIC STATUS,
SEX, ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT, SCHOOL TYPE AND GRADE LEVEL
WITH LONELINESS LEVELS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

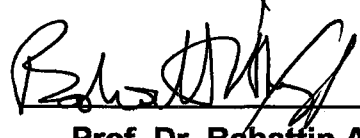
NURAY TARHAN

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF
MASTER OF SCIENCE
IN
EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

T.C. YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM
DOKÜMANTASYON MERKEZİ

JANUARY 1996


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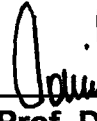
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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIPS OF SOCIOMETRIC STATUS, SEX, ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT, SCHOOL TYPE AND GRADE LEVEL WITH LONELINESS LEVELS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

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January 1996, 107 pages

The purpose of the present study was to examine the relationships of sociometric status, sex, academic achievement, school type, and grade levels with the loneliness levels of secondary school students.

A total number of 370 secondary school students (186 males and 184 females) from 6th, 7th, and 8th grades of TED, Ayvalı İlköğretim Okulu, and Cumhuriyet Lisesi participated in the present study. Data concerning the loneliness levels of students were collected by making use of the Turkish form of Asher and Wheeler's (1985) Loneliness and Social Dissatisfaction Scale which was translated and tested in terms of

reliability and validity evidence by the researcher. Sociometric data were gathered by utilizing a rating scale and a positive nomination measure without administering a negative nomination measure, and the scores obtained from these measures were treated by a method similar to Coie et al.'s (1982) standard score approach, and the students were classified as falling into one of the four sociometric status groups namely, popular, rejected, neglected, and controversial.

Statistical analyses involving mean scores, standard deviations, correlation coefficient, and one-way analysis of variance were applied to analyze data. Results revealed that sociometric status had a significant effect on the loneliness levels of students in a way that while the rejected group reported the highest level of loneliness, controversial group were significantly different from the popular group. With respect to sex, no significant differences were found between male and female students' loneliness levels. Results also revealed that there was a negative but significant relationship between achievement scores and loneliness in a way that as academic achievement decreased, the level of loneliness increased. With respect to school type, results showed that the students from lower socioeconomic status reported greater levels of loneliness than upper and middle socioeconomic status groups. No significant differences were found between different grade levels in terms of the degree of reported loneliness.

Results and implications were discussed, the importance of identifying and understanding children who feel lonely as a function of their peer relations was emphasized, and some recommendations were

made for the parents, teachers, counselors, school administrators and for further research.

Keywords: Loneliness, Sociometric Status



ÖZET

SOSYOMETRİK STATÜ, CİNSİYET, AKADEMİK BAŞARI, OKUL TÜRÜ VE SINIF DÜZEYİ İLE ORTAOKUL ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN YALNIZLIK DÜZEYLERİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

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Yüksek Lisans, Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Ayhan DEMİR

Ocak 1996, 107 Sayfa

Bu çalışmanın amacı, sosyometrik statü, cinsiyet, akademik başarı, okul türü ve sınıf düzeyi ile ortaokul öğrencilerinin yalnızlık düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir.

Çalışmanın denekleri, TED, Ayvalı İlköğretim Okulu ve Cumhuriyet Lisesinin 6., 7. ve 8. sınıflarına devam eden 370 (186 erkek ve 184 kız) ortaokul öğrencisidir. Öğrencilerin yalnızlık düzeylerine ilişkin veriler, Asher ve Wheeler (1985) tarafından geliştirilen, çevirisi, güvenilirlik ve geçerlik çalışmaları araştırmacı tarafından yapılan ve Türkçe'ye Sosyal Doyum Ölçeği olarak geçen Loneliness and Social Dissatisfaction Scale kullanılarak belirlenmiştir. Sosyometrik statü ise, bir derecelendirme ölçeği

ile birlikte, öğrencilerin sınıflarında en çok sevdikleri üç arkadaşlarını seçmelerinin istendiği standart puan yaklaşımı yoluyla belirlenmiş, sosyometrik statü grupları popüler, reddedilmiş, ihmal edilmiş ve tartışmalı olmak üzere dört ayrı grupta sınıflandırılmıştır.

Toplanan verilere, ortalama puan, standart sapma, korelasyon ve varyans analizini içeren istatistiksel analizler yapılmıştır. Bulgular, öğrencilerin yalnızlık düzeyinde sosyometrik statünün önemli ölçüde etkisi olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Buna göre yalnızlık düzeyi en yüksek grubun reddedilmişler grubu olduğu bulunmuş, tartışmalı grubun ise popüler ve ihmal edilmiş gruptan anlamlı biçimde farklı olduğu anlaşılmıştır. Cinsiyet bakımından öğrencilerin yalnızlık düzeylerinde önemli bir farklılık bulunmamıştır. Akademik başarı ve yalnızlık arasında negatif, ancak anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuş, akademik başarı düştükçe yalnızlık düzeyinde anlamlı bir artış olduğu anlaşılmıştır. Okul türü bakımından, düşük sosyoekonomik düzeye sahip okul öğrencilerinin, yüksek ve orta sosyoekonomik düzeye sahip okulların öğrencilerinden daha yüksek yalnızlık düzeyine sahip oldukları saptanmıştır. Sınıf düzeyleri arasında ise yalnızlık düzeyleri açısından önemli bir farklılık bulunmamıştır.

Araştırmanın sonunda bulgular tartışılmış, akran ilişkilerinden kaynaklanan yalnızlığın tespit edilmesi ve anlaşılmasının önemi vurgulanmış. bu çerçevede ailelere, öğretmenlere, psikolojik danışman\rehber öğretmenlere, okul yöneticilerine ve gelecekte bu konuyla ilgilenecek kişilere önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yalnızlık, Sosyometrik Statü

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express sincere appreciation to my supervisor Assistant Prof. Dr. Ayhan DEMİR for his guidance, encouraging efforts, valuable assistance, and patience throughout this study. I would like to present my best regards to my supervisory committee members: Prof. Dr. A. Gül AYDIN and Assistant Prof. Dr. Hürol FIŞILOĞLU for their valuable suggestions and sincere interest in this study. I would like to offer special thanks to Prof. Dr. Steven R. ASHER for giving the permission to use his and his colleague's Loneliness and Social Dissatisfaction Scale, for his best wishes and cooperation in this study. I would also like to express sincere thanks to my beloved husband, Hakan, for his continuous trust, support, encouragement, and valuable assistance, without whom this study might never be completed. I am also thankful to the guidance practitioners of the schools for their cooperative efforts and assistance in each phase of the data gathering process, to the teachers who shared their valuable class hours during the administrations, and to the students who participated in the present study. I would also like to thank to my parents for their support, to my colleagues and friends who tried to make the things easy for me, and to everyone who directly or indirectly contributed to this study.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Since the humans are social beings, their development follows a pattern of expansion of interdependence with others (Johnson, 1981). Infants are born into a social world as being entirely dependent on others. Soon, they become aware of the family members and learn the ways to relate this social circle. As they grow older, their social contacts extends beyond the family to include a world of peers and others (Asher, 1990). When they enter school, their social world expands dramatically. During the developmental course, people develop their cognitive and social skills, learn certain modes of behavior, gain personal identity, and acquire knowledge, attitudes, and values through the interaction with family members, peers, friends, neighbors, teachers, and others. Interpersonal relationships assume a considerable importance for their development and psychological well-being.

Psychological health is considered to be highly dependent on the quality of one's relationships with others (Johnson, 1980). The ability to build and maintain cooperative and interdependent relationships is often cited as a primary manifestation of psychological health. According to Johnson (1986), people who, for one reason or another, are unable to

establish acceptable relations with others often develop considerable anxiety, depression, frustration, and alienation. They tend to be afraid and feel inadequate, helpless, and alone. Almost everyone needs to be involved in an intimate relationship which provides a sense of attachment, and in a network of friendships which provides a sense of community. However, it is getting more difficult for people to meet their social needs in a continuously changing world with increasing violence, prejudice, poverty, societal crisis, and rising, but conflicting values. Although standard of living reached a high plateau in an industrialized world, personal problems of people seem to be continuously increasing.

The view that social relations are superficial and transitory is widely held and is variously attributed to greater geographical mobility, weakening of family ties, and other traditional commitments, as well as a marked increase in narcissism (Rook, 1984). The growing rate of divorce, increase in the number of people who live alone, and the decline of access to the extended family are frequently cited as evidence of the failure of the traditional institutions to foster the development of enduring social bonds (France, McDowell, and Knowles, 1984). Now, it seems that there is little to bring people together in lasting and significant relationships. The result is the increase in the number of people who have personal problems, difficulties in forming and maintaining significant relations with others, distance themselves from the community, complain about the lack of communication, and eventually suffer from the feelings of loneliness.

Loneliness seems to be one of the major problems in contemporary societies. Constant reminders of the pervasiveness of loneliness are expressed through popular songs, poetry, advice to the lovelorn columns, and news media coverage of everyday social issues (Williams, 1983). Concepts such as alienation, anomie, isolation, aloneness, and solitude were often presented in the literature as the synonymous with the loneliness, but several authors indicated that loneliness is more than being alone (Moustakas, 1961; Asher, Hymel, and Renshaw, 1984; Asher, Parkhurst, Hymel, and Williams, 1990).

Although loneliness is as old as humankind, its scientific study is still evolving (Hojat and Crandall, 1989). Despite the lack of definitional consensus among several approaches, loneliness is commonly defined as an unpleasant experience occurs when a person's network of social relationships is significantly deficient in either quality or quantity (Perlman and Peplau, 1984). This definition shares three points of agreement with the way most scholars view loneliness: First, loneliness results from a deficiency in a person's social relationships. Loneliness occurs when there is a mismatch between a person's actual social relations and the person's needs or desires for social contact. Sometimes loneliness results from a shift in an individual's social needs rather than from a change in their actual level of social contact. Second, loneliness is a subjective experience; it is not synonymous with the objective isolation. People can be alone without being lonely, or lonely in the crowd. Third, the loneliness is an aversive experience. Although it may be a spur to personal growth, the experience itself is unpleasant and distressing. Periods of loneliness and feelings of social alienation from others are probably experienced by

most people over the course of their lives, but for some, these feelings persists or are sufficiently severe to make them vulnerable to emotional disorder and impaired physical health.

Perlman and Peplau (1984) suggested that among many factors that contribute to the experience of loneliness, it is important to distinguish between predisposing factors which make individual vulnerable to loneliness and precipitating factors which trigger the onset of loneliness. According to this point of view, while predisposing factors include the characteristics of the person (e.g., shyness, lack of social skills), characteristics of the situation (e.g., competitive interaction, social isolation), and general cultural values (e.g., individualism), precipitating events are the factors such as breaking of a love relationship or moving to a new community which changes person's social life in a significant way. They believed that precipitating events create a mismatch between the person's actual relationships and the person's social needs or desires; a change in one of these factors without a corresponding change in the other can produce loneliness.

Several social scientists speculated about the various forms that loneliness can take (Moustakas, 1961; Weiss, 1973). Moustakas (1961) distinguished between existential loneliness and loneliness anxiety. According to him, existential loneliness is an inevitable part of the human experience, involving periods of self-confrontation and providing an avenue for self-growth. Existential loneliness can lead to positive experiences of "triumphant creation". In contrast, loneliness anxiety is a

negative experience that results from a “basic alienation between man and man”.

Weiss (1973) distinguished between emotional loneliness which is the absence of a personal, intimate relationship or attachment and social loneliness which is a lack of social connectedness or sense of community. He believed that emotional loneliness is the more acutely painful form of isolation; social loneliness is experienced as a mixture of feeling rejected or unacceptable, together with a sense of boredom.

The duration of loneliness is another important dimension. Hojat (1983, 1989) distinguished among two types of loneliness, namely transitory and chronic. While transitory loneliness is evoked mostly by external events such as social mobility, hospitalization, divorce, and bereavement, chronic loneliness resulting from the disruption of affectional bonds is out of individual's control and its cause and origin is unknown to the sufferer. According to Hojat (1989), individuals who suffer from chronic loneliness deserve more clinical and research attention, because chronic loneliness paralyzes the individuals' normal routine and social life.

Loneliness as a painful warning signal indicates that a person's social relations are deficient in some important way. It is unlikely and perhaps even undesirable that loneliness be eliminated from the repertoire of common human experience. However, it is important to prevent transient episodes of loneliness from evolving into a condition of severe and chronic loneliness. Persistent loneliness can set the stage for

depression, increase the risk of suicide, and in other ways jeopardize psychological well-being. It is these harmful mental health consequences that are a prime target for intervention (Perlman and Peplau, 1984).

