

INTERPRETATIONS AND BELIEFS ASSOCIATED
WITH CHILDREN'S REVENGE GOALS IN CONFLICT SITUATIONS

by

Kristina L. McDonald

Department of Psychology and Neuroscience
Duke University

Date: _____

Approved:

Steven R. Asher, Supervisor

Philip R. Costanzo

Rick H. Hoyle

Mark R. Leary

Martha Putallaz

Neil Vidmar

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of Doctor
of Philosophy in the Department of
Psychology and Neuroscience in the Graduate School
of Duke University

2008

ABSTRACT

INTERPRETATIONS AND BELIEFS ASSOCIATED
WITH CHILDREN'S REVENGE GOALS IN CONFLICT SITUATIONS

by

Kristina L. McDonald

Department of Psychology and Neuroscience
Duke University

Date: _____

Approved:

Steven R. Asher, Supervisor

Philip R. Costanzo

Rick H. Hoyle

Mark R. Leary

Martha Putallaz

Neil Vidmar

An abstract of a dissertation submitted in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree
of Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of
Psychology and Neuroscience in the Graduate School
of Duke University

2008

Copyright by
Kristina L. McDonald
2008

ABSTRACT

Prior research has found that children who pursue revenge goals in minor conflicts with peers are less accepted, have fewer friends, and have friendships of lower quality. Very little research has been devoted to understanding what factors might increase a child's tendency to seek revenge in minor conflicts of interest or in more provocative situations. The present study was designed to assess several variables that may increase revenge motivations in two contexts: minor conflicts of interest and major provocation situations. Of particular interest were the interpretations that children make in conflict, especially interpretations of rejection and disrespect. Two personal dispositions were also investigated, rejection sensitivity and disrespect sensitivity. The latter was assessed using a measure designed for this study. The study also examined whether beliefs about the legitimacy of aggression and beliefs about negative reciprocity moderate the association between negative interpretations and revenge goals.

Participants were seventh-grade adolescents ($n = 367$) from a middle school in a midwestern suburban school district. Students were shown vignettes (hypothetical situations) depicting conflict-of-interest situations and major provocation situations. In response to each vignette, participants rated how they would feel, how they would interpret the person's behavior, what their goals would be in the situation, and what behavioral strategies they would enact. Students also completed measures of rejection sensitivity, disrespect sensitivity, reciprocity beliefs, and beliefs about the legitimacy of

aggression. Additionally, students indicated which of their grademates were sensitive to rejection and which were sensitive to disrespect.

Results indicated that adolescents endorsed more rejection and disrespect interpretations, revenge goals, and aggressive strategies in the major provocation situations than in the conflict-of-interest situations. Boys more strongly endorsed revenge goals and aggressive strategies than did girls, although there were not gender differences in rejection or disrespect interpretations. Both rejection and disrespect interpretations were significantly related to revenge goals in both types of situations. In both conflicts of interest and major provocation situations, rejection interpretations mediated the link between rejection sensitivity and revenge goals. In conflicts of interest, disrespect interpretations partially mediated the association between disrespect expectations and revenge goals. In major provocation situations, disrespect interpretations mediated the link between situational disrespect and revenge goals. Although rejection and disrespect interpretations were highly related, when their shared variance was partialled out “disrespect-free” rejection interpretations were associated with revenge goals in both conflicts of interest and in major provocation situations, whereas “rejection-free” disrespect only remained associated with revenge goals in conflict-of-interest situations. Additionally, both legitimacy of aggression beliefs and negative reciprocity beliefs were independently associated with revenge goals in both conflicts of interest and major provocation situations, even after controlling for gender differences and negative interpretations. Further, negative reciprocity beliefs moderated the

association between negative interpretations and revenge goals such that adolescents who were high on negative reciprocity beliefs and negative interpretations were much more likely to seek revenge than adolescents who were low on negative reciprocity beliefs and high on negative interpretations. These findings suggest that the continued comparison of disrespect and rejection experiences is warranted and highlight the need to study the personal dispositions and beliefs that may increase revenge goals and vengeful behavior.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|-------------------------------|------|
| ABSTRACT | iv |
| LIST OF TABLES | viii |
| LIST OF FIGURES | x |
| CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| CHAPTER 2: METHOD | 38 |
| CHAPTER 3: RESULTS | 49 |
| CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION | 95 |
| APPENDICES | 115 |
| REFERENCES | 153 |
| BIOGRAPHY | 167 |

LIST OF TABLES

| | |
|--|----|
| Table 1. Internal Reliabilities for Emotions, Interpretations, Goals, and Strategies for Conflicts of Interest and Major Provocations | 50 |
| Table 2. Means, Standard Deviations, and Within-Subjects T-Tests for Emotions, Interpretations, Goals, and Strategies in Conflict of Interest and Major Provocation Situations | 53 |
| Table 3. Factor Loadings for the Disrespect Sensitivity Measure | 56 |
| Table 4. Correlations among Disrespect Sensitivity Factors | 61 |
| Table 5. Correlations of Behavioral Nominations with Rejection and Disrespect Interpretations, Revenge Goals, Rejection Sensitivity, and Disrespect Sensitivity | 63 |
| Table 6. Gender Differences and Descriptive Statistics for Belief Scales and Rejection and Disrespect Sensitivity Scales | 65 |
| Table 7. Gender Differences in Emotions, Interpretations, Goals, and Strategies in Conflicts of Interest and Major Provocation Situations | 67 |
| Table 8. Correlations Among Rejection and Disrespect Interpretations and Revenge Goals in Conflicts of Interest and Major Provocation Situations | 71 |
| Table 9. Partial Correlations of Revenge Goals with Rejection and Disrespect Interpretations | 74 |
| Table 10. Correlations of Rejection and Disrespect Interpretations and Revenge Goals with Rejection Sensitivity and Disrespect Sensitivity | 78 |
| Table 11. Regression Analyses to Examine if Rejection Interpretations Mediate Rejection Sensitivity and Revenge Goals in Conflicts of Interest | 81 |
| Table 12. Regression Analyses to Examine if Disrespect Interpretations Mediate Disrespect Sensitivity and Revenge Goals in Conflicts of Interest | 83 |
| Table 13. Regression Analyses to Examine if Rejection Interpretations | |

| | |
|--|----|
| Mediate Rejection Sensitivity and Revenge Goals in Major Provocation Situations | 85 |
| Table 14. Hierarchical Regression Analyses to Examine if Rejection Interpretations Mediate Rejection Sensitivity and Revenge Goals in Major Provocation Situations | 87 |
| Table 15. Summary of Mediation Analyses Predicting Revenge Goals | 89 |
| Table 16. Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Beliefs and Negative Interpretations on Revenge Goals in Conflicts of Interest | 92 |
| Table 17. Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Beliefs and Negative Interpretations on Revenge Goals in Major Provocation Situations | 94 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| | |
|--|----|
| Figure 1. The Interaction of Negative Interpretations and Negative Reciprocity Beliefs on Revenge Goals in Conflicts of Interest | 93 |
|--|----|

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

In their everyday lives, children encounter situations in which they feel like they have been treated badly by others. In these situations, there are a variety of ways children react and these responses may also vary in the goals that motivate them. Some children may walk away or ignore the provocation, a strategy designed to regulate their own negative emotions and/or to decrease the likelihood of further aggressive actions from the provocateur.

Another response option that children may have when they perceive that they have been treated badly is to retaliate for the harm. Some children may choose to say something mean, physically aggress, or act cold and unfriendly to a person who they perceive to have harmed them. This behavior may be motivated by a desire to reciprocate harm and hurt the person who had hurt them. The desire for revenge is not uncommon. In a study of college-age participants, 64% reported remembering a time when they were mistreated and felt the desire to seek revenge. Additionally, 29% reported actually acting on these feelings (Crombag, Rassin, & Horselenberg, 2003).

However, revenge may not be ultimately beneficial for the avenger. Nietzsche (1881) wrote that feelings of vindictiveness were “self-poisoning” or damaging to the self. Indeed, there is also evidence that taking revenge does not tend to improve how one feels or decrease the pain felt from the original offense (Crombag et al., 2003). Further, Elster (1990) pointed out that revenge is irrational because often it does not gain anything

for the retaliator and often entails more losses than it does benefits. Revenge may just prolong a cycle of violence by promoting the continuation of the aggression chain and escalating the harm that is done (Elster, 1990). Acts of revenge seem to build on one another, perpetuating a cycle of aggression that continues for a period of time (Baumeister, 1997).

The continuation and escalation of hostility that revenge may cause has been observed in children's interactions. In an observational study of girls' aggression in playgroups, Putallaz, Kupersmidt, Coie, McKnight, and Grimes (2004) found that retaliation to aggression was the least effective strategy in yielding positive outcomes. Reactive aggression, which can be considered a form of retaliation, led to continued aggression by other group members 77% of the time. The strategies that led to the most positive outcomes were de-escalation behaviors, such as compromising or using humor in response to aggression.

As Waldman (2001) has noted, revenge research plays only a small role in the social and behavioral sciences' discussion concerning violence and aggression. The lack of attention to revenge is surprising given that it is probably a dominant motivational force behind aggressive behavior. However, we do not know how much aggression is motivated by revenge because research has not examined how much of aggression is vengeful. By studying potential influences on the individual differences in revenge motivations, we may gain more insight about aggression and reactions to aggression (Caprara, 1986). This study will build on the small body of psychological research on

revenge goals by examining factors that affect the likelihood of an individual desiring revenge in conflict with peers.

Revenge Goals

Early in the 1980s, peer relationship researchers began to focus on the importance of understanding children's social goals in addition to their behavior. Renshaw and Asher (1983) suggested that one of the reasons that rejected children may have trouble with peers is that their social goals were inappropriate for social situations. Further, social goals are not necessarily explicitly outlined for children as they are in other contexts (e.g., at school children are told that they are there to learn) and thus children may find it difficult to understand which goals are adaptive in specific social situations (Parkhurst & Asher, 1985). The study of goals seems particularly relevant to understanding social behavior and as a means to intervene when children are having social difficulties.

This focus on social goals is also compatible with revisions of the Social Information Processing Model (SIP; Crick & Dodge, 1994; revised from Dodge, 1986; McFall, 1982; McFall & Dodge, 1982). The SIP model attempts to explain online processing and decision-making that happens in all social interactions. The model describes a series of steps through which social information is processed and social behaviors enacted (Crick & Dodge, 1994). In the first and second steps of the model, individuals encode and interpret cues in the social interaction. In the third, fourth, and fifth steps the individual selects and clarifies their goals for the interaction and then

selects a behavioral response based on possible consequences and their perceptions of efficacy in enacting the chosen response.

Revenge goals have been examined as part of understanding the social information processing of aggressive or rejected children (e.g. Erdley & Asher, 1996; Lochman, Wayland, & White, 1993; Renshaw & Asher, 1983; Slaby & Guerra, 1988). Goals are normally studied by presenting children with vignettes depicting various social situations (e.g., conflicts, ambiguous provocation situations, or other social interactions). Children are then asked to either describe the goals and strategies that they would employ or to indicate through ratings the likelihood they would pursue certain goals and enact certain strategies.

Research in this area has found that aggressive children are more likely to have revenge goals in ambiguous situations than are other children. Lochman et al. (1993) presented adolescent boys with one ambiguous situation vignette, in which the boys were asked to imagine that they were bumped by a new kid at school causing their books to fall to the floor. Participants then rated a series of goals, including avoidance, dominance, revenge, and affiliation goals. They found that revenge goals were positively associated with aggression; boys who were rated by peers as aggressive rated revenge and dominance goals higher than boys who were not aggressive.