As an increasingly widespread phenomenon, loneliness, found to be linked with both physical illness and to a number of serious mental health problems, including alcoholism, suicide, delinquency, depression, and frustration (Russell, Cutrona, Rose, and Yurko, 1984). Studies related to the social behavior of lonely people indicated social skills deficit, including negative views of self and others (Jones, Freemon, and Goswick, 1981), unresponsiveness to others in social interactions (Jones, Hobbs, and Hockenberry, 1982), and inappropriate patterns of self-disclosure (Davis and Franzio, 1986; Chelune, Sultan, and Williams, 1980; Solano, Batten, and Parish, 1982).

If loneliness is such a widespread problem among adults, it would not be surprising to expect that children and adolescents may be more vulnerable to the feelings of loneliness than the adults. Adolescence can be considered as a particularly significant developmental period for examining loneliness. Data from available studies suggest that loneliness is a painful and widespread problem among children and adolescents as well (Ostrov and Offer, 1978; France et al., 1984; Williams, 1983; Moore and Schultz, 1983).

There appears in the literature a number of theoretical statements on loneliness which specifically address loneliness in children and adolescents or can be applied to both. In an early discussion on

loneliness, Sullivan (1953) suggested that in the developmental history of everyone, the feeling called loneliness is an exceedingly unpleasant and driving experience connected with inadequate charge of the need for human intimacy. According to Sullivan (1953), experience of loneliness appears during infancy as a the need for contact, which extends into the childhood as the need for adult participation in the activities through which children learn how to express emotions by successes and failures in escaping anxiety and coordination. In the juvenile era, components of loneliness is seen in the need for compeers and in the later phases of this period, as the need for acceptance. Sullivan (1953) believed that in preadolescence, the final component of the really intimidating experience of loneliness the need for intimate exchange with a fellow-being whom one may describe or identify as a chum or a loved one- that is, the need for most intimate type of exchange with respect to satisfaction and security. According to Sullivan (1953), loneliness is a phenomenon ordinarily occurred only in adolescence and afterward. Under loneliness, he suggested, people seek companionships when, because of deprivation in companionship, one does integrate a situation inspite of more or less intense anxiety, one often shows evidences of a serious defect of personal orientation.

Fromm-Reichman (1959) supports Sullivan's theory and suggests that, while all human beings seem to be afraid of loneliness, their thresholds for loneliness vary depending upon the particular vicissitudes of the developmental history. She also stated that a consistent lack of physical contact in childhood could lead to physical as well as emotional disturbances in adulthood including loneliness.

Moustakas (1961) supports the idea that the most serious threat to a child's whole experience, and one which could lead to loneliness in adulthood, is being abandoned or left by the mother. He also indicates that loneliness has a developmental history beginning in infancy, when the need for contact temporarily unresolved.

Loneliness in adolescence is also explained as a consequence of the "identity crisis" experienced by the adolescents. This explanation is based on Erikson's (1963) eight stages of development between infancy and old age. Erikson (1963) considered human development in terms of a series of conflicts that individuals must cope with at each stage. He believed that both adaptive and maladaptive ways of coping at each stage must be incorporated into the ego identity. The adolescent is described as being at the stage of "identity versus role confusion". During this stage, adolescent must form a self-image that makes sense and provides both a continuity with the past and an orientation toward the future. Erikson (1963) felt that the shaping and acceptance of one's identity constitute an extremely difficult and anxiety filled task in which adolescent must experiment with or try on different roles to determine the best fit. Erikson (1963) suggested that after forming an identity, the individual is ready to share or merge with others in some type of commitment. If an intimate relationship is not established, it results in loneliness and isolation.

Horney (1945) proposed that children may react within their environment using three possible strategies that can result in social harmony, conflict, or isolation. She conceptualized these approaches as

moving toward, against, and away from others. By moving toward people, the child develops a support system outside the family and establishes a sense of belonging within the society. Other children begin to rely on the child, and the child relies on the others. When the child moves against the people, she or he sees the world inherently hostile and embarks on constant conflict with the world. The child maintains an angry and rebellious demeanor, going against whatever society has to offer. The third strategy occurs when the child does not want to be a part of or fight the environment and moves away from people. The child feels isolated and withdraws into a solitary world. Within this strategy, according to Horney (1945), people are driven to maintain an emotional distance from all others. In order to achieve total detachment, they strive to become extremely self-sufficient and resourceful. Horney (1945) emphasized that these three attitudes are not mutually exclusive, but rather exist in varying degrees in every child.

Social learning theories indicate that all forms of human behavior are learned and are a product of social conditions and psychological principles. According to Rotter (1954), people respond with behavior that they have learned will lead to the greatest satisfaction in a given situation. He also indicated that the potentiality of a given behavior or set of behaviors to occur is dependent on an individual's expectancy that the behavior will lead to a particular goal or satisfaction, the value of that satisfaction, and the relative strength of other behavior potentials in the same situation. Thus, if people place value on the satisfaction received from companionship with others, they will respond by seeking that

companionship. If the need for companionship is not reinforced, loneliness will result.

The factors present in adolescence which lead to the emergence of various forms of loneliness include cognitive and physiological development and psychological developmental tasks such as separation-individuation from parents, search for identity, and search for intimate relationships. Situational factors in adolescent's environment which interrupt the flow of this process may ultimately result in loneliness. It was suggested that adolescents are more vulnerable to social loneliness due to feeling isolated and frustrated in their needs for belongingness (Williams, 1983). This may be due to the unique characteristics of adolescence as a developmental period. In children's development, the adolescence is designated by several changes occurring in terms of all developmental domains including not only the physical changes, but cognitive, emotional, and social changes as well. It also represents a time of significant changes in children's relationships with both their parents and peers. According to Younnis and Smollar (1989), children have an increased unsupervised contact with peers and begin to place greater importance on their approval, views, and advice. At the same time, they spend less time with their parents and appear to distance themselves emotionally from parents. Along with the unsupervised age-mate interaction during school hours, the amount of time spent with peers after school also increases during adolescence. They become more concerned about peer acceptance and popularity and begin to turn to their friends more often as sources of comfort.

Many researchers found that peers and peer-oriented activities do become more important to the individual during adolescence (Berndt, 1979; Fuligni and Eccles, 1993; Younnis and Smollar, 1989). Particularly prominent among the social processes entailed is that of identification with the peer group (Durkin, 1995). Children's susceptibility to peer influence risen and peaks during early adolescence (Steinberg and Silverberg, 1986; Berndt, 1979; Bixenstine, DeCorte, and Bixenstine, 1976). In some ways, it appears that children's increased orientation toward peers during early adolescence is at the expense of their closeness to their parents.

Increasingly able to think abstractly and to use complex reasoning, early adolescents are likely to seek opportunities and settings in which they can practice these new skills, establish forms of independent thinking, and develop their identity (Fuligni and Eccless, 1993). Parent-child and peer relationships differ in the provisions of these opportunities because they differ in the power balance between the members. Parent-child relationships are inherently asymmetrical, usually dominated by parents; peer relationships, in contrast, can be more symmetrical and egalitarian. During early adolescence children become more sensitive to this difference. Because of the unequal power balance of parent-child relationships, early adolescents may feel that opportunities for independent thinking and activity are limited in these settings. Meanwhile, the relative lack of unilateral control over one another within peer relationships may lead early adolescents to invest increased amounts of time and attention in their peer relations (Younnis and Smollar, 1989).

A fundamental and widely accepted premise of the social developmental literature is the proposal that childhood peer relationships contribute uniquely to social and emotional development (Hartup, 1983). Therefore, a considerable attention was given to this topic by both developmental and clinical psychologists such that references to it appear with considerable frequency in the peer relations literature. A substantial theoretical literature suggests that children's relations with peers contribute uniquely to the development of skills in social domain, their sense of security, and their conception of and feelings about the self.

As Bukowski and Hoza (1989) stated some researchers argued that the experiences with peers are an important context for the development of several fundamental skills required for a successful social interaction. This perspective is clearly apparent in the argument that without an opportunity to encounter individuals who are co-equals, children do not learn effective communication skills, do not acquire the competencies needed to modulate their aggressive actions, have difficulties with sexual identification, and are disadvantaged with respect to the formation of moral values. Similarly, Piaget (1965) proposed that the cooperation and mutuality engendered in peer relationships allow children to gain broader cognitive perspectives about their own social worlds. Piaget considered very young children to be egocentric and neither willing nor able to appreciate the viewpoints, intentions, and feelings of their social partners. However, he suggested that with the onset of peer play, a unique opportunity occurs to establish egalitarian and reciprocal relationships, as well as to experience conflict and negotiation. Such conflict and negotiation, whether centered around objects or different

perspectives of the social world, were thought to hold the power of eliciting compromise and reciprocity. These encounters with peers were thought of bring about the realization that positive and productive social interaction is gained through cooperation with and sensitivity to one's social partner.

As Berndt (1982) noted, several writers argued that peer relations contribute to a child's sense of social support and security. According to this point of view, the friendships of preadolescents and early adolescents are important sources of social support that function to reduce the anxieties and fears about the changes occurring in these developmental periods. It was also claimed that during the emotional uncertainty of preadolescence, friendship experience can be a catalyst for the development of security and that peer relations provide a secure context in which new modes of social expressions can be tested, thus facilitating the development of social skills.

The argument that children's relations with peers contribute uniquely to the self-concept development is evident in the interpersonal theory of Sullivan (1953). He considered the importance of interpersonal relations, especially those between the peers during the school-age and early adolescence development period, and believed that adequate peer relations during these periods were requisite for the formation of a healthy self-concept.

These theoretical perspectives lead, naturally, to the conclusion that peer interactions and peer relationships are important forces in the

development. In contemporary studies of peer relations, a distinction was made between two aspects of children's experiences with their peers:

(a) Popularity which is the experience of being liked or accepted by the members of one's peer group; and

(b) Friendship, which is the experience of having a close, mutual, and dyadic relation.

According to this conceptualization, popularity is a general, group-oriented, unilateral construct that represent a view of the group toward an individual, whereas friendship is a specific, dyadic, and bilateral construct that refers to a particular type of experience that takes place between two individuals (Blyth, 1983; Bukowski and Hoza, 1989; Ladd, 1990; Parker and Asher, 1993).

The idea that social relationships can be conceptualized in terms of different levels of experience is not unique to the literature on peers. Indeed, scientific interest in children's peer relationships arose within the context of the general interest in the influence of the social groups on human development. A significant point of view related to the study of social relations is apparent in Moreno's (1934) work in which attention is devoted to the nature of one' relations within both the larger group and dyadic contexts. With regard to one's larger group relations, for example, Moreno referred to a person's position in the group as a leader, and he noted that some persons are more likely than others to receive attention from group members. On the dyadic level, he focused on the structure of relation, especially on whether or not feelings of attraction is

reciprocated. In these respects, Moreno's (1934) work is part of a theoretical foundation regarding the importance of considering an individual in terms of multiple levels of social experience. Indeed, a major premise of his approach to the conceptualization and measurement of the relations among the individuals within a group is the belief that individuals cannot be understood in isolation from others.

The emphasis on social relations within both the group and dyadic contexts is also apparent in Sullivan's (1953) argument that different aspects of children's peer relations are important at different ages. Specifically, Sullivan argued that the general treatment that a child receives from the peer group is especially important during the juvenile period. On the other hand, he argued that interaction on a dyadic level, that is, the experience of having a chum, is more important for preadolescents and early adolescents. In his description of the properties that characterize the chumship relations, Sullivan clearly implied that this relation is unique, as it presents opportunities for experiences (e.g., intimacy, closeness, and reciprocity) that are not available in other types of peer relations. Even so, Sullivan clearly recognized that preadolescent chumships exist within a larger group context.

The theory pertinent to children's peer relationships suggests that group and dyadic interactions with peers represent distinct realms of experience and that both needed to be included in a conceptualization of children's peer relationships. Both the children's friendships and peer relations refer to different phenomena that may serve both separate and overlapping functions in the development and socialization (Parker and

Asher, 1993; Berndt and Ladd, 1989, Ladd, 1988). Although friends appear to be an important source of companionship and emotional support (Berndt and Perry, 1986), children's social position in the peer group may affect other aspects of their school experience, including their access to play opportunities (Ladd and Price, 1988), achievement, feelings of belongingness or loneliness (Asher et al., 1984; Asher and Wheeler, 1985), and perceptions of interpersonal competence (Bukowski and Hoza, 1989).

In the sociometric literature, the primary methods used to measure popularity and peer relationships have been the nomination sociometrics and rating scale sociometrics. Although the specific administration procedures vary from study to study, all nomination sociometrics involve having each child nominate grademates for a given interpersonal criteria, either positive (e.g., best friend, someone you like to play with) or negative (e.g., someone you do not like to play with) (Terry and Coie, 1991). Generally, a child's score on a given criteria is simply the number of nominations obtained from peers. Rating scales, on the other hand, typically involve having each child rate all of his or her classmates on a Likert-type scale with regard to a specified criterion (e.g., degree of liking). Scores are then computed by summing or averaging the ratings received from peers.

Previously, researchers heavily relied on unidimensional sociometric classification systems that identified children as popular and unpopular. They defined sociometric status on the basis of number of nominations received as a friend or preferred playmate. The early use of both positive

and negative nominations resulted in the first attempts to combine the two types of nominations and differentiated between likability and social visibility which formed the bases of the two-dimensional framework (Newcomb and Bukowski, 1993). Two-dimensional classification systems have become widely accepted as appropriate techniques for identifying children who differ in terms of their positions within the peer network. At the forefront of the two-dimensional sociometric movement were Coie, Dodge, and Coppotelli (1982). In their sociometric classification model, acceptance and rejection are operationally defined as the number of most liked and least liked nominations each child received. These raw scores are standardized by the grade level. The standardized acceptance and rejection scores serve as the basis for what Coie et al. depicted as independent social impact and social preference dimensions. Social impact is defined as a measure of social salience or the relative degree to which the children are noticed by their peers and it is the standardized sum of acceptance plus rejection. In contrast, social preference is defined as a measure of social likability which reflects the relative extent to which the children are liked or disliked by their peers and it is the standardized difference of acceptance minus rejection. The use of standardized values in the derivation of sociometric status was resulted in Coie et al.'s methodology's being labeled as the standard score approach.

Using these kinds of methods, different researchers employed slightly different classification schemes to describe social acceptance, but most tended to distinguish four or five types, similar to those identified by Coie et al. (1982) (Terry and Coie, 1991; Asher and Dodge, 1986), and they assigned children to groups known as popular (whom many of their

peers nominate or rate favorably), rejected (who are widely disliked), controversial (who are regarded very favorably by some peers, but seen as disruptive by others), neglected (who are rarely nominated), and average (who are generally accepted and do not receive extreme scores on peers' rating) (Durkin, 1995).

In several studies sociometric status was found to be related to the self-esteem and school achievement (Hartup, 1983; Asarnow and Callan, 1985; Jennings, 1975). Inverse relations were found with social anxiety and loneliness (Crick and Ladd, 1993; Asher et al., 1984). In addition, some classic studies demonstrated that children who were rejected by peers at a young age were later more likely to suffer adjustment problems (Cowen, Pederson, Babigon, Izzo, and Trost, 1973) suggesting that poor peer relationships may lead to unsatisfactory developmental outcomes.

If peers play substantially important role in the socialization, it follows that low-accepted children might become more vulnerable to later life problems. Specifically because low-accepted children experience limited opportunities for positive peer interaction, it follows that they would be relatively deprived of opportunities to learn normal adaptive modes of social conduct and social cognition. Furthermore, because academic pursuit takes place in a social context, poor peer relationships might undermine academic progress as well (Parkhurst and Asher, 1992; Asher, 1990; Parker and Asher, 1987). The importance of this topic has been demonstrated in several studies indicating that the children who fail to get along with the members of their peer group, in particular the children who are actively disliked by their peers (i.e., rejected children) are often unable

to break out of this negative status (Coie and Dodge, 1983; Coie and Kuppersmidt, 1983; Newcomb and Bukowski, 1983), suffer from the feelings of loneliness (Asher and Wheeler, 1985), and are at risk for a variety of difficulties in later life, including school maladjustment, and a number of conduct and psychiatric disorders (Parker and Asher, 1987; Putallaz, 1983).

It is evident that there are striking individual differences in the extent to which some children are accepted. In the extreme, some children are well regarded and enjoy many friendships, whereas others are nearly universally disliked and have no friends (Parker and Asher, 1987). There are many children who have difficulty to get other children to like them and who feel left out of things at the school settings (Rizzo, 1989; Parker and Asher, 1987). The percentage of children having peer relationship problems may be higher in some subgroups of children than others. Children who are mildly retarded (Guralnick and Groom, 1989; Taylor, Asher, and Williams, 1987), hyperactive (Henker and Whalen, 1989), or in other ways learning handicapped are especially likely to experience serious social relationship difficulties.

It is clear from the formal assessments of loneliness that children who are having the greatest difficulty in their peer relationships are indeed reporting the greatest degree of loneliness and social dissatisfaction (Asher et al., 1990; Parkhurst and Asher, 1992; Parker and Asher, 1993; Asher and Wheeler, 1985). Children who are poorly accepted by their peers find their social world to be lonely and dissatisfying. Many rejected children are distressed by their social circumstances in the school. It is

possible that children's reports of loneliness are implicit calls for help. In admitting loneliness, these children are telling that they are unhappy with their social situation and wish it were otherwise (Asher et al., 1990). Therefore, it can lead to significant gains to examine the feelings of loneliness as a function of peer relations among children and adolescents in terms of developing preventive measures to protect the youngsters from this stressful experience.

On the basis of these theoretical explanations, the primary purpose of the present study is to examine the relationships of several factors including the sociometric status, sex, academic achievement, school type and grade level with loneliness levels of secondary school students from 6th, 7th, and 8th grades.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This section contains the research related with the assessment of feelings of loneliness and research related with several correlates of peer status.

2.1 Research related with the feelings of loneliness

Although considerable research exists on the feelings of loneliness in children as a function of peer relationships, there is relatively little research with adolescents. Thus, in this section available literature concerning the loneliness in children, pre-, early-, and late-adolescents was discussed.

A study by Asher, Hymel, and Renshaw (1984) addressed this topic by developing a loneliness scale for children and by studying the relation of loneliness to sociometric status in the peer group. Asher et al. (1984) used their questionnaire to learn whether children who are poorly accepted by their classmates being more lonely or socially dissatisfied. This question was of interest because despite a decade of intervention

research with unpopular children, no information was available concerning unpopular children's feelings about their social situation. Asher et al. (1984) found that unpopular children reported significantly more loneliness than did popular children. They did not find any significant sex or grade differences.

In a subsequent study of children by Asher and Wheeler (1985), subgroups of unpopular children were distinguished as rejected and neglected. Results indicated that rejected children were the most lonely and socially dissatisfied group and that this group differed significantly from other status groups originally used in Coie et al.'s (1982) classification system (popular, neglected, controversial, and average). However, neglected children did not differ from their popular peers.

Cassidy and Asher (1992) conducted a study to examine whether loneliness could be readily assessed in a population younger than the previous studies, to learn whether young children who are poorly accepted by their peers report elevated levels of loneliness and social dissatisfaction, to assess whether young children understood the concept of loneliness, and to examine the behavioral characteristics of lonely young children. The results indicated that nearly all children (from kindergarten and first grade) understood loneliness. It was also found that poorly accepted children were more lonely than other children. In addition, children who reported the most loneliness were found to differ from others on several behavioral dimensions. With respect to the behavioral characteristics of lonely children, Cassidy and Asher (1992) found that high-lonely children, compared to low-lonely ones, were viewed as less

prosocial, more aggressive, and more shy and more disruptive by both their teachers and peers.

Parkhurst and Asher (1992) investigated the patterns of behavioral and emotional response associated with peer rejection in early adolescence. Results indicated that most of the rejected children were aggressive or submissive, but it was the combination of aggressiveness or submissiveness with low levels of prosocial behavior that was associated with peer rejection. With regard to students' affective experiences, submissive rejected children, when compared with average-status students, were found to report higher levels of loneliness and worry about their relations with others. No significant sex and grade differences were reported.

Parker and Asher (1993) examined the distinction between friendship adjustment and acceptance by the peer group and their links with the feelings of loneliness and social dissatisfaction in middle childhood. The results revealed that children's friendship adjustment had an influence on children's feelings of loneliness above and beyond the influence of the peer group acceptance, further supporting the distinction between friendship adjustment and group acceptance. They also found that children's feelings of loneliness can arise from several sources that can seriously undermine children's feelings of well-being. Receiving poor acceptance by peers, lacking a friend, or having a friendship that fails to meet important relationship needs each contribute.

In one study by Crick and Ladd (1993) children's perceptions of their peer experiences were examined with respect to the attributions, loneliness, and social avoidance. It was found that, consistent with the previous studies, rejected children reported significantly higher levels of loneliness than their popular, neglected, controversial, and average peers.

Renshaw and Brown (1993) investigated the role of behavioral, sociometric, and attributional indices of social functioning in the development of peer related loneliness in a short-term longitudinal study. They found that withdrawn social behavior, lower peer acceptance, few or no friendships, and an internal-stable attributional style predicted higher levels of concurrent and future loneliness. Children who declined in peer acceptance, lost friends, and gained in internal-stable attributions showed gains in loneliness. Their subgroup analyses indicated that children with no friends reported more loneliness than low status children with one or more friends; and low status friendless children reported more loneliness than average and high status friendless children.

In a similar design, Rubin, Hymel, LeMare, and Rowden (1989) found non-significant status effects on loneliness and social dissatisfaction. Although non-significant, they suggested, there was a marginal trend obtained with regard to status group differences in reported loneliness. An examination of mean scores on loneliness revealed that neglected children were lonelier than the other status groups.

Brennan (1982) reported that with respect to school related loneliness, adolescents from lower socioeconomic status had higher levels of loneliness than upper and middle socioeconomic status adolescents, and the higher GPA was associated with lower loneliness levels in adolescents.

Marcoen and Brumagne (1985) investigated the differences in loneliness involving parents and peers among children and adolescents. With respect to peer-related loneliness, no sex or age differences were found. However, girls who chose both parents as their first-comfort figures were more lonely than boys who did the same, and boys who chose their fathers as their first-comfort figures reported more peer-related loneliness feelings than the girls who made this choice.

In a study, the relationship between interpersonal intimacy and measures of loneliness, social skills, and social activity in late adolescents were examined (Chelune, Sultan, and Williams, 1980). The results revealed that dispositional level of self-disclosure was inversely related to loneliness and interacted with disclosure flexibility. Appropriate medium disclosure across situations was associated with lower levels of loneliness than was inappropriate disclosure. The results suggested that lonely individuals have difficulty appropriately revealing personal information in new relationships and nonstructured social situations.

Moore and Shultz (1983) examined the adolescent loneliness in relation to personal characteristics and the strategies for reacting to, interpreting, and coping with the loneliness. They found that the feelings

of loneliness was positively related to state- and trait-anxiety, and external locus of control, depression, self-consciousness, and social anxiety, and negatively related to self-reported attractiveness, likability, happiness, and life satisfaction.. Lonely adolescents were found to be less willing to take social risks and they attribute loneliness to boredom and most often coped with loneliness by watching television and listening to music.

Willams (1983) investigated the phenomenon of loneliness in delinquent adolescents with regard to the types of delinquency offenses committed, demographic characteristics, personality characteristics in the areas of interpersonal needs of inclusion, control, and affection. While results revealed no significant differences with regard to demographic variables, there was a significant effect on loneliness by income when considered jointly with other demographic variables. It was found that adolescents from middle income group expressed more loneliness than those from upper and lower income groups. No significant differences were found with regard to personality characteristics related to interpersonal needs for inclusion and affection, but delinquent adolescents with medium to high needs for control indicated significantly more feelings of loneliness than delinquent adolescents with low needs for control.

Yarcheski and Mahon (1984) examined the differences in loneliness experience of early adolescents due to chumship relationships and altruistic behavior. The results indicated that chumship relationships had no influence on the experience of loneliness in early adolescence.

Yaparel (1984) investigated the differences in causal attributions of male and female undergraduate students who were feeling lonely and nonlonely. The results revealed that loneliness and sex variables had no significant effect on causal attributions made to social success and failure, but significant differences were found between lonely and nonlonely subjects in evaluating the kinds of causes. It was also found that while nonlonely subjects were attributing to internal causes more frequently, the lonely subjects attributed to external causes.

Bilgen (1989) explored the effects of loneliness levels, sex, department, and class levels of university students on their personal, social, and general adjustment levels. It was found that when the students' loneliness levels increase, their personal, social, and general adjustment levels decrease. No significant differences were found in terms of class level and sex of the subjects.

Demir (1990) investigated the effects of various personal, social, and familial variables on the loneliness levels of university students. The results indicated that relationship between loneliness levels and sex, academic achievement, leisure time spent by oneself, satisfaction with monthly income for social activities, number of close friends, receiving social support, desire for new social contacts, satisfaction with social skills, self-disclosure to others, satisfaction with parents and siblings, opposite and same-sex friends were significant, whereas relationship between loneliness level and number of siblings, birth order, family structure were not significant.

Yüksel (1991) studied the effects of being internally or externally controlled, physical appearance, popularity, and sex on the loneliness levels of university students. It was found that there was a significant difference between internally and externally controlled subjects and this difference was in the favor of the internally controlled ones. It was also found that there was a significant difference between loneliness levels of individuals who are satisfied and not satisfied with their physical appearance. In terms of popularity, it was suggested that there was a significant difference between popular and unpopular subjects in the favor of popular ones. The results showed that male subjects were more lonely than female subjects. With respect to settlements, no significant differences were found between the subjects.