Additionally, Erdley and Asher (1996) had children respond to ten ambiguous provocation vignettes. They then grouped children by their attributions of intent (i.e., on purpose vs. not on purpose) and their behavioral strategies to these vignettes (i.e.,

aggressive, withdrawn, and problem-solving children strategies), to yield six groups of children. They found that children who chose predominantly aggressive strategies in response to the ambiguous vignettes, no matter if they attributed hostile intent or not, were more likely than withdrawn or problem-solving children to endorse the goal of getting back in response to ambiguous provocation. Hostility-attributing aggressive children also felt more efficacious about taking revenge and hurting others than did hostility-attributing withdrawn or problem-solving children.

Research examining children's revenge goals, both in ambiguous provocation situations and in minor conflicts with peers (e.g., a disagreement over what game to play), has found that the more children desire revenge, the lower quality their peer relationships seem to be. For example, children who are less accepted by their peers tend to endorse revenge goals more strongly in ambiguous situations or minor conflict situations than highly-accepted or well-liked children (Lochman et al., 1993; Renshaw & Asher, 1983; Rose & Asher, 1999). Revenge goals have also been linked to the characteristics of a child's friendships. Rose and Asher (1999) presented children with 30 hypothetical situations that depicted mild conflicts of interest with a friend. After each hypothetical scenario, children were asked to rate a number of goals and strategies on the likelihood that they would pursue each goal or choose to enact each strategy. Rose and Asher found that 6% of children consistently and highly endorsed revenge goals (i.e., "I would be trying to get back at my friend") in these minor conflicts of interest with a friend. In regression analyses, revenge goal endorsement was negatively

associated with the number of mutual friends a child had as well as negatively related to friendship quality, even after controlling for children's level of peer acceptance.

The Importance of Interpretations

Given the association between revenge goals and poorer peer relationships, understanding why some children endorse revenge goals more than other children is important. One possibility is that some children may interpret conflict or provocation to be more threatening and hostile than others. In social psychology, a great deal of attention has been given to the importance of attributions and interpretations in how individuals understand the world. Most people have great interests in explaining other's behaviors in order to know what to expect from the person in the future (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978) and this motivation is heightened when events are negative, important, and self-relevant (Weiner, 1985). According to Heider (1944) attributions about a partner's behavior will affect one's future behavior towards the partner. Benign interpretations, such as a harm being unintentional or due to an unstable cause (e.g., "he was just having a bad day..."), tend to lead to behaviors that promote conflict resolution or decrease the likelihood of angry responses. On the other hand attributions of blame or hostility will lead to behaviors that hinder resolution and promote negative interactions. Therefore, accounting for the interpretations and attributions that people make of a partner's behavior is especially important when trying to understand behavior in conflict situations.

Attributions of Intent

Perhaps the most studied interpretation about the behavior of others is that of intent. Intent attributions are particularly relevant to the study of revenge goals and retaliation because the interpretation of an offense as being intentionally committed is likely to lead to feelings of anger and, subsequently, to desires for revenge (e.g. Averill, 1982; Berkowitz, 1993; Betancourt & Blair, 1992). Perceptions of intent have also been hypothesized to be one of the cognitive precursors of revenge goals, because, generally, one must think that harm was intentionally and maliciously caused to desire revenge (Vidmar, 2000).

A great deal of evidence supports the idea that an individual's attributions about intent affect the person's responses to transgressions and offenses. Compared to situations in which harm is accidentally or ambiguously caused, people are more likely to support retaliatory responses in situations in which harm is clearly intended (e.g. Astor, 1994; Coie & Dodge, 1998; Crick & Dodge, 1994; Dodge, 1980; Hewitt, 1975; Shantz & Pentz, 1972; Shantz & Voydanoff, 1973; Smetana, Toth, Cichetti, Bruce, Kane, & Daddis, 1999; Tremblay & Belchevski, 2004).

Further, individual differences exist in people's tendencies to perceive that ambiguous negative events are intentionally caused. In order to assess this tendency, investigators typically present participants with stimuli, like vignettes portraying hypothetical situations or analogue situations in the laboratory, which are purposely ambiguous with regards to the intent of the offender. For example, when presented with

a situation in which a peer spills milk on the participant in the lunchroom and the participant is uncertain whether the act was purposely committed or not, some children are more likely than others to say that the milk was spilt on purpose. This tendency to attribute negative or malevolent intent in ambiguous situations, sometimes called the *hostile attribution bias* (Dodge, 1980; Nasby, Hayden, & DePaulo, 1979), has been studied extensively in relation to aggressive behavior. A great deal of work has clearly shown that children who are more likely to attribute negative intent to others are also more likely to be aggressive (see Orobio de Castro, Veerman, Koops, Bosch, & Monshouwer, 2002 for a comprehensive review). Additionally, and as mentioned earlier, research has also found that aggressive children are more likely to have goals of revenge in ambiguous provocation situations than are non-aggressive children (Erdley & Asher, 1996; Lochman et al., 1993).

Other Types of Interpretations in Conflict Situations

While attributions about intent have been studied extensively, many other interpretations about others' behavior are significant and deserve attention. Watzlawick, Bavelas, and Jackson (1969) in *The Pragmatics of Human Communication* argued that every behavior, even nonverbal behavior, communicates deeper-level messages than what is in the surface-level of the message. At the deeper level is information about how the communicator sees himself or herself in relation to the other person and how the communicator wants to be understood by the other.

Watzlawick et al.'s (1969) ideas suggest that an individual can have numerous interpretations that will affect his or her responses in conflict. Work from our collaborative group has begun to investigate some of these interpretations in close relationship contexts. In a study with college students that investigated interpretations in conflict with different relationship partners (i.e., friends, romantic partners, and roommates), we found that many interpretations were associated with heightened desires for revenge. For example, interpretations of rejection, disrespect, lack of caring, of being betrayed, of the relationship lacking viability, and interpretations of the other being "wrong" were strongly linked with the goal of getting back at the person (McDonald & Asher, in preparation). Further, in a study examining children's friendship transgressions, MacEvoy (2006) found that children's interpretations that the friend's behavior was a sign that the friend did not care about him or her, did not respect him or her, or was trying to push him or her around were positively associated with goals of revenge.

One of the goals of the current study is to explore in greater detail how two of the above-mentioned interpretations, disrespect and rejection, relate to revenge goals in conflict situations with peers. Leary (2001) defined rejection as the devaluation of a relationship with another person. Rejection has been operationalized by peer relationships researchers as the state of being actively disliked by peers (Bierman, 2004). In contrast, the noun disrespect is defined by the Merriam-Webster Dictionary (2004) as "the lack of the quality... of being esteemed." To be treated with disrespect suggests being treated

more poorly than what is perceived as being deserved. Comparing disrespect and rejection, I suggest that disrespect is the devaluation of a person and rejection is the devaluation of a relationship with a person.

I chose to focus on these two interpretations because they encompass many of the other interpretations people can have in conflict. For example, interpretations about being pushed around may be similar to feeling disrespected. When someone feels “pushed around” he or she may feel like another is trying to control them, and this lack of ascribed power may be attributed to the other also disrespecting them. Interpretations about not being cared about could also fall under the interpretation of being rejected. When one feels unsupported or uncared about it could be because the person also feels that the offender does not value their relationship. Additionally, some of the other interpretations, like interpretations of the person doing something wrong or betraying you, could subsequently lead to either or both interpretations of disrespect and rejection.

Further, comparing the relative influences of feeling disrespected versus feeling rejected on revenge goals is also important. These two interpretations may co-occur very often. When people feel rejected they may also feel disrespected at the same time. Similarly, when people feel like they have been disrespected they may also feel like they are being rejected. However, adults often reference differences between rejection and disrespect in speaking about their preferred treatment from others (e.g., “You don’t have to like me, but you must respect me”) suggesting that they hold different personal meaning for individuals. Yet research on these two constructs has remained relatively

separate, and no research has investigated if respect and rejection are actually differentially important to people in their interpersonal interactions.

Preliminary results from McDonald and Asher (in preparation) show that interpretations of disrespect and rejection are very highly correlated among college students ($r > .80$). However, when the variance they share is partialled out an interesting pattern emerged. The interpretation of disrespect remained significantly associated with revenge goals in three different relationship contexts: with romantic partners, friends, and roommates. However, rejection interpretations only remained significantly associated with revenge goals in the romantic relationship context and not in the friend or roommate context. This implies that in some contexts, interpretations of rejection alone may not increase peoples' revenge goals, but rather when one interprets that he or she has been disrespected, or perhaps rejected in a disrespectful manner, that the person desires to get even.

The second main goal of this study will be to explore four individual difference factors that may increase one's desire for revenge in conflict. First, the study will examine two personality characteristics that are hypothesized to increase peoples' tendency to interpret conflict in negative ways. One of the personality characteristics that will be examined here is rejection sensitivity. Rejection sensitivity is the tendency to anxiously expect rejection (Downey & Feldman, 1996; Downey, Lebolt, Rincon, & Freitas, 1998). The study will investigate if rejection sensitivity in children is positively associated with rejection interpretations and with revenge goals in conflict.

The second personality variable of interest in this study is the tendency to be vigilant for signs of disrespect. Sensitivity to disrespect has been hypothesized to be greater in certain groups or communities, and these concerns are believed to cause greater aggression in response to feeling disrespected (e.g., Horowitz, 1983; Nisbett & Cohen, 1996). However, no one has measured vigilance for disrespect as an individual difference variable. This study will explore individual differences in a newly developed construct, disrespect sensitivity, and how these differences are associated with interpretations of disrespect and with revenge goals.

The last two individual difference variables that will be examined pertain to two beliefs that may affect whether individuals have revenge goals in conflict situations. Beliefs about the correctness of reciprocating negative treatment (Eisenberger, Lynch, Aselage, & Rohdieck, 2004) have been found to be associated with aggression in the laboratory but have not yet been examined with children or in relation to revenge goals in conflict situations. This study will explore if reciprocity beliefs moderate the association between negative interpretations and revenge goals. Additionally, Beliefs about the Legitimacy of Aggression (Erdley & Asher, 1996; Huesman & Guerra, 1997) have also been positively linked with behavioral aggression and with reported aggressive strategies in ambiguous provocation situations. This study will explore how these beliefs relate to revenge goals and if these beliefs also moderate the link between interpretations and revenge goals.

The following sections of the paper will review the current research about disrespect and disrespect sensitivity, rejection and rejection sensitivity, reciprocity beliefs, and legitimacy of aggression beliefs. Then the proposed research methodology will be explained in detail.

Disrespect

As mentioned previously, enacting revenge carries cost for the individual. Revenge is often viewed by scholars as a destructive and anti-social behavior, as well as being uncivilized, unethical, and useless in truly resolving conflicts (Crombag, et al., 2003; Miller, 1998; Murphy, 2000; Tripp & Bies, 1997; Waldmann, 2001). Yet revenge continues to be a prominent behavior amongst humans. Its continued use despite the hypothesized damages suggests that revenge must serve some function to individuals.

For example, if a person perceives that an offense is an act of disrespect, then revenge may serve the function of communicating to an offender that the enactor is owed better treatment and respect. Heider (1958) believed that what hurts an individual most about an insult was that the offender seemed to believe that the individual could be sacrificed to his humor or desire. If this is the case, revenge can serve as a mechanism for the offended person to change the offender's perceptions and to communicate that he or she is worthy of respect and better treatment. Heider proposed that "revenge may be conceptualized not only as a simple effect of the tendency toward harmony, but more specifically as a pointed attempt on the part of (the avenger) to counteract in some way the beliefs held by (the offender) which gave rise to the act in the first place (p. 267)."