It was suggested that the nature and the quality of parent-child relationships during childhood and adolescence may influence child's ability to establish intimate relationships with others. Thus, these relationships, rather than parent-child relationships, may become more directly associated with the feelings of loneliness. While parental influences on loneliness do not disappear, during adolescence they become secondary to those of peers. Some researchers found that among college students, the degree of satisfaction with peer relationships more strongly correlated with loneliness than satisfaction with parental or romantic relationships (Shultz and Moore, 1989).

Hojat (1982) conducted a study to investigate the loneliness as a function of parent-child and -peer relations with a group of Iranian college students. Results indicated that the subjects who reported that their

parents had not devoted enough time for them, or that their parents had never understood them, or that they had not gone to their parents for help were more likely to experience loneliness. It was also found that subjects who reported that they could not get along with and did not share their feelings with their peers in childhood were more likely to feel lonely in adulthood.

Hetch and Baum (1984) investigated the relationships between subjective experience of loneliness and patterns of attachment in young adults. Results indicated that disruptedly attached subjects were more lonely than their non-lonely counterparts

Parents, however, may continue to indirectly influence their adolescents loneliness through their influence on the quality of their child's peer relationships. Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) found evidence which suggests that the attachment between parents and their 10-16 years old children is associated with the autonomy of a child in their peer relationships. Children having close relationships with their parents manifested less conformity and greater self-reliance in their peer relationships than children not close to their parents.

Lobdell and Perlman (1986) examined the intergenerational transmission of loneliness on college female students and their families. It was found that mothers' and daughters' loneliness scores were significantly correlated, and child rearing practices, especially a lack of positive involvement of parents with their children, were associated with the loneliness of the off-springs.

Several statements in the literature emphasized the role of deficient skills in determining the psychological state of loneliness. It was found that lonely adolescents report social skills inadequacies including passivity, lack of assertiveness, greater shyness, and self-consciousness (Jones et al., 1981) and problems of inhibited sociability (Horowitz and French, 1979), negative views of self and others (Jones, Freeman, and Goswick, 1981), unresponsiveness to others in social interactions (Jones, Hobbs, and Hockenbury, 1982). Lonely students reported lower dating frequencies, more time spent alone, fewer social and extracurricular activities (Russell, Peplau, and Cutrona, 1980), and less and inappropriate modes of self-disclosure (Chelune, Sultan, and Williams, 1980).

There are also some evidences that links loneliness to personality variables. Lonely subjects were found to have lower self-esteem (Goswick and Jones, 1981; Hojat, 1982; Jones, Freemon, and Goswick, 1981; Russell et al., 1980), to be less extroverted (Hojat, 1982; Russell et al., 1980), and to be more anxious, depressed, and neurotic (Goswick and Jones, 1981; Hojat, 1982; Russell et al., 1980).

Ishiyama (1984) examined the differences between lonely and non-lonely adolescents on various aspects of shyness experience. It was found that the shy group had significantly more negative self-ratings on loneliness, interferences of shyness with academic success, and with developing friendships, shyness around the opposite sex, and the belief in the noticability of shyness reactions by others.

Bell-Dolan, Foster, and Sikora (1989) and Hayvren and Hymel (1984) examined the effects of sociometric testing on children's behavior and loneliness at the school. They similarly found that positive and negative nomination sociometric had no effect on neither children's social interactions nor their reports of negative mood states and loneliness.

2.2 Research related with the correlates of peer status

It is important to begin by explaining the fact that although considerable research exists on several correlates of peer status, these studies were primarily conducted with pre-school and elementary school children, and very little attention was given to the basis of sociometric status in the pre-, early-, and late-adolescence (Parkhurst and Asher, 1992). The little existing work on this issue is available (e.g., Gronlund and Andersen, 1957; Lesser, 1959) and these studies did not distinguish between the subgroups of unpopular children (e.g., neglected or rejected). Thus, because of this limitation in the literature concerning the correlates of sociometric status in adolescence, this section was primarily relied on the literature concerning children's sociometric status especially during middle and late childhood and preadolescence.

What determines a child's acceptance or rejection by other children? The relevant literature consists almost entirely correlational studies. The typical strategy was to administer sociometric tests concurrently with personality and intelligence tests or with ratings and rankings made by peers, teachers, or naive observers. The two sets of measures are then correlated. With respect to nonbehavioral correlates of sociometric status, researchers investigated several dimensions such as birth order, names,

physical attractiveness, intelligence and so on. In one study concerning the effects of birth order on the sociometric status, Schachter (1964) found that later-born college students were more popular than first-borns. Miller and Maruyama (1976) similarly found that youngest-born children compared to mid- or first-born children are chosen more consistently as friends, seat-mates, and playmates.

In terms of the relationship between the names and the peer status, McDavid and Harari (1966) asked children to rate the attractiveness of a large group of first names, including the names of the children themselves. Later, they obtained popularity ratings of the names and a positive relation was found between the ratings of names and the popularity of children. Ratings of these same names were made by other children and these found to be positively correlated with the popularity ratings.

With respect to the physical attractiveness, two variations were studied as predictors of social acceptance: facial attractiveness and body-build. It was found that school-age children attribute friendliness and non aggressiveness to attractive children more readily than to unattractive children, and attribute negative social behaviors more commonly to unattractive children (Adams and Crane, 1980; Dion, 1973). Langlois and Stephen (1977) found that attractive children were rated as smarter, more prosocial, and less antisocial than the unattractive children. Attractive children were considered to be better prospects as friends than unattractive children as judged by preschoolers (Dion, 1973; Langlois and Stephan, 1977), elementary school children and adolescents (Cavior and

Dokecki, 1973). Lerner and Lerner (1977) also found correlation between facial attractiveness and positive and negative peer evaluations respectively.

Bodies like faces, are socially regarded as 'desirable' or 'undesirable'. In a related study, it was discovered that the mesomorphs were most popular and endomorphs were least popular. These differences are accentuated among adolescents, especially early maturing boys. Among boys, those reaching puberty earliest are more popular and are generally more socially advanced than late maturers. Among girls, the relationship between rate of maturation and social acceptance is more complicated. It was found that, in early adolescence, late maturers are more favored both in peer acceptance and social adjustment. However, in late adolescence, the situation is reversed - early maturers are more socially advantaged (Hartup, 1983).

With respect to the handicaps, it was found that learning disabled children who have learning dysfunction, but are not otherwise classified as handicapped are usually less well accepted than their regular classmates. More revealing perhaps is a study of young elementary school children, having reading problems, and their social acceptance (McMichael, 1980). In this study it was found that poor readers were accepted less and rejected more often than good readers were. Mental handicaps were also found to be a source of lowered peer status. Handicapped children are less often named as friends than other children and their poor status remains stable even as peer group membership changes (Rowe, 1989).

Because the peers are the judges of status,. an obvious first source of information concerning the behavioral bases of those judgements is the perspective of the peer group. In many studies, peers were asked to nominate children as most exemplifying certain types of social behaviors and to relate nomination scores on these behavioral dimensions. The earliest research in which popular, rejected, and neglected groups were compared was conducted by Gronlund and Anderson (1957) with seventh and eighth graders. They found that socially accepted or popular boys and girls were described as good looking, tidy, friendly, enthusiastic, cheerful, having a sense of humor. The boys were active in games and girls were quiet. Rejected boys and girls were described as unattractive, untidy, restless, and talkative.

Lesser (1959) attempted to examine the relation between different forms of aggressive behavior and peer status. Among fifth and sixth grade white males, social preference was negatively correlated with peer nominations for indirect unprovoked physical aggression. Popularity was positively related to provoked physical aggression. It was found that peers dislike children who display unprovoked aggression and have an opposite reaction to children who appropriately stand up for themselves and do not allow themselves to be abused or dominated by others.

These studies generated a number of others on the behavioral and social characteristics that may affect acceptance and rejection in the peer group. Coie, Dodge, and Coppotelli (1982) used positive and negative nomination scores to define five different social status groups: Popular,

rejected, neglected, controversial, and average. The children were surveyed with a six item peer assessment instrument. They found that the popular group received high scores for cooperative and leadership behaviors, and low scores for starting fights, being disruptive, and asking others for help, whereas rejected children had the opposite profile: They were found to be high on starting fights, being disruptive, and asking others for help in the school, and low in cooperativeness and leadership behaviors. The controversial group were found to be equally as high on leadership scores as the popular group but were also described by peers as disruptive and aggressive as the rejected group. Their cooperativeness ratings were midway between those of popular and rejected children. Neglected children were found to have scores below the mean for all, but the shy and withdrawn item, but were not significantly different from average children in this regard. The average subjects were at the mean for all six items. These status profiles were found to hold for both boys and girls. Similarly, Carlson, Lahey, and Neeper (1984) used positive and negative nominations with elementary school children to select popular, rejected, and neglected groups in a manner similar to that of Coie et al. (1982) and contrasted these three groups on a 32-item peer assessment instrument. Their results suggested that rejected children were perceived as more aggressive, disruptive, more likely to violate rules, and more likely to be inconsiderate of other children.

French and Waas (1985) obtained teacher ratings on popular, neglected, and rejected children from second and fifth grade rural classes. They found that rejected children were rated by teachers as having more behavioral problems, particularly aggression and hostile isolation, as well

as more academic disability than either popular or neglected children. Neglected children were found to have more behavioral problems than popular children.

Kupersmidt and Coie (1990) conducted a 7 year longitudinal study to examine the comparative effectiveness of preadolescent aggressive behavior, peer rejection, and school functioning, from 5th grade on, in prediction of adolescent delinquency and school maladjustment. They found that rejected children were more likely to have a nonspecific negative outcome and more types of negative outcomes than average, popular, and neglected children. They also found that only significant predictor of the juvenile delinquency was the aggression toward peers and school absenteeism as the predictor of dropping out of school.

Wentzel (1991) examined the relationship between academic performance and three aspects of social competence including socially responsible behavior, sociometric status, and self-regulatory processes (goal-setting, interpersonal trust, and problem solving styles) in early adolescence. Results showed that social competence at school is related to classroom achievement in a way that children who are perceived as socially responsible, trust their classmates, and solve interpersonal problems in an adaptive way earn higher grades than those who do not. It was also found that it was popular and neglected children that earned higher grades than rejected and average children.

Ollendick, Weist, Borden, and Green (1992) classified a number of 4th grade students as popular, rejected, neglected, controversial, and

average by using Asher and Dodge (1986) classification system. After five years, those children were evaluated on the measures of academic performance, social behavior, and psychological adjustment. The results indicated that rejected children were perceived by their peers as less likable and more aggressive, and by their teachers as having more academic problems, aggression, and motor excess, and attentional problems than their popular counterparts. They also reported external locus of control and higher levels of conduct disturbance and substance abuse, performed less well academically, failed more grades, were more likely to drop out of school and to commit delinquent offenses than popular and average children on behavioral, academic, and social measures. Their results also revealed that controversial children were different from popular and average children on behavioral, academic, and social measures. They were similar to rejected children as being failed at least one grade and committed similar number of delinquent offenses. It was also found that neglected children reported more external locus of control and viewed by peers as less likable and more withdrawn than popular children. Teachers viewed neglected children as no more likely to fail grades, drop out of school, and commit delinquent offenses.

Recently, researchers turned their attention to the subgroups of unpopular children. In an attempt to identify the patterns of behavioral and emotional response associated with peer rejection in early adolescence, Parkhurst and Asher (1992) found that most of the rejected adolescents were aggressive and submissive, but it was the combination of aggressiveness and submissiveness with low levels of prosocial behavior that was associated with the peer rejection. Hymel, Bowker, and Woody

(1993) examined the differences among the subgroups of unpopular children namely aggressive unpopular, withdrawn-unpopular, and aggressive-withdrawn unpopular in terms of in terms of competence in multiple social and non-social domains. Results indicated that aggressive-withdrawn unpopular children being viewed as deficient virtually in every area assessed and the others viewed as exhibiting particular strengths and weaknesses across domains. All groups were found to be viewed as less athletically and socially competent, less attractive and lacking a sense of humor. Also, aggressive-withdrawn children were found to be assessed by their peers more negatively in domains such as relationships with adults, behavioral conduct, cooperativeness, and academic competence.

In only a few studies has gender been considered explicitly, making possible a clearer interpretation of the findings. Vosk, Forehand, Parker, and Rickard (1982) observed popular and rejected boys and girls in the third grade. The popular boys and girls were more frequently on task in the classroom than rejected boys and girls, suggesting that the popular children were at a higher academic level. They found that rejected children initiated negative interactions with peers more frequently than did popular children. There were no effects for gender, indicating that the behavioral correlates of status were similar for boys and girls.

In a study, Asarnow (1983) contrasted fourth and sixth grade boys into high status and low status groups. Results revealed that high status boys had higher behavior frequencies on the following variables: on task behavior, receiving and initiating positive interactions with peers, and

reciprocating positive changes. Low status boys had higher frequencies of off task behaviors, receiving and initiating both negative and neutral peer contacts, and initiating and receiving teacher instructions. Millich and Landau (1984) attributed off task behavior of rejected children as a behavioral difficulty to the attention deficits that make it difficult to stay on task or to a tendency toward withdrawn behavior that is itself a contributor to the peer rejection.