Revenge communicates to the offender “you can't treat me like that” and may change the offender’s beliefs in the relative power, importance, and value of the avenger (Heider, 1958).

Generally, people believe that they have the right to be respected and to be treated with respect by others (Miller, 2001). Status and prestige are partly conveyed by the treatment received from others. Interpretations of disrespect are associated with feeling that one was not given consideration by others, others were rude, that an act was unfair, and that others have broken a “psychological contract” or an implicit understanding of what is expected and acceptable in a relationship (Miller, 2001).

Ethnographers have observed that in certain communities aggression often follows from perceptions of disrespect. In these communities, norms about respect are highly regarded and when these norms are violated retaliation or revenge is expected. This set of shared beliefs about respect that sanction retaliation or revenge in response to offenses is sometime referred to as the “code of honor” (Anderson, 1999; Horowitz, 1983; Fagan & Wilkinson, 1998; Luckenbill & Doyle, 1989; Nisbett & Cohen, 1996). Horowitz (1983) discussed the “code” in her ethnography of gang life in a poor Hispanic community in Chicago. The norms in this community mandated aggression towards those who showed disrespect. The code stressed retaliation for insults pertaining to one’s manhood, a female relative’s sexual purity, and accusations of dependency on others. Anderson (1999) and Fagan and Wilkinson (1998) also observed these types of norms in other poor city neighborhoods. They termed these norms the “code of the streets;” these

codes provide unspoken rules for interaction and support violence as a means of handling disputes. The norms foster sensitivity to disrespect and uphold the use of aggression in response to even small offenses.

Structural factors, which in conjunction with these social norms, may enhance the likelihood that individuals will take revenge. Having inadequate or biased judicial or authority systems may lead to mistrust in these systems and increase community member reliance on violence to protect themselves. Nisbett and Cohen (1996) suggested that individuals in societies that were less reliant on established penal systems needed to rely on their own reputation to protect them from harm. Violence related to honor is more prevalent in societies that lack the unity and ability to reinforce state authority, such as the historical Southern United States. Historically, settlers in the South were from herding communities, in which violence to protect self and property was more accepted and men were expected to handle justice personally. Nisbett and Cohen argued that even in recent times, male honor in the South was still associated with masculinity, courage, and physical strength.

In many disadvantaged communities, residents may feel that they have to defend their honor because they cannot trust that the police or other authorities will be helpful (Huang & Vaghn, 1996; Kennedy, 1997). Examining census data and information on homicides, Kubrin and Weitzer (2003) found that neighborhood disadvantage was the number one predictor of retaliatory killings in St. Louis communities. The researchers also coded the police descriptions of the homicides for themes that were relevant. They

found that disrespect was one of the most dominant themes. Individuals in these disadvantaged neighborhoods were more likely to interpret trivial insults and challenges as disrespectful and damaging, and were more likely to respond to this lack of respect with violence. Kubrin and Weitzer (2003) also noted that many narratives discussed unwillingness among community members to go the police, either because the community members supported the violence, feared retribution, or thought that the police would be of no help.

Similarly, ethnographers, sociologists, and social psychologists have searched for ways to explain the greater violence in disadvantaged communities. Nisbett and Cohen (1996) suggested that in communities where individuals have few means of gaining esteem, revenge becomes a means of protecting the assets that one does have (i.e., a sense of self-worth or social standing). Further, Murphy (2000) wrote that revenge “passions are often felt by those who have been given reason to believe that there are monsters in the world and that they have been forced to fight with them; and the (revenge) passions can be ways in which these people evince respect for their own rights and moral status (p. 139-140).” In this case, revenge may be especially important for children who grow up in environments that are unsafe or dangerous. In many of these communities, public offenses are viewed as the ultimate transgression, and the only way to protect one’s reputation is to respond in a violent way (Kubrin & Weitzer, 2003). Harm-for-harm interaction patterns may actually promote cooperation in these communities because retaliation communicates to the offender that the victim is not to be trifled with (Axelrod,

1984; Crombag et al., 2003). Revenge and threats of revenge may act as a powerful driving force to gaining respect and deterring future abuse from peers or authority figures (Bies & Tripp, 1998).

Thus, ethnographers, sociologists, and social psychologists have argued that feeling disrespected can lead to aggression and a desire for revenge. This study will build on the hypotheses of these scholars by investigating if children's interpretations of disrespect are positively associated with revenge goals and aggression in conflict situations.

Additionally, and as mentioned previously, researchers have observed that some groups may be more vigilant to signs of disrespect and more prone to reacting aggressively when they feel disrespected (e.g., Horowitz, 1983; Nisbett & Cohen, 1996). Sensitivity to disrespect may also be an individual difference characteristic, yet no one has attempted to measure this construct at an individual level. Individuals who are highly sensitive to signs of disrespect from others may be more likely to interpret conflict to be disrespectful and these interpretations increase their desires for revenge. One of the goals of this study is to design a scale to reliably measure disrespect sensitivity and explore how this measure relates to disrespect interpretations and revenge goals. I hypothesize that interpretations of disrespect may mediate the association between disrespect sensitivity and revenge goals.

Rejection

Baumeister and Leary (1995) hypothesized that human beings have a strong need to be accepted by others. They suggested that the need for acceptance and belonging evolved because it promoted group affiliation, which promoted survival and reproduction in human and nonhuman ancestors. People who lived and worked in groups were more likely to survive than individuals who lived on the periphery of a community because belonging to a group allowed access to shared resources and greater protection from harm. Thus, individuals evolved to be sensitive to rejection and motivated to act in ways that make them accepted by others.

Leary (2001) stated that rejection by another communicates that their relationship is not valued as important and that the rejecter does not want to associate with the rejected person. Interpretations of rejection cause individuals to have various emotional reactions. When people are rejected, they may feel sad, anxious, lonely, and/or angry (Baumeister & Tice, 1990; Leary 1990). Additionally, being rejected by another person is especially likely to lead hurt feelings. Leary, Springer, Negal, Ansell, and Evans (1998) had participants write about incidents when another person hurt their feelings. In all but two of the scenarios they found that participants' reports of hurt feelings were associated with relational devaluation. Additionally, they found that the level of hurt feelings reported by participants was highly related to the feeling of being rejected.

Rejection has also been linked to aggressive behavior in developmental psychology (e.g., Bierman, 2004). Research with children has found a group of peer-

rejected children who are also highly aggressive. The link between aggressive behavior and being rejected by peers is robust [for a review of the numerous studies on this topic see Bierman (2004) and Newcomb, Bukowski, & Pattee (1993)]. Many studies have found that children who are physically aggressive with peers are subsequently more likely to be rejected (e.g., Coie & Kupersmidt, 1983; Dodge, Coie, Pettit, & Price, 1990). Some evidence also suggests that early rejection in school may increase subsequent aggressive behavior. For example, Dodge, Lansford, Burks, Bates, Pettit, Fontaine, and Price (2003), in a longitudinal study, found that initial peer rejection in early elementary school predicted increases in aggression four years later, even after controlling for early aggression. Guerra, Asher, and DeRosier (2004) also found that social preference contributed to later aggressive behavior, even when controlling for prior aggression, such that children who were less liked by peers grew more aggressive over the school year. They also found that increases in aggression occurred more for some children than for others. For example, aggressive boys who perceived that they were rejected and blamed their peers for their own social failure increased in their aggressive behavior over time.

Additional evidence for the rejection-aggression link comes from social psychology (for a review see Leary, Twenge, Quinlivan, 2006). Williams and colleagues (Warburton, Williams, & Cairns, 2003; Williams, Cheung, & Choi, 2000; Williams & Sommer, 1997) have studied ostracism, or being ignored by others who are in one's presence, by having participants play a ball toss game with confederates or on a computer. Warburton et al. (2003) found that participants who had been excluded in a

ball toss game were subsequently more aggressive (allocated more hot sauce to a person whom they had never met), but only when they had been exposed to uncontrollable aversive stimuli themselves (i.e., loud uncontrollable noises). This group was also more aggressive than participants who were exposed to aversive stimuli but were initially included by others during the ball-toss game. Although, this aggressive act cannot be considered an act of revenge because the aggression was directed at an unknown person, this is evidence that ostracism, as a form of rejection, may increase people's tendencies to aggress against others generally. However, in other experiments, ostracism has elicited affiliative rather than aggressive behaviors, such as conformity to wrong judgments (Williams et al., 2000) and, at least for women, social compensation (e.g. by generating more responses to a collective group task; Williams & Sommer, 1997), supporting the idea that rejection, in some cases, may increase behaviors that increase future inclusion (Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

However, using different laboratory manipulations, other researchers find that people that are rejected or excluded in the lab subsequently aggress against their rejecters or others (see Leary, Twenge, & Quinlivan, 2006 for a review). For example, Buckley, Winkel, and Leary (2004) had participants fill out a questionnaire about personal information. Participants were led to believe that another person would judge their information while they evaluated the same information from that person. Subsequently, they learned how that other person had supposedly evaluated them. People who were told that the other person chose not to work with them were more angry, had greater antisocial

inclinations, and were more aggressive to the other person (i.e., by assigning aversive tasks to the offender).

Using a similar paradigm, Twenge, Baumeister, Tice, and Stucke (2001) found that rejected individuals were subsequently more aggressive (by blasting with aversive noise) to individuals whom they perceived to have criticized them. Individuals who were rejected in this way were also more likely to blast neutral others (i.e., people who did not give any feedback) with aversive noise than were people who were accepted.

Twenge et al. (2001) also investigated how thoughts of future personal isolation may increase aggressive responses. Individuals who were told that they were going to end up alone in life and were later criticized for an essay they had written were more likely to negatively evaluate the criticizer than were individuals who were not told that they would be alone later in life. However, in a second study, participants were praised for their essay after being told they would end up alone, and these participants were not more likely to aggress against their praiser than were the people who were praised but received other unfortunate information (e.g., that in the future they would be accident-prone). This information, in conjunction with the findings above, suggest that people who are rejected may be more likely to be generally aggressive towards others, but if others are kind they may elicit no greater aggressive behavior.

The link between feeling rejected and aggression seems especially apparent in cases of extreme violence. Leary, Kowalski, Smith, and Phillips (2003) analyzed case studies from recent school shootings. They discovered that in much of the media

coverage of these school shootings, the children were described as being rejected and teased by peers. In many of the case descriptions, the shootings were described as an act of revenge against people who had hurt them. Additionally, reports from the FBI (O'Toole, 2007) and U.S. Secret Service (Vossekuil, Fein, Reddy, Borum, & Modzeleski, 2002) about school violence both conclude that the offenders felt bullied, teased, persecuted, or injured by other people prior to their attack.

Why would rejection elicit aggressive responses, especially since fear of rejection has been hypothesized to be adaptive in that it motivates people to act in affiliative or prosocial ways to gain inclusion (Baumeister & Leary, 1995)? Twenge et al. (2001) suggested that individuals' self-regulatory capacities are weakened after a rejection so they are less likely to inhibit their aggressive inclinations. This is illustrated by the finding that rejected individuals are even aggressive to neutral others who have done them no wrong. Leary et al. (2006) also give multiple explanations for the rejection-aggression link. For instance, they suggest that aggression may serve as a means of showing the rejecter that their relationship should not be devalued. They also proposed that that rejection may be linked with aggressive responses simply through association and because rejection is a painful and frustrating experience. According to Berkowitz (1990), events that cause negative affect automatically link to thoughts, feelings, physiological responses, and motor reactions associated with fight (or flight) tendencies. Therefore, people may be more aggressive after rejection simply because of their increased negative affect and its associations with aggression.