A more comprehensive multi-age, multi-method study was conducted by Coie and Dodge (1988) on first and third grade boys who were categorized by sociometric nominations into five status groups of Coie et al. (1982). Peer assessments, teacher ratings, and observations were contrasted. They found that rejected and controversial boys were more aggressive and disruptive than other status groups, and rejected boys were less prosocial. Although teachers described rejected boys as the most socially isolated group, observers did not find that to be true. Rather, observers described neglected boys as the most solitary during play times. Teachers also described rejected boys as having more academic problems, a circumstance that was mirrored in observer reports of greater off-task activity in the classroom by rejected boys.

Beginning with the child's own contribution to social rejection, there is considerable evidence to suggest that the behaviors children employ with peers play an important role in determining their social status in the peer group (Price and Dodge, 1989). Some of more convincing evidence comes from the short-term longitudinal studies of the emergence of status in small play groups (Coie and Kuppersmidt, 1983; Dodge, 1983). In a

study employing similar design, Dodge (1983) found that the boys who eventually become rejected within the peer group were those who displayed relatively high rates of rough and tumble play and unprovoked aggressive behaviors and were less likely to engage in positive or prosocial forms of behavior such as cooperative play and social conversation.

It was suggested that another important task for children to master and a natural first aspect of social interaction is the successful initiation of entry into the peer group. In a related study, Putallaz and Gottman (1981) found that when entering groups of their classmates, unpopular children were more likely than other children to disagree, ask informational questions, say something about themselves, and state their feelings and opinions. The entry bids more frequently used by unpopular children appeared to reflect a lack of awareness of the group's frame of reference. In contrast, popular children seemed to employ more effective entry strategies of attempting to determine the frame of reference common to the group members and then establishing themselves as sharing in this frame of reference.

The previous studies suggest that the locus of children's attributions (e.g., external or internal) may be an important dimension for understanding the relations among peer status, social feelings, and social attributions. The tendency to attribute hostility to peers is considered as a kind of attributional style that has been studied by researchers of sociometric status. Goetz and Dweck (1980) wondered whether the kind of attribution made by a child following social failure would have an impact

on that child's subsequent social behavior, and on that child's overall social standing. They found that children who had made a high number of self-incompetence attributions were relatively unlikely to improve their message-transmitting performance following failure. They also found that unpopular children were more likely to display this incompetence attribution orientation than popular children.

Ames, Ames, and Garrison (1977) have utilized concepts from social psychological literature on attributions for success and failure to assess the attributional styles in high- and low-status children. They asked children to attribute social successes and failures to external, internal, or neutral causes in multiple-choice format. They found that popular children were more likely than unpopular children to attribute successes to internal causes and failures to external causes.

Crick and Ladd (1993) examined the feelings and attributions of 3rd and 5th graders for social outcomes. Results indicated that children's feelings and attributions varied as a function of peer status, gender, and grade. Compared with peers, rejected children were found to be more likely to attribute relationship failures to external causes. Results also revealed that children's feelings were significantly related to their attributions about social events.

Another perspective which lies under the assumption that peer group contributes to a child's social difficulties (Hymel, Wagner, and Butler, 1990). This perspective considers the impact of social structure of children's peer groups and the operations of biases related to prior

reputation or social status. In particular, this point of view focuses on the peer group as a social system with an in-group and an out-group in which social status quo is maintained by biased peer responses to popular versus unpopular children. It is suggested that a child's social status of reputation, once established, strongly influences how peers respond to this child, because children, like adults, are inclined to maintain reputation-congruent perceptions of others.

There is also some evidence to suggest that within established peer groups, children respond differently to popular and unpopular peers. Popular children were found to receive more visual attention and social initiations from peers than do unpopular children (Vaughn and Waters, 1981). Similarly, research by Putallaz and Gottman (1981) and by Dodge, Schlund, Schocken, and Delugach (1983) suggested that peers respond more favorably to popular than unpopular children's entry overtures, even when they employ similar entry strategies. Because unpopular children are less likely than popular children to be friends with their peers (Ladd, 1983), they may be less likely to be the recipients of positive interactions.

Another significant area that influence the development of children's social competence and acceptance level among peers is the parent-child relationships. Although parental behavior and children's social behavior do appear related, there is very little research that has examined the role played by parents in the development of their children's social status. Putallaz (1987) found that children's social problem solving skills were predicted by maternal behavior as well as predictive of peer social status. This suggests that parent-child interaction influences children's peer

behavior by affecting the child's social cognitive skills. In one study, it was found that the mothers of rejected children and isolated children had significantly lower sociability scores than the mothers of the popular children (Putallaz and Heflin, 1990). The results reported by MacDonald and Parker (1984) suggested that parental involvement, warmth, and moderate control appear to be important factors in terms of children's social competence and status.

Dishion (1990) examined the relations between boys' peer relations, their antisocial behavior, academic skills deficit, and family ecology. Results revealed that rejected boys experienced poorer family management practices (i.e., monitoring and discipline practices), showed more family stress, were of lower socioeconomic status, and displayed more behavioral and academic problems than did their average peers, thus supported the hypothesis that success and failure with peers is influenced by children's interpersonal experiences within the family, primarily parent discipline practices.

Hart, Ladd, and Burleson (1990) investigated the relationship between maternal disciplinary styles, children's expectations of outcomes of social strategies, and their peer status. Results indicated that children of mothers who were more power assertive in their disciplinary styles tended to be less accepted by their peers and tended to expect successful outcomes for unfriendly-assertive methods for resolving peer conflict. In addition, children who expected unfriendly-assertive strategies to lead to self-oriented gains were less accepted by their peers.

CHAPTER III

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The phenomenon of loneliness is a commonly acknowledged distress in human experience. Generally the term loneliness tends to evoke thoughts of an elderly person, isolated and alone or someone who is cut off from the mainstream of society. However, the experience of loneliness transcends the whole spectrum of human life and felt by both young and old (Williams, 1983). Data from available literature suggests that loneliness is one of the most painful and widespread problem experienced by children and adolescents (Ostrov and Offer, 1978; Asher and Wheeler, 1985; Williams, 1983; Parkhurst and Asher, 1992).

It was suggested that adolescents are vulnerable to social loneliness due to feeling isolated and frustrated in their needs for belongingness (Williams, 1983) and they may express their feelings of loneliness through withdrawal, depression, the use of drugs, delinquency, failure in school, and even suicide (Tanner, 1973). If these behaviors are the indicators or expressions of loneliness, then this problem is extremely critical. Adolescents' problems and feelings of loneliness can not be considered apart from the influences of the social conditions. There are many factors which directly or indirectly contribute to the feelings of loneliness in

adolescence. According to Fromm (1969), adolescents perceive acceptance and belonging to a group as the marks of success. They are concerned with how others view them and take great efforts to be accepted and belong. Rejection from a group or friend may manifest itself in feelings of isolation, acts of rebellion or alienation. Then, it is not surprising that most of the children who are poorly accepted or rejected by the peer group experience feelings of loneliness, social anxiety, and distress (Asher and Wheeler, 1985; Parkhurst and Asher, 1992; Crick and Ladd, 1993)

It is evident that peers play unique roles in children's socialization by providing learning opportunities and experiences. Today, with the increase in the number of working mothers and single-parent families, children enter into organized peer groups at a relatively early age. In addition, they participate frequently in various activities such as clubs, sports, and camps. These experiences guarantee that children will spend considerable time with similar-age peers throughout childhood and adolescence (Asher, 1990).

Poor peer relationships are associated with many difficulties and constitute a potential danger in the development and healthy socialization. By studying poor peer relations, investigators may learn more about the processes that precipitate or maintain social difficulties and in turn, place children at risk for developmental deviations or other forms of maladjustment (Ladd, 1989) Studies of the contexts in which children experience social difficulties such as peer groups may help to identify factors that contribute to negative outcomes.

The experience of having difficulties in peer relationships may lead children to feel lonely, distressed, socially anxious, and to do academically poor, and therefore, drop out. Because children often study together for exams, collaborate on assignments, and informally tutor one another, children with peer relationship problems may miss important opportunities to learn school material, and may suffer academically. Furthermore, because the school is likely to be a stressful experience for the children with peer relationship problems, they may not be able to concentrate on their tasks (Wentzel, 1991). To go to the school every day without looking forward to see anyone or participating in group activities may also give sufficient cause for suffering and feeling lonely (Asher, 1990). Thus, it becomes considerably important to identify children with peer relationship problems in order to help them gain necessary skills, belong to a group, and therefore, to prevent the potential risks of loneliness.

Studying children who have problems in their relationships with peers and comparing them with the children who demonstrate no problems in this area can provide unique opportunities for determining the significant behavioral, emotional, and social-cognitive aspects in their development, because it is known that children from different peer status groups demonstrate significantly different profiles in terms of all developmental domains.

There are also several reasons for learning whether poorly accepted children are dissatisfied or feel lonely with their peer relationships. As

Asher and Wheeler (1985) suggested, assessment of children's own feelings about their relationships with peers would be beneficial in identifying children for the intervention programs. Data on children's perspectives would be useful in evaluating whether intervention strategies would decrease children's feelings of loneliness and social dissatisfaction. Similarly, Crick and Ladd (1993) emphasized that information about children's own perspectives may provide researchers or clinicians with clues as to which children will be most likely to benefit from the intervention. Children who are unhappy with their social situation are likely to be more motivated than their peers to learn new skills that may improve their relationships. In addition, information about children's feelings related to their social experiences can enhance the understanding of the processes underlying their social problems. Feelings of loneliness can be considered as an important indicator of children's perceptions of distress and dissatisfaction within the peer group and these feelings can directly or indirectly contribute to children's inability to interact effectively in social situations.

It is natural that children may have difficulty in admitting their actual feelings of loneliness verbally because of several reasons. Thus, as a self-reported questionnaire, utilization of the Loneliness and Social Dissatisfaction Scale would make it easy to obtain information about children's feelings about their social experiences at the school context.

The present study appears to be the first one to consider the feelings of loneliness in secondary school students as a function of peer relations. It is hoped that the findings of this study can help school counselors,

parents, and teachers work cooperatively and share their observations closely to identify children having peer relationship problems and feelings of loneliness in order to help these children effectively.

It seems important to consider the fact that since the children are the future, studying the effects of sociometric status on students' affective experiences such as feelings of loneliness and social dissatisfaction can lead researchers to develop sound intervention strategies to help the children with problematic peer relationships gain the skills necessary for satisfactory social relations and also cope with these feelings effectively. Thus, it can be possible, even if it is indirectly, to contribute to the formation of a healthier generation by eliminating potential risks for the occurrence of later maladjustment problems that these children may face as a result of peer relationship problems.

It is also expected that the present study would provide a first step for the further research by providing a base in examining the feelings of loneliness and social dissatisfaction in pre- and early-adolescents.

CHAPTER IV

METHOD

4.1 Subjects

The subjects of the present study were 370 secondary school students from 6,7, and 8th grades of the three schools which were considered to have the distinctive characteristics of three socioeconomic status groups in Ankara (TED from upper SES as a private school, Ayvalı İlköğretim Okulu from lower SES as a public school located one of the rural parts of Ankara, and Cumhuriyet Lisesi from middle SES as a public high school. Subjects were consisted of 186 girls and 184 boys. In selecting the sample, 3 classes from each school were chosen randomly and the students who were enrolled in these classes served as the subjects.

4.2 Instrumentation

In the present study the data were gathered by administering the Turkish form of Loneliness and Social Dissatisfaction Scale (Asher and

Wheeler, 1985) and an alternative sociometric classification system proposed by Asher and Dodge (1986) which requires the use of a rating scale and positive nomination measure jointly without administering a negative nomination measure. Information such as sex and grade were obtained from the students during the administration and students' academic achievement scores were obtained from the school counselor and guidance practitioners as the cumulative GPA score. Translation, reliability and validity studies were carried out by the researcher.

4.2.1 The Loneliness and Social Dissatisfaction Scale

The Loneliness and Social Dissatisfaction Scale (LSDS) which was originally developed by Asher et al. (1984) and later on modified by Asher and Wheeler (1985) to give a clear school focus is consisted of 24 items. The primary 16 items centering on the feelings of loneliness and social dissatisfaction and 8 filler items that ask about the hobbies and interests of the children. The primary 16 items include four different kinds of items which assess;

- (a) Children's feelings of loneliness, (e.g., "I am lonely at school"),
- (b) Children's appraisal of their current peer relationships, (e.g., "I don't have any friends in the class"),
- (c) Children's perceptions of the degree to which provisions for important relationships are being met, (e.g., "There's nobody I can go to when I need help at school"),
- (d) Children's perceptions of their social competence, (e.g. "I'm good at working with other children in my class").