Although, the present study does not examine why individuals are aggressive after rejection, it builds on this association by examining if children's interpretations of rejection in conflict situations are positively related to goals of revenge.

Downey's work is also particularly relevant for understanding how interpretations of rejection are associated with aggressive responding. Downey and Feldman (1996) developed a construct that they termed rejection sensitivity. They hypothesized that children who have parents who do not meet their needs for acceptance develop expectations that others will be rejecting. Thus, these individuals attempt to minimize the chances that they will be rejected through an increased vigilance for potential rejection. Downey and Feldman defined rejection sensitivity as a cognitive affective-processing disposition, similar to a schema, that may cause individuals to anxiously expect and readily perceive rejection by significant others. Because rejection sensitive individuals are more likely to perceive rejections they may also be more likely to respond with anger and hostility as well.

Rejection sensitivity is typically measured by presenting individuals with a series of brief scenarios such as "You ask someone in your class if you can borrow his/her notes." Then participants are asked to rate their rejection concerns (how concerned or anxious they would be that the other person would not want to comply with the request) as well as their acceptance expectancy (how much the participant expects that the person will comply) (Downey & Feldman, 1996). In some versions of the Children's Rejection Sensitivity Questionnaire, children are also asked "How MAD would you feel, RIGHT

THEN,...?” (Downey, LeBolt, Rincon, & Freitas, 1998). This question addresses the anger and hostility that may accompany expectations of rejection. Other versions of the children’s measure only ask about anxiety and expectations (Ayduk, Mendoza-Denton, Mischel, Downey, Peake, & Rodriguez, 2000).

Rejection sensitivity has been studied in the relationships of both adults and children. In women, rejection sensitivity has been associated with more angry feelings and hostile reactions to rejection (Ayduk, Downey, Testa, Yen & Shoda, 1999).

However, for men the association between rejection sensitivity and aggression may be moderated by the investment that one has in the relationship. Downey, Feldman, and Ayduk (2000) found that rejection-sensitive men who are less invested in romantic relationships were not aggressive towards their partners. However, for men who were highly invested in romantic relationships, rejection-sensitivity predicted more dating violence.

In studies with children, Downey et al. (1998) found that rejection sensitivity is associated with being more upset after rejection and with higher levels of aggressive behavior. Children high in rejection sensitivity were more likely to feel distress after they were told that a friend did not want to join them in an activity. Rejection-sensitivity was also positively associated with school, teacher, and self-reports of child aggression.

As of yet, rejection sensitivity has not been examined in relation to revenge goals in conflict situations. I propose that rejection sensitivity will be positively associated

with children's revenge goals but that this association will be mediated by rejection interpretations.

Comparing Disrespect and Rejection

As mentioned previously, research literatures on rejection and disrespect have remained relatively separate. Interpretations about being rejected seem to comprise interpretations of being disliked, excluded, and that the *relationship* is being devalued. Interpretations of disrespect seem to comprise interpretations of unjust treatment, being perceived as lower status than what is deserved, and of being *generally* undervalued. However, it is unknown whether feeling rejected and feeling disrespected are different experiences for individuals in the sense that they prompt different emotional, cognitive, or behavioral reactions.

It is possible that disrespect and rejection interpretations co-occur in many situations. It is also possible that these interpretations may lead to one another. For example, people may interpret that they have been rejected and this interpretation may lead them to also think that they have been disrespected, or vice versa. It is also possible that both interpretations of disrespect and rejection are linked with feelings of anger towards the perceived offender. Because both interpretations are associated with anger and frustration, both may be similarly linked retaliatory aggression.

It has been attributed that children and adolescents commit school violence because they were bullied or teased by their classmates and feel rejected. However, being bullied and teased by classmates may also elicit feelings of being disrespected by

peers. The Secret Service report (Vossekuil et al., 2002) and Leary et al. (2003) mention that the students who committed violence in school felt disrespected by peers or other school personnel. The shooters at the Columbine, Colorado high school also referenced gaining respect for their act of violence (Twenge & Campbell, 2003). However, retrospective analyses do not make it clear whether rejection or disrespect, alone or together, motivated these acts of vengeance.

Disrespect and rejection interpretations may make independent contributions to individuals' goals and responses in conflict. If feelings of rejection are evolutionarily adaptive to motivate people to increase their acceptance, then individuals should presumably act in more prosocial ways (or at least in non-hostile ways) when they feel rejected (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). While the adaptive nature of disrespect interpretations has not been discussed at length, feeling disrespected may be an indicator of unfair treatment (Miller, 2001) or undeserved poor treatment. I propose that reactions that reassert power or help to insure future fair treatment (such as revenge reactions) may be more likely to occur after feeling disrespected.

As mentioned previously, laboratory experiences of rejection have been found to increase subsequent aggressive behavior. Studies in social psychology have repeatedly found that people who have undergone rejection experiences in the laboratory are more likely to be aggressive towards perceived rejecters, critical others, and unfamiliar others. However, I propose that many of the manipulations that are used to simulate a rejection experience, could simultaneously increase participants' interpretations of disrespect. For

example, in Twenge and Campbell (2003), a study designed to examine aggressive responses to social rejection, unacquainted individuals were brought together and told to talk for a period of time. Then they were told, “We are interested in forming groups in which the members *like* and *respect* each other. Below, please name the two people (out of those you met today) you would most like to work with.” When people were subsequently told that they were not chosen by the other participants to be group members, they tended to act in more aggressive ways towards the people that they perceived to be rejecting them.

It is not clear that this kind of procedure could be perceived as solely a social rejection. Embedded in the manipulation is also an act of disrespect because people were asked to choose partners based on who they *respected* and who they wanted to *work* with. Participants, when choosing a work partner, may have made this choice based on respect for their skills or abilities (especially when participants are explicitly told to choose someone they respect). Thus, when people subsequently believe that they were not picked, they could attribute this exclusion to be due to a lack of respect.

Similarly, other manipulations used to study the rejection-aggression association may also include disrespect components. Some manipulations reference being chosen for one’s perceived skills or to work on specific tasks (e.g., Buckley et al., 2004) and when the subject is not chosen, he/she may attribute that they were perceived as inadequate at the task. In other paradigms, confederates criticize opinions or skills of the subject (e.g., Pepitone & Wilpizeski, 1960; Twenge et al., 2001) and these could also lead to

interpretations about being disrespected. Therefore, it is unclear whether rejection alone, disrespect alone, or rejection and disrespect simultaneously increase aggressive responses.

A major aim of the proposed research is to learn if rejection and disrespect are differentially related to aggression and revenge goals. As discussed earlier, preliminary work with young adults (McDonald & Asher, in preparation) suggests that there is something unique to interpretations of disrespect, not shared with rejection interpretations, that is associated with revenge goals. This study will build on this work to examine if children's interpretations of rejection and disrespect are related and if these interpretations are differentially associated with revenge goals.

Gender Differences in Revenge Goals and Interpretations

Many of the research studies about revenge have not reported analyses about gender differences in the phenomenon. Some studies from personality research with adults do not report any analyses about gender differences in vengefulness (e.g., Mauger et al., 1992; McCullough & Hoyt, 1998). Some of the research with children, which has examined revenge goals, has also not examined gender differences (e.g., Erdley & Asher, 1996; Renshaw & Asher, 1983). With these studies it is impossible to know whether gender differences were examined, none were found, and nothing was reported or whether gender differences were not examined at all. It seems likely that if researchers find gender differences, these results would be reported as a significant finding or would control for these differences in subsequent analyses. In contrast, if no differences were

found, researchers would be more likely to exclude these analyses from the report. Therefore, predicting conclusions without all of the evidence available may be misleading (for a broader discussion of the potential for selective reporting of gender differences see Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974).

However, a consistent pattern is seen in the few studies that do examine gender differences in revenge. Self-report studies that measure attitudes towards vengeance or “vengefulness” as a personality characteristic find that men report more positive attitudes about revenge and report being more vengeful than do women (Brown, 2004; Mauger, Perry, Freeman, Grove, McBride, & McKinney, 1992; Stuckless & Goranson, 1992; Sukhodolsky, Golub, & Cromwell, 2001). Men also report taking more revenge, and they endorse revenge goals more than women (Crombag et al., 2003; Kaiser, Vick, & Major, 2004; McDonald & Asher, in preparation). However, other personality researchers do not find differences between men and women on thoughts and desires for revenge when they ask them to report on their own situational experiences (Bellah, Bellah, & Johnson, 2003; McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001; McCullough, Rachal, Sandage, Worthington, Brown, & Hight, 1998).

A recent study has found an interesting difference in the brain activation of men and women regarding revenge. Singer, Seymour, O’Doherty, Stephan, Dolan and Frith (2006) had participants play a game with two confederates, one who played fairly and one whom played unfairly. Researchers then used fMRI to image the brains of the participants as they were shocked and as they watched the fair and unfair players shocked

also. When viewing the fair player being shocked, participants showed increased activity in the area of the brain associated with empathy responding. When observing the unfair player in pain, the activation in the empathy area was comparatively smaller than for the fair player. However, this finding was moderated by gender. For women, the reduction in activity was small (not significantly different from observation of the fair player), while for men there was no difference between observing an unfair player being shocked and baseline. In fact, men showed increased activity in the reward-processing region of the brain when observing the unfair player in pain. Men also self-reported a stronger desire for revenge than women, and for men a positive association was found between desire for revenge and the amount of activation in the reward center. These findings suggest that men may have a stronger desire for revenge at the neurobiological level.

Consistent with the sex differences in aggression found throughout childhood and adolescence (Rose & Rudolph, 2006), research with children using vignette methodology has also found that boys are more likely than girls to report goals of revenge and are more likely to find revenge morally permissible (Delveaux & Daniels, 2000; Piaget, 1932; Rose & Asher, 1999). However, MacEvoy (2006) did not find differences between boys and girls in their level of revenge goal endorsement in response to transgressions by friends. Prior vignette studies presented children with benign conflict of interest situations with peers or friends, whereas the vignettes used in MacEvoy depicted situations in which friends committed more serious offenses (e.g., betrayal, refusing to help in a time of need, breaking a commitment). In certain contexts, like friendship, or

in response to more serious offenses girls may desire revenge as much as boys.

Transgressions by friends may be particularly hurtful and arousing of anger for girls.

Thus, in an effort to add to what has been found about revenge and gender, this study will compare the revenge goals of boys and girls in conflict with peers. The current study will also explore if rejection and disrespect interpretations are endorsed at different levels for boys and girls. In work with older adolescents in relatively benign conflict-of-interest situations with close relationship partners, males were more likely to endorse interpretations of rejection and disrespect (McDonald & Asher, in preparation). However, in more serious transgression situations with friends, fourth and fifth grade girls were more likely than boys to interpret that their friends didn't care about them and didn't respect them (MacEvoy, 2006). This study will examine if there are gender differences in interpretations in both minor conflict of interest situations with peers and in more serious conflict situations with peers.

Previous researchers have hypothesized that girls are more relationally oriented than are boys (e.g., Maccoby, 1990). This idea draws from research that finds that girls are more likely to mention relationships in their self-descriptions (McGuire & McGuire, 1982) and care about dyadic friendships more than boys (Benenson & Benarroch, 1998). Girls are also more likely to mention goals that are oriented towards maintaining relationships and getting along with others and they are more likely to worry about relationship loss (see Rose & Rudolph, 2006 for a review). Due to this relational orientation, girls may make more rejection interpretations in conflict situations than will

boys and rejection interpretations may be more closely linked with revenge goals for girls than for boys.

Theorists have also suggested that males are more orientated to attaining status and to securing agentic goals (Maccoby, 1990). Consistent with this is evidence that boys endorse more self-interest goals and hostile strategies and fewer relationship-maintaining goals and prosocial strategies in conflict with peers (Rose & Rudolph, 2006). In middle childhood, boys also tend to interact in larger groups than do girls (Ladd, 1983). During this time in childhood and adolescence, boys also develop dominance hierarchies that are more well-defined than those of girls (Savin-Williams, 1979). Perhaps, because of this greater orientation towards status within the group, boys may be more likely to feel disrespected when they are provoked than will girls. Disrespect interpretations may also be more closely linked with revenge goals for boys than for girls.

Belief Systems Supportive of Revenge and Aggression

Reciprocity Beliefs

In order to more fully understand the social cognitive processes that underlie revenge behavior, we must also understand an individual's beliefs about revenge. For most people, the social cognitive "database" (Crick & Dodge, 1994) probably includes a set of beliefs about the justifiability of revenge, and the circumstances under which it may be appropriate or inappropriate to "get even." Research with both adults and children supports the idea that holding certain beliefs may increase one's likelihood of taking revenge (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Erdley & Asher, 1998; Stuckless & Goranson,

1993). For example, Stuckless and Goranson (1992) designed a measure to assess individual attitudes towards vengeance. The scale contains items pertaining to attitudes about revenge (e.g., “There is nothing wrong with getting back at someone who has hurt you” and “Revenge is morally wrong”) but unfortunately it also includes self-report items about behavior (e.g., “I don’t get mad, I get even”). The scale has been found to be positively associated with self-reports of recent vengeance behavior and self-reported behavior in hypothetical situations, supporting the idea attitudes about revenge may help to predict the likelihood that one will actually take revenge.

A measure of attitudes about reciprocity was devised by Eisenberger et al. (2004) who built on the work of Gouldner (1960). Gouldner suggested that whereas positive reciprocity beliefs may be a starting mechanism to encourage individuals to interact cooperatively, negative reciprocity norms would comprise a separate set of beliefs favoring retribution as the correct and proper way to respond to unfavorable treatment. Eisenberger et al. (2004) developed a measure containing both negative and positive reciprocity belief items to test this hypothesis. Positive reciprocity beliefs were measured using items about returning kindnesses for kindnesses (e.g. “If someone does something for me, I feel required to do something for them”), whereas the negative reciprocity items assessed beliefs about returning harm for harm (e.g. “If someone treats you badly, you should treat that person badly in return”). Eisenberger et al. (2004) found that among college students negative and positive reciprocity norms were distinct from each other and were only weakly correlated.

In a second study, Eisenberger and colleagues (2004) devised an analog situation to investigate whether negative reciprocity beliefs predict revenge behavior. Participants were brought into the lab and interacted with a confederate who either treated them pleasantly or unpleasantly. Individuals who were treated unfavorably by the confederate more often retaliated by returning the negative treatment. They disagreed more with the confederate, showed greater anger, greater ridicule, less encouragement, and less positive emotional engagement than the other groups. However, endorsement of the negative reciprocity norm moderated the effects of the confederate's behavior on the participant's revenge behavior. In the unfavorable treatment condition, individuals who more strongly endorsed negative reciprocity retaliated more by treating the confederate more negatively after being provoked than participants who did not endorse negative reciprocity as strongly.

The present study builds on Eisenberger et al.'s (2004) work by examining the reciprocity beliefs of children in relation to their revenge goals. I hypothesize that the association between negative interpretations, like rejection and disrespect, and revenge goals will be moderated by negative reciprocity beliefs. If a child interprets a conflict in a negative manner but does not endorse negative reciprocity beliefs, the child may be less likely to desire revenge than a child who interprets the conflict in the same way but has strong beliefs in negative reciprocity.

Beliefs about the Legitimacy of Aggression

Another set of beliefs that may affect whether revenge goals are pursued are beliefs about the legitimacy of aggression. Slaby and Guerra (1988) and Huesman and Guerra (1997) initiated research on the topic to study whether beliefs about aggression predict aggressive behavior. Erdley and Asher (1998) later adapted Slaby and Guerra's measure by using a 1 to 5 scale (rather than using true and false items) and by creating more items. Eight items were added that asked children about the legitimacy of engaging in verbal aggression under various circumstances, and eight items were added that asked children about the legitimacy of engaging in physical aggression under the same circumstances. In response to vignettes portraying ambiguous provocations (e.g., a child spills milk on the participant), children who more highly endorsed beliefs in the legitimacy of aggression gave higher ratings to aggressive strategies (e.g. "pour milk on the boy's back the next day" or "say something mean to him," both of which could be considered revenge responses) than children who were lower in their endorsement of these beliefs. High endorsers of the legitimacy of aggression were also perceived by peers to be more aggressive.

In conflict situations, beliefs about aggression being legitimate could increase revenge tendencies, as well as increase the potency of negative interpretations on revenge goals. Individuals who do believe that aggression is not legitimate may be less likely to be revenge motivated, even when they interpret the conflict negatively, compared to individuals who think that aggression is legitimate.

Review of Research Questions

Some of the research questions were designed to replicate findings that have been found in prior work with children and adolescents in close relationship contexts. Other questions are designed to test hypotheses not previously investigated. These hypotheses are noted with an asterisk. This study will build on prior work by examining children's conflicts with general peers. All research questions are specifically outlined below.

- Q₁: Are interpretations of disrespect positively associated with revenge goals?
- Q₂: Is disrespect sensitivity positively associated with interpretations of disrespect in conflict situations? *
- Q₃: Is disrespect sensitivity associated with increased desires for revenge as mediated by disrespect interpretations? *
- Q₄: Are interpretations of rejection positively associated with revenge goals?
- Q₅: Is rejection sensitivity positively associated with interpretations of rejection?
- Q₆: Is rejection sensitivity associated with increased desires for revenge as mediated through rejection interpretations? *
- Q₇: Are interpretations of disrespect and interpretations of rejection differentially associated with revenge goals?
- Q₈: Are there gender differences in revenge goals in conflict situations?
- Q₉: Are there gender differences in the endorsement of rejection and disrespect interpretations? *
- Q₁₀: Are rejection and disrespect interpretations differentially related to revenge responses by gender? *
- Q₁₁: Do beliefs about reciprocity moderate the association between negative interpretations and revenge goals? *

Q₁₂: Do beliefs about the legitimacy of aggression moderate the association between negative interpretations and revenge goals? *

CHAPTER 2

Method

Participants

Participants were seventh graders from a suburban school in the Chicago area. Consent letters were sent by first-class mail to the parents of 378 seventh graders (Appendix A). Parents were asked to contact the school or the researchers if they did not want their child to participate or had any questions. Although one parent contacted the primary investigator to ask questions about the study, all children received consent from parents to participate. This consent process is justified in that the research involved minimal risk for the participants. Previous research with sociometric assessments has found that they have no adverse effects on children's peer relations (Bell-Dolan, Foster, & Sikora, 1989; Hayvren & Hymel, 1984) nor do these methods increase loneliness or hurt feelings (Bell-Dolan et al., 1989; Iverson, Barton, & Iverson, 1997). Further, evidence shows that when using written consent forms and only 10% of the children do not participate because their consent form was not returned, sociometric assessments lose accuracy (Crick & Ladd, 1989) and are less generalizable to different populations (Kearney, Hopkins, Mauss, & Weisheir, 1983; Frame & Strauss, 1987; Severson & Avry, 1983)

Eleven of the originally recruited students did not complete all of the measures. One participant was chronically sick and was not present during any of the data collection days. Three participants moved during the middle of the study and therefore did not

complete all data collection sessions. Five students chose to opt out of participation in one or more of the data collection sessions, and two students did not complete 75% of the items in one or more of the measures. Thus, 367 seventh graders (54.77% male; 44.95% female) participated in all three sessions, yielding a participation rate of 97.09% of the total recruited sample. Comparing the students who did not complete all parts of the study to those that did, chi-square analyses revealed that students did not differ on race/ethnicity composition ($\chi^2 = .59, p > .05$), gender composition ($\chi^2 = .00, p > .05$), or age ($t = 1.74, p > .05$).

On average, participants were just over 12 years old ($M = 12.16$ years). Most (77.2%) participants were White, Non-Hispanic. Other children were Hispanic (12.7%), African- American (3.8%), Asian (1.9%), or “other” (4.3%). Students were from working-class or middle-class backgrounds. Out of the entire seventh-grade class, only 8.31% of the students received free or reduced-price lunch.

Seventh-grade students were divided by the school into three instructional teams ranging in size from 61 students to 171 students. Most of each student’s coursework was taken solely with children within their team. Chi-square analyses revealed that the smallest team ($n = 61$) had more Hispanic students than what was expected ($\chi^2 = 23.22, p < .01$) but otherwise did not differ on racial/ethnic composition. Also, the largest team ($n = 171$) had fewer female students than expected ($\chi^2 = 6.13, p < .05$). Teams did not differ on average age, $F(2, 364) = .00, p > .05$.

Measures

Vignettes. Participants responded to 12 vignettes depicting two kinds of conflict situations with peers (Appendix B). Six vignettes were used to depict each type. One type was minor conflict-of-interest situations which have been those used by other investigators in the study of children's goals and strategies in conflict. An example is below:

You are at a recreation center after school. The woman in charge tells you that you can do whatever you want for half an hour. Both you and another kid walk over to a television set in the room to watch TV. You want to watch a show you really like. The other kid tells you that his/her favorite show is also on right now.

The other vignettes depicted more serious offenses. These vignettes were modeled after some of the laboratory paradigms that have been used in social psychology to study the affects of rejection on aggressive responding. Accordingly, these six situations depicted some form of exclusion followed by an insult or criticism. An example of one of these more major provocation situations is below:

There are two students that you know who are picking teams to play a game. This is a game you think you are really good at and you think that you can do really well for your team. There are an uneven number of people who want to play so it looks like someone will be left out. As people are being chosen, you realize that a lot of other players are being picked before you. Finally, there are only two players left: you and another kid. The other kid gets picked and you are left out and cannot play. One of the kids says, "I am glad you aren't on my team."

All 12 situations were designed with ecological validity in mind. All vignettes depicted realistic situations that children might actually encounter in their daily school

lives. The more serious vignettes were also designed to elicit greater variability in revenge goal endorsement than the more minor conflict of interest situations because as Vidmar (2000) stated one of the precursors to revenge is attributing intentional inexcusable harm by an offender. Vignettes were intermixed so that they alternated between the minor provocation scenarios and the more serious provocation situations. Three semi-random orders were established so that each team of seventh graders received a different order of vignettes.

During group testing sessions, researchers read the vignettes aloud to participants while they followed along. Participants were instructed to imagine that the situation in the vignette really happened to them. A practice item was included in the measure to ensure that children understood the questions as well as how to correctly use the scales. This procedure is similar to that used in previous research using vignettes with children (Chung & Asher, 1996; Erdley & Asher, 1997; Rose & Asher, 1999; 2004). In response to every vignette, participants rated four emotions, seven interpretations, eight strategies, and ten goals on a scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 10 (strongly agree). Note that participants rated more emotions, interpretations, strategies, and goals than were of interest in this study and only rejection and disrespect interpretations and revenge goals will be examined in great detail. Also, participants always responded to the vignettes by rating, in order, their emotions, interpretations, strategies, and goals. Previous research has found that the order of assessment (i.e., goals before strategies or strategies before

goals) does not have an effect on how goals and strategies are related (e.g., Chung & Asher, 1996; Rose & Asher, 1999).