In the original scale children respond to each of 24 items by indicating the degree to which each item was a true description of themselves; always true, true most of the time, true sometimes, hardly ever true, and not true at all. The weight between each answer changes between 1 and 5 and 10 items were reversed in the scoring. The lowest and highest loneliness scores range between 16-80 with a higher score indicating higher level of loneliness.

The original scale was found to be internally consistent (Cronbach's Alpha=.90) and internally reliable (Split-Half Correlation Between Forms=.83; Spearman-Brown Reliability Coefficient=.91; Guttman Split-Half Reliability Coefficient=.91) (Asher and Wheeler, 1985).

In order to use the LSDS in the present study, the permission was obtained from the first author (Asher and Wheeler, 1985). After the permission was obtained, the LSDS was translated to Turkish by four teachers who are competent in using both written and spoken English. The translated forms were reviewed and compared to one another in terms of the content and the clarity of the items until one copy of the Turkish form was acquired.

Turkish form of the scale was translated to English by the back-translation method and these forms were compared with one another. Translated English form of the scale was compared with the original LSDS. It was found that no additional alterations were required. Turkish

form was also controlled by Turkish Literature teachers to find out whether or not the grammatical structures of the items are appropriate.

After Turkish form was completed, a pilot study was conducted with 51 students (27 girls and 24 boys) attending the 8th grade of Ayvalı İlköğretim Okulu. LSDS was administered twice within a two months interval to the same group of students and test-retest reliability and internal consistency of the scale was measured.

Test-retest reliability was found to be .92, while the internal consistency was found to be .89.

In order for the validity measures of LSDS, the class teacher was given a list of students and asked to identify the students whom she thought as lonely students with respect to their peer relations. The correlation between teacher's reports and LSDS scores was found to be .85. It was found that students who are identified as being lonely by their teachers were satisfactorily identified in the administrations of LSDS as well.

4.2.2 Sociometric Measures

In order to identify different sociometric status groups, an alternative sociometric classification system which was proposed by Asher and Dodge (1986) involving the use of a rating scale and positive nomination measure jointly without administering a negative nomination measure

was utilized. The classification was made on the basis of Coie et al.'s (1982) standard score approach.

Originally, in the rating scale, students are given a typed list of classmates and asked to rate each classmate on a 5-point scale according to a criteria such as how much they like to play with each classmate (1 is indicating 'I don't like to', 5 is indicating "I like to a lot"). In the positive nomination measure, students are again given a typed list of classmates and asked to circle the names of three classmates they liked most.

According to the alternative sociometric classification system, the number of the lowest play rating (LPR) scores obtained from the rating scale is treated as the substitute for the number of negative nominations (disliking score) as if the student received from the traditional negative nomination measure. Thus, it becomes possible to classify students by using a method similar to that used by Coie et al. (1982).

In this method, the frequencies of positive nominations are computed and transformed into standardized liking (L) score. For the rating scale, a student's score is first computed as the average rating received from peers and the lowest play rating (LPR) which is computed as the frequencies of 1 ratings on the rating scale are considered as the disliking score (D), as the substitute for the negative nomination score, and transformed into standardized (D) score.

By the use of L and D scores, the other two dimensions are determined which were previously proposed by Peery (1979) to assess the differences in social standing. These are the social preference (SP) and social impact (SI) scores. Social preference is the relative extent to which the children are liked by their peers as determined by subtracting disliking nominations from the liking nominations. Social impact is the relative degree to which the students are visible within their peer group as determined by adding their liking and disliking nominations. As a result, children are classified as falling into one of the four categories in terms of peer status. The classification is as follows;

(a) Popular, consisting of all children who received an SP score greater than 1.0, an L score greater than 0, and a D score less than 0;

(b) Rejected, consisting of all children who received an SP score less than -1.0, an L score less than 0, and a D score greater than 0;

(c) Neglected, consisting of all children who received an SI score less than -1.0, an L score less than 0, and a D score less than 0;

(d) Controversial, consisting of all children who received an SI score greater than 1.0, an L score greater than 0, and a D score greater than 0;

(e) Average, consisting of all remaining children.

Alternative classification system was found to be positively correlated with the traditional classification system using negative nomination measure in terms of the disliking (D) and lowest play rating (LPR) scores (Pearson $r=.80$, $p<.001$) (Asher and Dodge, 1986)

Alternative Sociometric Classification System was tested twice in the pilot study for the purpose of obtaining reliability and validity evidence. In the pilot study which was carried out with the 8th graders in Ayvalı İlköğretim Okulu, students were given a typed list of their classmates and asked to rate each classmate on a 5-point scale by indicating a number from 1 to 5 (1 means "I don't like to" and 5 means "I do like to a lot") next to each classmates' name to show that how much they like to be with each classmate and circle the names of three classmates they liked most. Classification was made according to the system which was used by Asher and Dodge (1986) except that instead of lowest play rating criteria, lowest being with rating criteria was used. Lowest being with scores obtained from the rating scale were treated as the substitute of the negative nomination and constituted the disliking (D) scores. On the other hand, the frequencies of positive nomination scores constituted the liking (L) scores.

The (L) and (D) scores were computed and transformed into standardized (L) and (D) scores. By using these standard scores, social preference (L minus D scores) and social impact (L plus D scores) scores were obtained. Classification was made on the basis of Coie et al.'s (1982) methodology, except that average status was not included in the present study.

The results obtained from the pilot study showed that while the internal consistency was found to be 81, the test-retest reliability was .74. Alternative sociometric classification system satisfactorily identified students as falling into one of the four categories.

For the purpose of obtaining the validity evidence for the alternative classification system, the class teacher was given a list of students and asked to rate and identify all of the students as falling into one of the five categories. Each category and the characteristics of the children who occupy these categories were explained to the class teacher. It was found that the correlation coefficient between teacher's ratings and classmates' ratings was .73.

4.3 Procedure

Loneliness and Social Dissatisfaction Scale and the sociometric measures were distributed to the students in each of the 9 different classes from 6th, 7th, and 8th grades in Ayvalı İlköğretim Okulu, TED, and Cumhuriyet Lisesi by the permission obtained from the school principals. Members of three classes from each school participated in the present study.

The purpose of the study, details about the completion of both measures and importance of giving sincere answers were explained. The application of both measures took approximately one class hour in each class.

Data collection was conducted during the spring semester of 1994.

4.4 Data Analyses

In the present study, sociometric data were treated on the basis of the standard score approach. The means and standard deviations of the scores obtained from each classmates were calculated and transformed into standardized z-scores, and peer status groups were classified into four groups accordingly, as it was utilized in Coie et al.'s (1982) methodology, except average status group.

The scores obtained from the Loneliness and Social Dissatisfaction Scale were calculated. Means and standard deviations of each variable were calculated. The effects of such variables as sociometric status, sex, grade, and school type on the loneliness levels of students and of the academic achievement on the sociometric status were analyzed by making use of one-way analysis of variance. In addition, correlational analysis was conducted in order to determine whether or not any relation exists between students' loneliness and their academic achievement.

SPSS Package Program was used to analyze the data.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

In this chapter, results of the analyses concerning the relationships of sociometric status, sex, academic achievement, school type, and grade levels with loneliness were presented.

5.1 Sociometric Status and Loneliness

Sociometric status groups were classified into four groups namely popular, rejected, neglected, and controversial by a method similar to that of Coie et al. (1982). Among the subjects, 94 was popular, 146 was rejected, 68 was neglected, and 61 was controversial. The means and standard deviations of the loneliness scores by the status groups were shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Means and standard deviations of the loneliness scores by sociometric status

Sociometric Status	x	sd	n
Popular	25.11	5.50	94
Rejected	33.71	10.96	147
Neglected	26.14	5.91	68
Controversial	29.50	8.34	61
Total	29.44	9.32	370

Table 5.1 indicates that there are considerable differences in the loneliness levels of the sociometric status groups. It is seen that while the rejected group scored the highest on the loneliness scale, popular group scored the least. In order to determine whether or not these differences are significant, one-way analysis of variance was utilized. Table 5.2 indicates the results of this analysis.

Table 5.2 One-way analysis of variance concerning the effects of sociometric status on loneliness levels.

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Between Groups	3	5176.39	1723.79	23.47*
Within Groups	366	26873.90	73.42	
Total	369	32045.31		

* $p < 0.05$

Table 5.2 indicates that the differences among the groups are significant at .05 level, suggesting that the sociometric status has a

significant effect on the loneliness levels of students. In order to determine among which groups these differences are significant, Turkey-test was employed. Results showed that while the rejected group was significantly different from the other three groups namely popular, neglected, and controversial, controversial group was significantly different from the popular group with respect to their loneliness levels.

No significant differences was found between popular and neglected groups.

5.2 Sex and Loneliness

Sex was taken as a variable to control the homogeneity of the gender groups with respect to the loneliness levels. A number of 186 male and 184 female subjects were participated in the present study. The means and standard deviations of the loneliness scores of male and female students were shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Means and standard deviations of the loneliness scores by sex.

Sex	x	sd	n
Male	29.51	8.25	186
Female	29.36	10.30	184
Total	29.44	9.31	370

Table 5.3 shows that mean scores of male and female subjects on the loneliness scale are close to one another. In order to determine whether or not any significant difference exists between the mean scores of male and female students on the loneliness scale, one-way analysis of variance was employed. The results of this analysis were shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 One- way analysis of variance concerning the effects of sex on loneliness levels.

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	1	1.99	1.99	.02	.880
Within Groups	368	32043.32	87.07		
Total	369	32045.31			

The results of one-way analysis of variance in Table 5.4 concerning the effects of sex on loneliness levels show that there is not any significant sex differences with respect to the loneliness levels of students at .05 level. This result suggests that sex has no significant effects on loneliness levels of secondary school students.

5.3 Academic Achievement and Loneliness

In order to examine whether or not any relationship exists between loneliness and academic achievement scores of the students, a correlational analysis was undertaken. Results revealed that the correlation between loneliness and academic achievement scores was $r =$

-0.31 (p = .05) which indicated that there was a significant, but negative relationship between loneliness and academic achievement.

5.4 School Type and Loneliness

School type was taken as a control variable to determine the effects of socioeconomic status of the school attended on the loneliness levels of the secondary school students. For this reason, schools included in the present study were selected on the basis of this issue. Among 370 subjects, 78 were from T.E.D as a high SES school, 155 were from A.İ.Ö.O. as a low SES school, and 137 were from C.L. as a middle SES school. Table 5.5 shows the means and standard deviations of the loneliness scores by the school type.

Table 5.5 Means and standard deviations of the loneliness scores by school type.

School Type	x	sd	n
T.E.D.	29.79	9.69	78
A.İ.Ö.O.	31.53	9.15	155
C.L.	26.87	8.70	137
Total	29.44	9.31	370

Results in Table 5.5 indicates that the mean loneliness score of A.İ.Ö.O. is greater than the other groups. In order to determine whether or not this difference is significant, one-way analysis of variance was employed. The results of this analysis is shown in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 One-way analysis of variance concerning the effects of school type on loneliness levels.

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Between Groups	2	1591.14	795.57	9.59*
Within Groups	367	30454.16	82.98	
Total	369	32045.31		

* $p < 0.05$

Results obtained from the one-way analysis of variance showed significant differences between the schools with respect to students' loneliness levels at .05 level. In order to determine whether or not these differences are significant, tukey test was employed. It was found that the students from Ayvalı İlköğretim Okulu reported significantly higher levels of loneliness than the other schools' students.

No significant differences were found between the students from TED and Cumhuriyet Lisesi.

5.5 Grade Levels and Loneliness

Grade was taken as a control variable to determine the homogeneity of the groups participated to the present study. The number of students on the basis of their grade levels was 134 from 6th grade, 139 from 7th grade, and 97 from 8th grade. Means and standard deviations of loneliness scores by grade level are shown in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7 Means and standard deviations of the loneliness scores by grade levels .

Grade Level	x	sd	n
6th grade	29.37	9.95	134
7th grade	29.67	9.35	139
8th grade	29.23	8.42	97
Total	29.44	9.31	370

Results shown in Table 5.7 indicates that the mean scores of loneliness levels are close to one another on the basis of grade level. In order to determine whether or not any significant differences exists between three grade levels, one-way analysis of variance was employed. The results of this analysis is shown in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 One-way analysis of variance concerning the effects of grade levels on loneliness.

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	12.44	6.22	.07	.9312
Within Groups	367	32032.87	87.28		
Total	369	32045.31			

Results shown in Table 5.8 indicates that three grade levels did not differ to the degree they experience loneliness, suggesting that there is no significant grade effects on loneliness levels of students at .05 level.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, results of the present study were discussed by considering the findings of the previous studies in the literature.