In order to assess emotions, participants were asked, “How would you feel in this situation?” Then participants rated their emotions including feeling *angry* (i.e., “I would be angry”), having *hurt feelings* (i.e., “My feelings would be hurt”), feeling *sad* (i.e., “I would be sad”), and feeling *fine* (i.e., “I would feel fine”).

Then participants were asked, “What would you be thinking in this situation?” The interpretations that participants rated included *rejection* (i.e., “This person doesn’t like me”), *disrespect* (i.e., “This person does not respect me”), *judgment of wrongdoing* (i.e., “This person’s behavior is wrong”), *disassociation* (i.e., “This person doesn’t want to be with me”), whether the conflict was *resolvable* (i.e., “This person and I can easily make-up”), whether the act by the other was *unintentional* (i.e., “This person did not mean to hurt me”), whether a friendship with the offender was *unviable* (i.e., “This person and I could never be friends”), whether the participant attributed the situation to be “*my fault*” (i.e., “What happened was my fault”), and whether the conflict was appraised as *not worthy of being upset about* (i.e., “What this person did is not worth getting upset about”).

Following their interpretations, participants were asked, “What would you do in this situation?” Then students rated a set of their strategies, including *leaving* (i.e., “I would leave or walk away”), *ignoring* (i.e., “I would ignore what the person did”), *verbal aggression* (i.e., “I would say something mean or insulting to this person”), *passive*

aggression (i.e., “I would act cold and unfriendly towards this person”), *physical aggression* (i.e., “I would hit or push this person”), *relational aggression* (i.e., “I would spread rumors or bad gossip about this person behind their back”), *prosocial resolution* (i.e., “I would talk nicely to this person so that we could make up”), and *seeking out the teacher* (i.e., “I would tell the teacher what happened and ask for help”).

Lastly, participants were asked, “What would your goals be in this situation?” The goals that participants rated included *revenge* (i.e., “I would be trying to get back at this person”; “I would be trying to hurt this person like they hurt me”), *emotional regulation* (i.e., “I would be trying to not get upset”), *getting along* with the person (i.e., “I would be trying to get along with this person”), *control* (i.e., “I would be trying to keep myself from being pushed around”), *harm avoidance* (i.e., “I would be trying to avoid getting hurt more”), *forgiveness* (i.e., “I would be trying to forgive this person”), *gaining partner acceptance* (i.e., “I would be trying to get this person to like me), *gaining partner respect* (i.e., “I would be trying to get this person to respect me”), *gaining group acceptance* (i.e., “I would be trying to get other kids to like me”), and *gaining group respect* (i.e., “I would be trying to get other kids to respect me”).

Rejection Sensitivity. Participants completed a modified version of the Rejection Sensitivity Scale for Children (Ayduk et al., 2000; Appendix C). The measure was modified from the original so that all the vignettes depicted situations with peers [similar to modifications were made by Guerra (2007)]. The situations in which potential rejection came from the teacher were removed and some new peer situations were added.

The modified measure consisted of eight scenarios in which participants were asked to rate how nervous they would be in the situation and if they anticipated being rejected. Thus, the measure yields two subscales: Rejection Expectations ($\alpha = .72$) and Anxiety about Rejection ($\alpha = .86$). In previous research with this measure (e.g., Ayduk et al., 2000), the Anxiety about Rejection score was multiplied by the Rejection Expectation score for each scenario and then these scores were averaged across scenarios to compute an average rejection sensitivity score ($\alpha = .82$). However in the present study these scales were kept separate in order to keep these scales more conceptually pure.

Disrespect Sensitivity. The Disrespect Sensitivity measure (Appendix D), newly developed for this study, consisted of 36 items designed to measure the child's tendency to expect disrespect from others. Items were answered on a scale "1" (strongly disagree) to "10" (strongly agree). Eighteen items were designed to examine if individuals detect general disrespect cues from others and generally interpret social information to be disrespectful. There were also items eighteen items designed to measure sensitivity to disrespect in specific domains (e.g., "when people make me look silly in front of others" or "when others don't listen to what I have to say").

Beliefs about Reciprocity. The Beliefs about Reciprocity scale (Appendix E) was modified from Eisenberger et al. (2004) so that all of the items pertained to beliefs. The previous version of the measure included items about behaviors. These items were removed and replaced with additional belief items. The revised scale consists of 18 items equally split between negative and positive reciprocity beliefs. Items were responded to

on a scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Exploratory factor analysis using principal axis factoring and a promax rotation was completed (Appendix F). Items fell cleanly into two scales, Positive Reciprocity Beliefs ($\alpha = .88$) and Negative Reciprocity Beliefs ($\alpha = .96$), with the two factors accounting for 66.03% of the variance. The two subscales were moderately correlated ($r = -.31, p < .05$).

Beliefs about the Legitimacy of Aggression. The Beliefs about the Legitimacy of Aggression scale (Appendix G) is the 16-item measure adapted by Erdley and Asher (1998) from Slaby and Guerra (1988). Participants indicated how appropriate they thought it was to engage in two kinds of aggressive behaviors (i.e., verbal and physical aggression) under eight different contexts. Participants responded to each item on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Internal reliability was high for the measure ($\alpha = .93$) and exploratory factor analysis using principal axis factoring and a promax rotation found that all items loaded on one factor, accounting for 54.05% of the variance in observed scores.

Behavioral Nominations. Participants completed a 15-item behavioral assessment measure in which they are asked to nominate classmates who fit particular behavioral descriptors. This measure was based upon the items used in the behavioral nomination measures of other researchers (Cillessen & Mayeux, 2004; Crick & Grotpeter, 1995; Gest, Graham-Bermann, & Hartup, 2001; Parkhurst & Asher, 1992; Tomada & Schneider, 1997; Troop-Gordon & Asher, 2005). Of relevance to this study, on one item participants were asked to nominate classmates who were disrespect sensitive and on

another item participants were asked to nominate classmates who were rejection sensitive. Other items measured the constructs of aggressive behavior and prosocial behavior.

Each behavioral descriptor was presented on a separate page, with the item on the top of the page above the class or grade roster (an example with fictitious names is given in Appendix H). Since seventh grade teams varied greatly in the number students on each team (ranging from 61 to 171), it was decided that each student's nomination rosters would have a number of students equal to the smallest team (i.e., 61 names). For larger teams, a computer program randomly generated the rosters so that every child had sixty-one names from which to nominate for each behavioral nomination and each child was listed 61 times on the rosters of other children for each behavioral nomination. On each randomly generated list, classmates' names were presented in alphabetical order.

Using an unlimited nominations procedure, children were instructed to circle the names of all classmates who fit each particular descriptor. Children were also given the option of crossing out names of children who they did not know at all. The perceived disrespect sensitivity item read, "For some kids feeling respected is really important. It really matters to them that other people treat them with respect. These are the sort of kids who are quick to feel disrespected and who get really upset if they feel like they have been disrespected. Circle the names of the people in your class who fit this description." The perceived rejection sensitivity item read, "For some kids feeling liked and included is really important. It really matters to them that other people like them and include them.

These are the sorts of kids who are quick to feel disliked or left out and who get really upset if they feel like they are disliked or have been left out. Circle the names of the people in your class who fit this description.”

A child’s score for each behavior item was computed as the proportion of nominations for that item that the child received divided by the total number of classmates who knew the child and therefore responded to that item for that child. In other words, the denominator was not the number of students who had the opportunity to nominate peers for an item but rather the number of students who did not cross that student off their list (thus indicating that they knew who the student was). These proportion scores were normalized using an arcsine transformation. Scores were not standardized within team or gender. Standardizing scores might obscure differences that were inherent among teams or among boys and girls (for further explanation, see Parkhurst & Asher, 1992).

Procedure

Before the first session began, children were told the purpose of the study. They were also told that they did not have to participate, and that if they did choose to participate they could skip any questions that they did not want to answer and could stop at any time without any negative consequences. Any questions that the children had were also answered. The script for obtaining child assent is presented in Appendix I.

Similar to obtaining child assent in session 1, in subsequent data collection sessions children’s rights as research participants were reviewed with them. Researchers

also reasserted that the students could choose whether or not they wanted to participate. As mentioned earlier, five children chose not to participate in one or more of the sessions, indicating that children understood their rights as research participants.

The primary investigator and a research assistant administered measures to children in children's classrooms at school. Participants completed measures for this study during three 40-minute-long classroom sessions, spaced approximately a week apart. A fourth session was also held to administer various other measures (e.g., sociometric measures and friendship nominations, a measure of loneliness, a measure of school belonging, and a measure of students' interests in receiving help with peer relationship problems) that were not part of the present study.

In the first session, participants completed six of the vignettes, which were randomly ordered. They also completed six peer behavioral nominations, including the peer nomination of disrespect sensitivity. In the second session, students completed the remaining six vignettes and completed another nine peer behavioral nominations, including the nominations for rejection sensitivity. In the third session, students completed the Rejection Sensitivity measure, the Disrespect Sensitivity questionnaire, the Beliefs about Reciprocity scale, and the Beliefs about the Legitimacy of Aggression scale. These four measures were presented in a different random order for each of the middle school teams.

CHAPTER 3

Results

Results are reported in five main sections. In the first section, data reduction, psychometric analyses, and descriptive statistics for the vignettes, Disrespect Sensitivity Scale, and behavioral nominations are presented. The second section examines gender differences in vignette responses, rejection and disrespect sensitivities, and the belief scales. The third section presents the associations among rejection and disrespect interpretations with revenge goals, as well as whether these associations differ for boys and girls. The fourth section examines how rejection sensitivity and disrespect sensitivity relate to revenge goals and whether interpretations mediate these associations. Finally, the last section presents analyses about how beliefs are associated with revenge goals and whether they moderate the relation between interpretations and revenge goals in conflict-of-interest situations and major provocation situations.

Data Reduction, Psychometric Analyses, and Descriptive Statistics

Vignettes. Internal reliabilities were computed for all the emotions, interpretations, goals and strategies in both conflict-of-interest and major provocation situations (see Table 1). Internal reliabilities ranged from acceptable ($\alpha = .70$) to high ($\alpha = .95$). Next, vignette ratings for each emotion, interpretation, goal, and strategy were averaged across vignettes to compute mean scores for each item in both the conflict-of-interest situations and the major provocation situations. Table 2 shows the means and

Table 1. *Internal Reliabilities for Emotions, Interpretations, Goals, and Strategies for Conflicts of Interest and Major Provocations*

| | Cronbach Alphas | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| | Conflicts of Interest | Major Provocations |
| Emotions | | |
| Anger | .76 | .85 |
| Hurt | .77 | .90 |
| Sad | .77 | .91 |
| Fine | .77 | .83 |
| Interpretations | | |
| Rejection | .73 | .80 |
| Disrespect | .79 | .83 |
| Judgment of Wrongdoing | .79 | .86 |
| Disassociation | .78 | .82 |
| Resolvable | .83 | .84 |
| Unintentional | .73 | .70 |
| Unviable | .72 | .76 |
| My fault | .80 | .79 |
| Not worth getting upset about | .72 | .80 |

Table 1 (continued). *Internal Reliabilities for Emotions, Interpretations, Goals, and Strategies for Conflicts of Interest and Major Provocations*

| | Cronbach Alphas | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| | Conflicts of Interest | Major Provocations |
| Goals | | |
| Revenge | .95 | .91 |
| Emotional Regulation | .82 | .83 |
| Get along | .88 | .89 |
| Control | .89 | .89 |
| Harm Avoidance | .87 | .90 |
| Forgiveness | .89 | .92 |
| Gaining Partner Acceptance | .90 | .91 |
| Gaining Partner Respect | .91 | .92 |
| Gaining Group Acceptance | .94 | .95 |
| Gaining Group Respect | .94 | .95 |
| Strategies | | |
| Leaving | .71 | .78 |
| Ignoring | .74 | .78 |
| Verbal aggression | .86 | .93 |
| Passive aggression | .85 | .91 |
| Physical aggression | .84 | .92 |
| Relational aggression | .83 | .92 |
| Prosocial | .88 | .91 |
| Seek Help From Teacher | .89 | .91 |

standard deviations for each emotion, interpretation, goal, and strategy in both conflict contexts.

Within-subject t-tests were conducted as a manipulation check in order to investigate whether scores for emotions, interpretations, goals, and strategies differed by context (see Table 2). It was found that participants endorsed anger, sadness, and hurt feelings more strongly in the major provocation situations than in the conflict-of-interest situations, and they felt “fine” more in the conflict-of-interest situations than in the major provocation situations. Further, participants interpreted the behavior of the offender in the major provocation situations to be more rejecting, disrespecting, disassociating, and wrong than in the conflict-of-interest situations. Interpretations of the relationship being unviable were also higher in major provocation situations than in conflict-of-interest situations. Interpretations of the conflict being resolvable, unintentional, not worth getting upset about, and the participant’s own fault were higher in conflict-of-interest situations than in major provocation situations.

Regarding goals in conflict, in the major provocation situations participants endorsed the goals of revenge, control, and harm avoidance more than in conflicts of interest. The goals of getting along, emotion regulation, forgiveness, gaining partner acceptance, and gaining partner respect were endorsed more in conflicts of interest than in major provocation situations. Context differences were not found for either the gaining group acceptance or gaining group respect goals.

Table 2. Means, Standard Deviations, and Within-Subjects T-Tests for Emotions, Interpretations, Goals, and Strategies in Conflict of Interest and Major Provocation Situations

| Items | Conflicts of Interest <i>M (SD)</i> | Major Provocations <i>M (SD)</i> | <i>t</i> (1, 366) |
|-------------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|-------------------|
| Emotions | | | |
| Anger | 3.75 (1.68) | 6.96 (2.09) | 31.33*** |
| Hurt | 2.51 (1.39) | 6.22 (2.53) | 31.97*** |
| Sad | 2.56 (1.43) | 5.35 (2.73) | 24.50*** |
| Fine | 7.23 (1.78) | 4.15 (1.96) | 29.05*** |
| Interpretations | | | |
| Rejection | 2.87 (1.45) | 7.08 (1.86) | 39.23*** |
| Disrespect | 3.17 (1.74) | 7.19 (2.01) | 35.42*** |
| Judgment of Wrongdoing | 3.08 (1.73) | 7.35 (2.08) | 37.30*** |
| Disassociation | 3.14 (1.64) | 7.27 (1.91) | 36.91*** |
| Resolvable | 7.26 (1.93) | 4.29 (1.94) | 29.13*** |
| Unintentional | 7.26 (1.93) | 3.53 (1.57) | 32.16*** |
| Unviable | 2.43 (1.32) | 4.91 (1.95) | 26.87*** |
| My fault | 2.34 (1.41) | 1.86 (1.12) | 7.59*** |
| Not worth getting upset about | 8.14 (1.66) | 5.63 (2.16) | 22.67*** |

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 2 (continued). *Means, Standard Deviations, and Within-Subjects T-Tests for Emotions, Interpretations, Goals, and Strategies in Conflict of Interest and Major Provocation Situations*

| Items | Conflicts of Interest <i>M (SD)</i> | Major Provocations <i>M (SD)</i> | <i>t</i> (1, 366) |
|----------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|----------------------|
| Goals | | | |
| Revenge | 2.16 (1.40) | 3.33 (2.22) | 15.02 ^{***} |
| Emotional Regulation | 7.14 (2.17) | 6.79 (2.08) | 4.45 ^{***} |
| Get along | 7.17 (2.16) | 4.98 (2.33) | 23.13 ^{***} |
| Control | 7.70 (2.07) | 7.87 (1.97) | 2.73 ^{**} |
| Harm Avoidance | 7.01 (2.34) | 7.37 (2.26) | 6.30 ^{***} |
| Forgiveness | 7.13 (2.28) | 5.15 (2.63) | 20.61 ^{***} |
| Gaining Partner Acceptance | 6.78 (2.46) | 5.41 (2.06) | 14.72 ^{***} |
| Gaining Partner Respect | 7.34 (2.27) | 6.69 (2.63) | 7.94 ^{***} |
| Gaining Group Acceptance | 7.22 (2.46) | 7.15 (2.55) | 1.61 |
| Gaining Group Respect | 7.45 (2.38) | 7.49 (2.46) | .90 |
| Strategies | | | |
| Leaving | 5.34 (2.08) | 6.17 (2.26) | 7.77 ^{***} |
| Ignoring | 6.04 (2.14) | 5.95 (2.23) | .72 |
| Verbal aggression | 2.19 (1.47) | 3.63 (2.50) | 15.78 ^{***} |
| Passive aggression | 2.15 (1.44) | 3.85 (2.50) | 17.40 ^{***} |
| Physical aggression | 1.69 (1.20) | 2.52 (2.16) | 10.67 ^{***} |
| Relational aggression | 1.62 (1.06) | 2.44 (2.06) | 11.00 ^{***} |
| Prosocial | 6.85 (2.20) | 4.48 (2.36) | 24.76 ^{***} |
| Seek Help From Teacher | 3.83 (2.53) | 4.28 (2.75) | 5.20 ^{***} |

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

With regard to strategies, in the provocation situations participants endorsed leaving, verbal aggression, passive aggression, physical aggression, relational aggression, and seeking help from a teacher more than in the conflict-of-interest situations. Participants also endorsed prosocial strategies more in conflicts of interest than in the major provocation situations. No difference was found between contexts on the strategy of ignoring the other person's behavior.

Disrespect sensitivity. Because the Disrespect Sensitivity measure was newly developed for this study, exploratory factor analysis was conducted to examine how the items loaded. Exploratory factor analyses using principal axis factoring with a promax rotation were used under the assumption that factors would be correlated with one another. In the initial factor analysis, the number of factors was not constrained, however, the scree plot indicated that there was a large drop in the eigenvalues between the third and fourth factors. Thus, a second factor analysis was conducted that was constrained to three factors. Table 3 shows the factor loadings for the three factors that accounted for a total of 46.24% of the variance in the observed variables. Examination of the three factors revealed that three items (items 13, 14, and 15) did not cleanly load on only one factor and these items were removed.

All 18 items that loaded on Factor 1 were about participants' situational tendencies to be disrespected. Thus, this factor was termed *Situational Disrespect*. The internal reliability for this scale was high ($\alpha = .93$). Factor 3 contained six items which all measured *Vigilance for Negative Treatment* ($\alpha = .84$). Factor 2 contained two types of

Table 3. *Factor Loadings for the Disrespect Sensitivity Measure*

| Items | Factor Loadings | | |
|--|-----------------|----------|----------|
| | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 |
| Factor 1 (Situational Disrespect) | | | |
| 9. I feel disrespected when someone says something mean to me. | .81 | .40 | .23 |
| 14. I feel disrespected when people don't include me in the group. | .77 | .36 | .32 |
| 17. I feel disrespected when a group is making a decision and I don't get to say what I think. | .75 | .26 | .22 |
| 15. I feel disrespected when people tease me. | .74 | .41 | .25 |
| 3. I feel disrespected when people don't listen to what I have to say. | .74 | .25 | .38 |
| 4. I feel disrespected when I am treated unfairly. | .73 | .30 | .39 |
| 8. I feel disrespected when someone gossips about me. | .73 | .39 | .31 |
| 13. I feel disrespected when people don't trust me to do things right. | .71 | .30 | .34 |
| 5. I feel disrespected when someone walks away when I am talking to them. | .68 | .42 | .23 |
| 18. I feel disrespected when I am not invited to something other kids are invited to. | .68 | .27 | .20 |
| 10. I feel disrespected when people criticize me. | .67 | .28 | .28 |
| 7. I feel disrespected when someone doesn't ask for my opinion when making a decision. | .63 | .12 | .29 |

Table 3 (continued). *Factor Loadings for the Disrespect Sensitivity Measure*

| Items | Factor Loadings | | |
|--|-----------------|------------|----------|
| | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 |
| 6. I feel disrespected when people use my stuff without asking me. | .60 | .17 | .31 |
| 1. I feel disrespected when someone makes me look silly in front of other people. | .59 | .20 | .33 |
| 11. I feel disrespected when people insult my friends. | .57 | .28 | .33 |
| 16. I feel disrespected when people insult my family. | .55 | .34 | .31 |
| 12. I feel disrespected when people don't understand that I should be the leader of an activity. | .48 | .11 | .19 |
| 2. I feel disrespected when people disagree with me. | .46 | .00 | .27 |
| Factor 2 (Importance of Respect and Disrespect Expectations) | | | |
| 16. It is important that people show that they respect you. † | .40 | .71 | .20 |
| 17. It is important to let people know that they should respect you. † | .36 | .69 | .21 |
| 11. It is important to pay attention to whether others respect you. † | .30 | .64 | .06 |
| 10. People tend to treat others with the respect they deserve. * | .12 | .57 | -.22 |
| 2. Most people will respect you. * | .10 | .56 | -.25 |

Table 3 (continued). *Factor Loadings for the Disrespect Sensitivity Measure*

| Items | Factor Loadings | | |
|--|-----------------|------------|------------|
| | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 |
| 9. It is more important to be respected than liked. † | .20 | .53 | .08 |
| 4. People tend to respect you as much as you deserve to be respected. * | .05 | .53 | -.36 |
| 5. <i>It is best to act in ways so that other people know that you are a person who should be treated right.</i> | .24 | .51 | .19 |
| 8. People tend to treat others in a kind and respectful way. * | .06 | .51 | -.31 |
| 13. <i>People don't need to worry about being respected by other people.</i> | -.13 | -.20 | -.02 |
| Factor 3 (Vigilance for Negative Treatment) | | | |
| 6. People want to make you feel like they are better than you. | .33 | -.03 | .76 |
| 18. If you are not careful, people will make you feel like you are no good. | .33 | .04 | .71 |
| 1. People are always trying to make themselves look like they are better than you. | .26 | -.04 | .70 |
| 7. Signs that others disrespect you are everywhere. | .25 | -.12 | .69 |
| 3. Lots of people will treat you badly if you are not careful. | .29 | -.02 | .66 |
| 12. A lot of people can be very disrespectful. | .24 | .07 | .52 |

Table 3 (continued). *Factor Loadings for the Disrespect Sensitivity Measure*

| Items | Factor Loadings | | |
|--|-----------------|------------|------------|
| | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 |
| <i>14. People won't respect you as much as you deserve, so you should make sure to show them otherwise.</i> | .29 | .36 | .37 |
| <i>15. If you look at other people's faces it is easy to see whether they think that you are less important than them.</i> | .22 | .18 | .36 |

Notes. The primary loadings for each factor are bolded. Items in italics were removed from the scale. Items marked with † were used to make the *Importance of Respect* subscale. Items marked with * were reverse scored and used to create the *Disrespect Expectations* subscale.

items. Some items appeared to measure how important respect is for participants and other items appeared to measure expectations of respect from other people. In order to devise scales that were conceptually clean this factor was divided into two different scales, and one item was dropped that did not conceptually fit in either scale (item 5 on page 58). The *Importance of Respect* subscale consisted of four items and had good internal reliability ($\alpha = .79$). The *Disrespect Expectations* subscale consisted of four items that were reverse scored and also had good internal reliability ($\alpha = .79$).