6.1 Sociometric Status and Loneliness

The result of the present study concerning the relationship of sociometric status with loneliness levels of the students indicated that sociometric status has significant effects on the reported loneliness levels of the students that the rejected group was significantly scored higher than did the other status groups namely popular, neglected, and controversial. This finding seems to be consistent with the findings of the previous studies (Asher and Wheeler, 1985; Cassidy and Asher, 1992; Parkhurst and Asher, 1992; Crick and Ladd, 1993; Renshaw and Brown, 1993) in which their results consistently revealed significantly higher loneliness levels among the rejected group than the other sociometric status groups.

The finding that the rejected group was more lonely and dissatisfied in their peer relationships would not be surprising, because it is evident that the rejected children live in a social environment in which most of their peers dislike them. As Crick and Ladd (1993) suggested, since the peer rejection is often an overt phenomenon (i.e., ridicule and rejecting behaviors tend to be expressed openly within the peer group), rejected children may become keenly aware of their peers' negative sentiments toward them and feel dissatisfied about their relative lack of positive relationships. Moreover, this potential awareness, together with the fact that rejected status is a relatively stable condition in the peer groups (Coie and Dodge, 1983) may cause children to anticipate similar treatment from the peers in the future. Thus, it is inevitable to expect that the rejected children tend to feel more lonely and dissatisfied than do the other groups.

On the other hand, this finding is not consistent with Rubin et al.'s study (1989) in which they did not find any significant status effect on the loneliness and social dissatisfaction. Their findings revealed that the neglected children reported the greatest level of loneliness among popular, rejected and average groups. Although Rubin et al. (1989) did not express any reason to explain this issue, this discrepancy may be attributed to Rubin et al.'s sample size that was a relatively smaller one (N=81). It is evident that research with larger numbers of subjects revealed significantly more loneliness among the rejected children.

Another finding of the present study regarding the effects of sociometric status on loneliness and social dissatisfaction was that the

controversial adolescents were significantly higher than the popular group on loneliness measure. However, there is not any study to support this finding. In contrast, several studies suggested that controversial children were no more lonely or dissatisfied with their peer relations than the other groups (Asher and Wheeler, 1985; Cassidy and Asher, 1992; Crick and Ladd, 1993).

However, some comments can be made upon this issue. Controversial children are characterized by receiving many negative as well as the positive nominations from their peers. This means that they are actively disliked by some peers, while liked by the others. When the behavioral characteristics of this group are taken into account, it seems that they represent a combination of the correlates found in both popular and rejected children (Newcomb, Bukowski, and Pattee, 1993). On one hand, because of their disruptive behaviors, they may be expected to be rejected by their peers, on the other hand, they have other qualities that buffer them from peer rejection and social exclusion. Due to this discrepancy, controversial children may be expected to feel more lonely than the popular group, especially if the group which likes them is not their reference group.

The last finding concerning the effects of sociometric status on loneliness was that there was not any significant differences between popular and neglected groups. This finding was consistent with the previous ones that showed that neglected groups' reports of loneliness were not significantly greater than the popular or average status groups (Asher, Parkhurst, Hymel, and Williams, 1990). Coie and Dodge (1983)

and Coie and Kupersmidt (1983) found that the children who were neglected by their peers at one time or in one context are not commonly neglected at other times or in other contexts. Although they receive a few best friend nominations, they are as well liked by their peers. Unlike rejected children, neglected group tended to be nominated at least by one peer. This finding can be attributed to the fact that neglected group may be satisfied with their less prominent position in the peer group or may be less interested in forming extensive social ties. They may also have friends in other classes or schools that function as emotional buffers for them. It is also possible for neglected children to be unaware of their neglect in the peer group. Although this group is not visible within the classroom, they are not disliked and thus, do not seem to experience much dissatisfaction concerning their peer relationships at the school. As Rubin, LeMare, and Lollis (1990) argued, neglected children are not necessarily the ones for whom peers indicate a lack of acceptance. Instead, they do not meet the nomination criteria and these are the children about whom peers do not provide information.

6.2 Sex and Loneliness

The result of the present study concerning the effects of sex on loneliness levels of the students indicated no significant sex effects. This finding seems to be consistent with many studies related to loneliness in children and adolescents (Asher and Wheeler; 1985; Parkhurst and Asher, 1992; Cassidy and Asher, 1992; Renshaw and Brown, 1993). It was suggested that although the amount of loneliness experienced by

children and adolescents is not necessarily associated with any one demographic characteristic such as sex, age, race, or religion, a combination of such factors may be associated with loneliness (Williams, 1983),

In interpreting this finding, developmental period may be cited as an important factor, because several studies concerning the loneliness among late adolescents and young adults consistently revealed significant sex effects (Jones, Freemon, and Goswick, 1981; Wheeler, Reis, and Nezelek, 1983; Demir, 1990; Yüksel, 1991) in favor of the female subjects. The authors cited several reasons to explain this difference, including social role differences between genders, traditional expectations of the society, and qualitative features of social relationships, such as self-disclosure. However, the case seems to be different for secondary school students.

It is important to note that the focus of the present study was primarily on the loneliness as a function of the peer relations in the school context. Although the characteristics unique to each gender and their social roles remains as an important factor for the affective experiences, it is likely that both groups are equally susceptible to the peer influences, and thus, eventually to the feelings of loneliness.

6.3 Academic Achievement and Loneliness

The finding concerning the relationships between loneliness and academic achievement indicated a negative, but significant correlation. As

Brennan (1984) reported the lower GPA is associated with higher level of loneliness, while the higher GPA with lower level of loneliness. Present study supports Brennan's reports in a way that the less the loneliness, the more the academic achievement gets.

This finding may be discussed in relation to the social skills deficit which was found to be related to loneliness (Jones, 1982; Jones, Freemon, and Goswick, 1981; Russel et al., 1984; Jones, Hobbs, and Hockenberry, 1982; Chelune et al., 1980). Because of their social skills deficit, lonely children may have difficulty in forming and maintaining satisfactory relationships, thus eventually may miss the opportunities in which mutual learning is available. As a result, they may not be able to model the necessary academic skills and practice them in a desirable fashion.

Also, the lonely students may have difficulty in requesting information and various resources such as books and notes from their teachers and peers as well. Perhaps the most important reason, these children may be so preoccupied with their feelings of loneliness that they may not be concentrate on their tasks in academic domains, and this may hinder their overall academic performance.

6.4 School Type and Loneliness

School type was taken as a variable to control implicitly the effects of SES on loneliness levels of students by considering the fact that the school attended generally represents the family's SES level. Thus,

schools were selected on the basis of this criteria, as having distinctive characteristics of three SES groups namely upper, middle, and lower. The result of the present study concerning the effects of school type revealed that the students of the schools from lower SES were more lonely than the students of the schools from middle and upper SES.

This finding in a way supported the Brennan's (1984) argument that the children from lower class are more likely to feel lonely in the school environment. However, it was not consistent with the results obtained in William's study (1983) suggesting that adolescents from middle SES was more lonely than the other SES groups.

This finding can be attributed to the fact that lower SES family system is a relatively closed one in which children are given responsibilities of several duties such as taking care of the siblings, doing house works, and for some, even working outside to support the family budget at an early time than upper and middle SES children. Because of these responsibilities, children are treated as an adult by the family members. Thus, for these children, peer group at the school may not be a major point of reference at the beginning, but they may come to a point of rejection because of their adult-like behaviors, and eventually feel lonely. In addition, it is clear that lower SES family often has a limited budget that does not allow extras such as child's participation in a school activity which requires an amount to be paid. Such an inaccessibility may lead the child to feel quite vulnerable, because of the importance given to the self-representation activities during this developmental period. For this SES group, opportunities for participation in the peer group activities outside

school is also limited. Therefore, it may be possible for the child to become estranged toward the peer group, since sharing the mutual experiences may be limited.

Some of these factors mentioned above may be valid for the schools as well. In this case, the school with limited opportunities may not provide necessary media for its students to participate in, besides the classroom experiences, which in turn may hinder the development of certain skills and make it difficult for the students to share their common experiences.

6.5 Grade Levels and Loneliness

The result of the present study concerning the effects of grade level on loneliness revealed no significant differences. Since the studies directly examining the differences among the grade levels are not available, discussion of this finding becomes relatively limited.

Parkhurst and Asher (1992) and Cassidy and Asher (1992), however, noted that secondary school children reported significantly higher levels of loneliness than elementary school children, and suggested that the adolescents were more lonely than most of the other age groups.

However, in the present study, subjects were all from a more homogenous group, all of whom were secondary school students. Because the age range so close to one another, it may be possible for

each grade to be equally susceptible to the feelings of loneliness as a function of their peer relationships.



CHAPTER VII

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Research concerning the children with peer relationships problem at school context is growing rapidly. There is now enough evidence to suggest that poor peer relationships are predictive of serious adjustment problems later in life (Parker and Asher, 1987). Most of the studies dealing with the problematic peer relationships and their effects on children's affective experiences were primarily focused on a population composed of preschool and elementary school children and there was not much interest in the adolescents' loneliness, especially during secondary school years.

Recently, researchers recognized this lack of interest and initiated to take efforts to close this gap by examining adolescents' affective experiences in both group and dyadic relationships (e.g. Parkhurst and Asher, 1992), suggesting that it is a critical developmental period for examining these affective experiences of children.

In this respect, present study contributes to the existing literature by providing additional evidence to support the fact that adolescents with peer relationship problems, especially those who are actively disliked by

their peers, experience greater loneliness than any other group, supporting the previous research conducted with the preschool and elementary school children. Present study also provides a first-step for further research in Turkey, by initiating the efforts to understand how adolescents would be vulnerable to the feelings of loneliness as a result of their social standing within the peer group.

It is not surprising that the adolescents may have difficulty in admitting their feeling of loneliness. In several ways, it is not a desirable feeling (France et al., 1984). Because of this difficulty, self-reported measures may be more useful devices in identifying the lonely adolescents, instead of solely relying on the external sources of information such as peers, teachers, and observers. Information obtained from the adolescents' own self-assessments about their feelings of loneliness concerning their social relationships may be more reliable than any other source. Based on this idea, present study also provides an opportunity to obtain information about adolescents' feelings of loneliness from their own perspective by presenting a self-reported questionnaire focusing primarily on the school context. Because of its focus, school counselors can easily use this questionnaire to identify the lonely adolescents and make use of sound intervention strategies to help these adolescents accordingly. Identification of the children and adolescents from different sociometric status groups may offer an important opportunity for counselors and other professionals who are interested in peer relationships area in investigating the individual differences with respect to behavioral and emotional processes.

Results of the present study provides additional evidence concerning the value of distinguishing between sociometric status groups in order to identify children at risk in their peer relationships. This distinction is critical in several aspects. For example, children from different sociometric status groups show distinct behavioral characteristics (Coie, Dodge, and Coppotelli, 1982; Coie and Kupersmidt, 1983; Dodge, 1983); stability of the status differs across the status groups (Coie and Dodge, 1983; Coie and Kupersmidt, 1983; Newcomb and Bukowski, 1984); demonstrate feelings of loneliness and social dissatisfaction and social anxiety (Asher and Wheeler, 1985; Parkhurst and Asher, 1992; Cassidy and Asher, 1992; Crick and Ladd, 1993); especially the rejected group appears to experience excessive academic problems at school (Ollendick et al.; 1992) as well as the serious adjustment problems later in life (Cowen, Pederson, Babigian, Izzo, and Trust, 1973; Parker and Asher, 1987).

In the light of the results obtained from the present study, it must be kept in mind that feelings of loneliness experienced by children and adolescents as a function of their peer relationships may be a more widespread and severe problem than it is expected and a considerable attention must be given to this issue by considering the importance of adolescence as a critical period.

As a transitional period from preadolescence to early adolescence, secondary school years can be conceptualized as having many changes at many different levels including changes due to pubertal development, social role definition, cognitive development, school transitions, and the

emergence of sexuality. The nature and pace of these changes make children more vulnerable to the outside influences more than any other developmental period makes (Eccles, Mindgley, Wigfield, Burchanan, Reuman, Flanagan, and Iver, 1993). It is possible to describe this period as a time of potential risks. Although many adolescents pass through this developmental period without excessively high levels of storm and stress, some experience difficulties during this period.

The degree to which children adapt to these changes and become comfortable and successful in their environment is partly dependent on the degree of support they receive from their parents, peers, and teachers (Ladd, 1990). Among these potential sources of support, children's relation with peers may be the most important one. Especially during this period, children place greater importance on their peer relationships. They are extremely concerned with how they are perceived by others and become more susceptible to peer influence. By considering the importance of this developmental period, some recommendations may be directed to the parents, teachers, school counselors, and administrators as well as the candidates for further research about this issue.

It's a fact that parents may directly or indirectly influence the incidence of loneliness through supporting or hindering their adolescents' relationships with peers (Rook, 1984). Most of the parents may be ambivalent about their children's' relationships with peers and they may become critical of the peers around their children without considering the effects of their critics on their children. During this period, there is a visible transformation in children's relationships with parents and parents may

miss that point. Parents should be aware of the fact that this period is a time in which there is an increasing need to restructure their relationships with their adolescents. They should understand the needs of their children to establish relations with co-equals. In addition, obstacles to social participation may make adolescents vulnerable to the feelings of loneliness. Some parents may not allow their children to participate in the activities of peers because of several reasons, thus may make their adolescents estranged from the peer group and experience relationship difficulties. Instead of doing so, parents should provide opportunities for their children to participate in the activities so that they could feel to be the part of a group and develop necessary social skills.

Most of the parents tend to solely follow their adolescents' academic performances at the school. It is clear that the school are the most basic learning environments, but it should be kept in mind that they are also most pervasive socialization agents (Ladd, 1990). The schools are not the places solely for learning the subject matters for basic courses, but also an important arena in which social skills are learned and practiced through interactions with peers and teachers. In these respects, parents should be aware of the importance of the schools as the socialization contexts and closely cooperate with the teachers and school counselors to learn about their children's position in the peer group and whether or not they form healthy relationships with their peers.

Teachers as well as the peers are one of the most basic sources of information about children's performance within the peer group, because they spend most of their times in the classes and thus have the opportunity to observe the classroom environment. However, whatever

the underlying reason is, they tend to share their experiences about the students with other teachers at the school. By doing so, they influence one another about a particular child's behavior or performance and this results in a biased perspective and eventually labeling. In this respect, teachers must be careful in their observations and avoid labeling the children because of their weaknesses or deficiencies in academic as well as in the peer relations area. They should learn the importance of confidentiality within the classroom in its own rights, and thus protect children from potential harmful biases.

It is evident that teachers still tend to divide classrooms into the groups of 'achievers' and 'underachievers'. They may explain that, by this way, they can motivate the underachievers, but without considering its harmful effects. On the other hand, they may reinforce the way children behave and feel by doing so or may affect the children's self-perceptions about their social as well as the academic performance. Teachers may also affect other children's perceptions about these children. Generally, children's behaviors toward a particular child mirrors the teacher's behavior toward that child (Matter and Matter, 1985). For this reason, teachers must be careful in their evaluations and should consultate with the school counselor about the possible effects of a particular teaching strategy or motivating activities.

As Matter and Matter (1985) stated, teachers may also structure classrooms in such a way that the social life of the students is enhanced to include the poorly accepted ones. By this way, they may encourage and design opportunities for students' interactions with peers and promote

friendships. Although the class size and organization are important factors in structuring such a classroom, teachers may, at least, be respectful and considerate to the interactions among the classmates.

Counselors as well as the teachers should be alert in identifying the lonely and poorly accepted students. Both of these dimensions, loneliness and poor social acceptance, may be recognized easily by unbiased observations and close cooperation with the teachers. Counselors should be aware of the fact that most adolescents may offer some insights about their experiences of loneliness through expressions such as songs, poems, and drawings that correspond to their personal reactions (France et al., 1984). On the other hand, few of them may actually admit their personal feelings of loneliness. With this idea in mind, counselors may inform teachers and parents about the possible cues of the feelings of loneliness in identifying these children. Counselors should also be aware of the relationships of depression, suicide, mental or physical illness, alcoholism or drug abuse, and be prepared to intervene if the child seems to be at risk.

Beginning with the importance of the family in the socialization process, counselors may need to learn about the home environment in the search for the underlying reasons of poor social acceptance and subsequent feelings of loneliness. They may contact with the parents and gain information about the family environment and dynamics, where necessary, they may also design several strategies which directly contribute to the children's emotional well-being. These strategies may involve organizing meetings focusing on healthy child-rearing practices,

importance of the social skill development in children, and unique characteristics of this developmental period on informational, educational, and even therapeutic levels. It should be kept in mind that without the help given by the school administrators, such organizations may not be easy to conduct. In this respect, the school administrators also have an important responsibility to provide necessary assistance and media for the school counselors to organize such activities.

In order to help the lonely students, school counselors may design intervention strategies by considering the unique needs of these students. Based on the needs assessment, counselors may help students to develop the skills necessary for establishing satisfactory relationships with others, help them to identify new opportunities for social contacts, and prevent loneliness from leading to more serious problems such as suicide, drug use, and alcoholism.

In helping students to identify new opportunities for establishing social contacts, counselors may cooperate with the school administrators and they may organize some age-appropriate extracurricular activities such as theatrical and musical performances, board games and sports competitions, and so on, based on the needs of the students, to help them share their interests with other peers and learn about themselves in different circumstances. The amount of time spent with other class members in the extracurricular activities may foster the development of positive relationships, because students may find opportunities to find out one another's strengths outside the classroom environment. In a school

with so many opportunities which respond to everyone's interests, potential risks for feelings of loneliness would be greatly eliminated.

In the light of the results obtained from the present study and the available literature, it seems that many important points remain to be understood. It is clear that there are great individual differences in terms of behavioral and social-cognitive processes. Children from different peer status groups exhibit significantly different profiles. Further research may focus on the behavioral differences among status groups and define the subgroup differences that may be conducive to the poor acceptance and feelings of loneliness as well. Another important point is the examination of the attributional styles of both poorly accepted and lonely students. A focus on attributional biases may provide valuable cues to explain the differences in loneliness experienced by children. In this way, the role of the behavioral, social and attributional indices of social functioning in the development of peer-related loneliness may be understood deeply. It is also important to examine the degree and duration of loneliness experienced by different subgroups of poorly accepted children. Both of the dimensions, the degree and duration of loneliness, may be crucial points in understanding the loneliness.

Studies investigating loneliness in children as well as the adolescents are also needed in order to better define how widespread the problem is and how it can be dealt with. Studies should also be conducted to develop effective intervention strategies to help both poorly accepted and lonely students at the school context.

In terms of sociometric status, longitudinal studies may be conducted in order to determine the stability of the status and its long-term effects on individuals' adjustment. This may be also helpful in identifying the at risk population for later life problems.

Further research may also investigate the feelings of loneliness in children and adolescents as a function of both parent-child and peer relationships.



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SOSYAL DOYUM ÖLÇEĞİ YÖNERGESİ

Sevgili Çocuklar,

Bugün yapacağımız şey, hoşlandığınız faaliyetler ve bazı açılardan okul hayatının size neler hissettirdiğine ilişkin bir ölçeğin uygulanmasıdır. Başlamadan önce, size yanıtlarınızı nasıl işaretleyeceğinizi göstereceğim. Öncelikle, size dağıttığım kağıtların sol üst köşesine adınızı ve soyadınızı, cinsiyetinizi belirtmek için de kızlar K, erkekler E harflerini parantez içinde yazın. Şimdi örneklerimize bakalım.

Örnek 1. Basketbol oynamaktan hoşlanırım.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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ÖRNEK 2. Sinemaya gitmekten hoşlanmam.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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ÖRNEK 3. Ödev yapmaktan hoşlanırım.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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ÖRNEK 4. Bisiklete binmekten hoşlanmam.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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Gördüğünüz gibi örnek cümlelerimizin altında beşer kutucuk var. Bu kutucukların içinde de farklı cümleler bulunmakta.

Birinci kutu, verilen cümlelerin HER ZAMAN DOĞRU OLDUĞUNU,
İkinci kutu, verilen cümlelerin ÇOĞUNLUKLA DOĞRU OLDUĞUNU,
Üçüncü kutu, verilen cümlelerin BAZEN DOĞRU OLDUĞUNU,
Dördüncü kutu, verilen cümlelerin DOĞRU OLMADIĞINI,
Beşinci kutu, verilen cümlelerin HIÇ DOĞRU OLMADIĞINI göstermektedir.

Verilen cümleleri dikkatlice okuduktan sonra, bu cümleler hakkında ne düşündüğünüzü ya da hissettiğinizi anlayabilmem için cümlelerin altındaki beş kutudan size uygun olanını işaretleyin. Her cümle için sadece bir kutu işaretlemeniz gerektiğini unutmayın. Nasıl işaretlemeniz gerektiği konusunda bir kuşkunuz olursa ya da anlayamadığınız cümleler olursa, parmak kaldırın, size yardımcı olacağım. Bunun bir sınav olmadığını hatırlatmakta fayda var. Uygulama sırasında birbirinizle konuşmamaya dikkat edin. Cümlelerin hepsini bitirmeye özen gösterin. Herkes bitirdikten sonra ölçekleri toplayacağım. Verdiğiniz yanıtların gizli tutulacağından kuşkunuz olmasın. Yardımlarınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

SOSYAL DOYUM ÖLÇEĞİ

1. Benim için okulda yeni arkadaşlar edinmek kolaydır.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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2. Okumaktan hoşlanırım.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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3. Sınıfta hiçkimseyle konuşmuyorum.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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4. Sınıftaki diğer çocuklarla çalışmada iyiyim.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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5. Çok fazla televizyon seyredirim.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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6. Benim için okulda arkadaş edinmek zordur.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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7. Okulu severim.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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8. Sınıfta çok sayıda arkadaşım var.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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9. Okulda kendimi tek başıma hissediyorum.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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10. Birine ihtiyacım olduğunda, sınıfta bir arkadaş bulabilirim.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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11. Çok fazla spor yaparım.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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12. Okulda, benden hoşlanan çocuklar bulmak zordur.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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13. Bilimden hoşlanırım.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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14. Okulda oynayacağım hiç kimse yok.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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15. Müzikten hoşlanırım.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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16. Sınıftaki arkadaşlarımla iyi geçinirim.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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17. Okulda bazı şeylerden hoşlandığımı hissediyorum.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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18. Yardıma ihtiyacım olduğunda, gidebileceğim bir arkadaşım yok.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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19. Resim çizmek ve boyamaktan hoşlanırım.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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20. Okulda diğer çocuklarla geçinemem.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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21. Okulda kendemi yalnız hissediyorum.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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22. Sınıftaki diğer çocuklar tarafından oldukça sevilirim.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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23. Satranç, dama gibi masa üzerinde oynanan oyunları çok severim.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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24. Sınıfta hiç arkadaşım yok.

Her zaman Doğru	Çoğunlukla doğru	Bazen doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç Doğru değil
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APPENDIX B

SEVGİLİ ÇOCUKLAR,

Size dağıtmış olduğum sınıf listesinde;

1. Sınıfınızdaki her bir arkadaşınızla **birlikte vakit geçirmekten ne kadar hoşlandığınızı** göstermek için, listedeki arkadaşlarınızı **1'den 5'e işaretleyin** (1, en az, 5 en çok hoşlandığınız anlamına gelmektedir). Her arkadaşınızı **sadece bir kez** işaretlemeniz gerektiğini unutmayın.

2. Sınıfınızda en çok sevdiğiniz **üç arkadaşınızın** ismini yuvarlak içine alın.

1-B SINIF LİSTESİ

NO ADI

232	Oğuz	1	2	3	4	5
311	M. İlker	1	2	3	4	5
428	Ethem	1	2	3	4	5
455	Özgü	1	2	3	4	5
654	Tuna	1	2	3	4	5
844	Onur	1	2	3	4	5
867	Hale	1	2	3	4	5

933	Reyhan	1	2	3	4	5
1121	Gülçin	1	2	3	4	5
1148	Uğur	1	2	3	4	5
1190	Volkar	1	2	3	4	5
1195	Siber	1	2	3	4	5
1200	Barış	1	2	3	4	5
1230	Ersin	1	2	3	4	5
1323	Tuncer	1	2	3	4	5
1335	Mert	1	2	3	4	5
1343	Yeşer	1	2	3	4	5
1376	Anıl	1	2	3	4	5
1379	Simten	1	2	3	4	5
1356	Aysun	1	2	3	4	5
1361	Özge	1	2	3	4	5
1700	Ümit	1	2	3	4	5
1712	Hürcan	1	2	3	4	5
1875	Asiye	1	2	3	4	5
1879	Sinan	1	2	3	4	5
1898	Gürkan	1	2	3	4	5
1921	Emrah	1	2	3	4	5
1923	Yiğit	1	2	3	4	5
1957	Ozan	1	2	3	4	5
1977	Özlem	1	2	3	4	5
1988	Eda	1	2	3	4	5
1999	Murat	1	2	3	4	5
2001	Yekta	1	2	3	4	5
2002	Ceren	1	2	3	4	5
2003	Tuba	1	2	3	4	5
2017	Sertuğ	1	2	3	4	5
2036	Ramazan	1	2	3	4	5
2078	Servet	1	2	3	4	5

2565	Eyüp	1	2	3	4	5
2589	Leyla	1	2	3	4	5
2671	Engin	1	2	3	4	5
2748	Gönül	1	2	3	4	5
3000	Betül	1	2	3	4	5
3008	Seda	1	2	3	4	5
3009	Nihan	1	2	3	4	5
3010	Sertaç	1	2	3	4	5