Table 4 shows the correlations between the four different components of the Disrespect Sensitivity measure. All correlations were statistically significant even though they were relatively small. The *Importance of Respect* was positively correlated with *Situational Disrespect* and negatively associated with *Disrespect Expectations*. *Vigilance for Negative Treatment* was positively associated with *Situational Disrespect* and *Disrespect Expectations*. Also, there was a positive relation between *Vigilance for Negative Treatment* and the *Importance of Respect* as well as a negative association between *Disrespect Expectations* and *Situational Disrespect*, although both of these correlations were very modest. These varied and small to moderate associations, along with evidence of good internal reliability for distinct factors, suggest that the measure can be viewed as having four distinct subscales whose relations with revenge goals and interpretations can be examined together as well as separately.

Table 4. *Correlations among Disrespect Sensitivity Factors*

| | Importance of Respect | Disrespect Expectations | Vigilance for Negative Treatment |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|--|
| Situational Disrespect | .40 ^{***} | -.11 [*] | .36 ^{***} |
| Importance of Respect | | -.43 ^{***} | .12 [*] |
| Disrespect Expectations | | | .28 ^{***} |

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Peer nominations. Descriptive statistics for peer nominations of disrespect and rejection sensitivity were also examined. On average, children were nominated as disrespect sensitive by 17.26% ($SD = 9.15\%$) of their rating peers. Similarly, children were nominated as rejection sensitive by 12.10% ($SD = 8.05\%$) of their rating peers.

Using the arcsine transformation of the behavioral rating proportion scores, a series of correlation analyses were performed. The associations between children's received peer nominations for disrespect and rejection sensitivity with self-reported disrespect and rejection sensitivity were examined. Finding that peer-reported disrespect sensitivity correlated more with self-reported disrespect sensitivity than rejection sensitivity and peer-reported rejection sensitivity correlated more with self-reported rejection sensitivity than with disrespect sensitivity, would support these being distinct constructs.

First, behavioral nominations for Disrespect and Rejection Sensitivity were highly correlated ($r = .63, p < .001$). Further, as seen in Table 5, nominations of rejection sensitivity were related to both subscales of self-reported rejection sensitivity, anxiety about rejection and rejection expectations. However, peer nominations of rejection sensitivity were also related to two subscales of disrespect sensitivity, namely disrespect expectations and vigilance for negative treatment, although the correlations were rather small. Nominations of disrespect sensitivity were related only to self-reports of anxiety about rejection. Thus, peer reports of rejection and disrespect sensitivity do not

Table 5. *Correlations of Behavioral Nominations with Rejection and Disrespect Interpretations, Revenge Goals, Rejection Sensitivity, and Disrespect Sensitivity*

| | Behavioral Nominations | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|
| | Disrespect Sensitivity | Rejection Sensitivity |
| Rejection Sensitivity | | |
| Anxiety about Rejection | .10* | .12* |
| Rejection Expectations | .08 | .13* |
| Disrespect Sensitivity | | |
| Situational Disrespect | .00 | .00 |
| Importance of Respect | -.04 | -.09 |
| Disrespect Expectations | .09 | .12* |
| Vigilance for Negative Treatment | .05 | .17** |

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

differentiate between the self reports of these same constructs. Due to these findings, only self reports of these constructs will be examined in the rest of the analyses.

Ethnic differences. Ethnic groups were drastically unequal in group size and their variances on the measures of interest were not equivalent. If ethnic groups were compared and gender differences were also controlled the cell sizes would get even smaller (e.g., for the smallest cell $n = 2$). Rather than inaccurately representing differences, ethnic groups were not compared on the variables of interest.

Gender Differences

Overall means and standard deviations for reciprocity beliefs, legitimacy of aggression beliefs, rejection sensitivity, and the disrespect sensitivity scales are presented in Table 6. Additionally, Table 6 presents means and standard deviations by gender along with independent sample t-tests to examine gender differences. Boys were higher on negative reciprocity beliefs and legitimacy of aggression beliefs than were girls. Girls endorsed more anxiety about rejection than did boys. Boys also had higher disrespect expectations than did girls.

One of the research questions posed in this study regarded gender differences in rejection and disrespect interpretations as well as differences in revenge goal endorsement. In order to address these questions, gender differences in participants' responses to the vignettes were examined. Independent samples t-tests comparing boys and girls responses were conducted. The results from these analyses are

Table 6. *Gender Differences and Descriptive Statistics for Belief Scales and Rejection and Disrespect Sensitivity Scales*

| Scale | Overall <i>M (SD)</i> | Boys <i>M (SD)</i> | Girls <i>M (SD)</i> | <i>t</i> (1,366) |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|---------------------|
| Positive Reciprocity Beliefs | 6.48 (.69) | 6.44 (.68) | 6.54 (.71) | 1.29 |
| Negative Reciprocity Beliefs | 2.99 (1.67) | 3.33 (1.74) | 2.57 (1.50) | 4.42*** |
| Legitimacy of Aggression Beliefs | 1.97 (.81) | 2.14 (.82) | 1.77 (.73) | 4.54*** |
| Anxiety about Rejection | 2.90 (1.09) | 2.79 (1.07) | 3.02 (1.11) | 2.10* |
| Rejection Expectations | 3.07 (.74) | 3.14 (.73) | 3.00 (.74) | 1.82 |
| Situational Disrespect | 7.32 (1.62) | 7.36 (1.61) | 7.27 (1.64) | .56 |
| Importance of Respect | 6.94 (1.84) | 6.95 (1.89) | 6.93 (1.79) | .10 |
| Disrespect Expectations | 4.62 (1.87) | 4.84 (1.95) | 4.36 (1.75) | 2.43* |
| Vigilance for Negative Treatment | 6.38 (1.92) | 6.54 (1.88) | 6.19 (1.96) | 1.76 |

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

depicted in Table 7.

As seen in Table 7, boys and girls did not differ significantly in their rejection or disrespect interpretations in either vignette context. In fact, only three gender differences in interpretations were found. In the conflict-of-interest situations, girls were more likely to interpret the conflict as being unintentional and not worth getting upset about more than boys. In the major provocation situations, girls were also more likely to think that the conflict was resolvable than were boys.

However, results revealed gender differences in revenge goal endorsement in both vignette contexts. Boys endorsed revenge goals more than girls in both conflict-of-interest and major provocation situations. Girls more strongly endorsed the goal of getting along with the other person and the goal of forgiveness in both conflict-of-interest and major provocation situations.

Gender differences in emotions and strategies were also explored. In both the conflict-of-interest and the major provocation situations girls reported feeling more hurt and more sad than did boys. In the major provocation situations, boys reported feeling fine more than did girls. With regards to strategies, boys more strongly endorsed verbal, passive, and physical aggression in both conflict contexts. Importantly, boys and girls did not differ in the endorsement of relational aggression in either conflict context. Girls more strongly endorsed prosocial strategies in both conflicts of interest and provocation situations. Girls also reported that they were more likely to leave the situation than boys did in the major provocation situations.

Table 7. *Gender Differences in Emotions, Interpretations, Goals, and Strategies in Conflicts of Interest and Major Provocation Situations*

| | Conflicts of Interest | | | Major Provocations | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
| | Boys <i>M (SD)</i> | Girls <i>M (SD)</i> | <i>t</i> (1, 365) | Boys <i>M (SD)</i> | Girls <i>M (SD)</i> | <i>t</i> (1, 365) |
| Emotions | | | | | | |
| Anger | 3.66 (1.66) | 3.85 (1.71) | 1.09 | 6.88 (2.04) | 7.04 (2.16) | .73 |
| Hurt | 2.38 (1.37) | 2.67 (1.40) | 2.01* | 5.70 (2.60) | 6.84 (2.30) | 4.37*** |
| Sad | 2.41 (1.43) | 2.76 (1.41) | 2.34* | 4.81 (2.73) | 6.01 (2.56) | 4.32*** |
| Fine | 7.31 (1.72) | 7.11 (1.86) | 1.03 | 4.36 (1.93) | 3.90 (1.99) | 2.23* |
| Interpretations | | | | | | |
| Rejection | 2.82 (1.40) | 2.93 (1.52) | .70 | 7.12 (1.89) | 7.03 (1.85) | .45 |
| Disrespect | 3.18 (1.75) | 3.16 (1.73) | .12 | 7.31 (2.02) | 7.05 (2.00) | 1.22 |
| Judgment of Wrongdoing | 3.02 (1.76) | 3.18 (1.69) | .84 | 7.24 (2.17) | 7.48 (1.98) | 1.10 |
| Disassociation | 3.17 (1.63) | 3.11 (1.66) | .35 | 7.31 (1.89) | 7.20 (1.95) | .52 |
| Resolvable | 7.12 (1.93) | 7.39 (1.91) | 1.34 | 4.07 (1.98) | 4.54 (1.86) | 2.30* |
| Unintentional | 7.04 (1.84) | 7.49 (1.78) | 2.41* | 3.39 (1.66) | 3.71 (1.46) | 1.97 |
| Unviable | 2.55 (1.36) | 2.30 (1.27) | 1.83 | 4.95 (1.93) | 4.85 (1.95) | .50 |
| My fault | 2.39 (1.43) | 2.28 (1.40) | .73 | 1.89 (1.13) | 1.84 (1.11) | .37 |
| Not worth getting upset about | 7.97 (1.75) | 8.32 (1.52) | 2.10* | 5.47 (2.20) | 5.82 (2.12) | 1.56 |

Table 7 (continued). *Gender Differences in Emotions, Interpretations, Goals, and Strategies in Conflicts of Interest and Major Provocation Situations*

| | Conflicts of Interest | | | Major Provocations | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
| | Boys <i>M (SD)</i> | Girls <i>M (SD)</i> | <i>t</i> (1, 365) | Boys <i>M (SD)</i> | Girls <i>M (SD)</i> | <i>t</i> (1, 365) |
| Goals | | | | | | |
| Revenge | 2.31 (1.45) | 1.98 (1.33) | 3.38** | 3.68 (2.28) | 2.91 (2.07) | 2.26* |
| Emotional Regulation | 7.07 (2.19) | 7.20 (2.14) | .55 | 6.76 (2.17) | 6.80 (1.95) | .18 |
| Get along | 6.83 (2.24) | 7.54 (1.99) | 3.20** | 4.69 (2.37) | 5.31 (2.21) | 2.58** |
| Control | 7.80 (1.96) | 7.58 (2.20) | 1.02 | 7.91 (1.96) | 7.80 (2.00) | .50 |
| Harm Avoidance | 6.90 (2.38) | 7.11 (2.28) | .85 | 7.28 (2.34) | 7.46 (2.15) | .78 |
| Forgiveness | 6.72 (2.34) | 7.59 (2.12) | 3.74*** | 4.77 (2.63) | 5.58 (2.53) | 2.97** |
| Gaining Acceptance | 6.58 (2.47) | 6.99 (2.29) | 1.62 | 5.23 (2.63) | 5.61 (2.55) | 1.37 |
| Gaining Respect | 7.30 (2.31) | 7.39 (2.24) | .38 | 6.64 (2.67) | 6.74 (2.60) | .36 |
| Group Acceptance | 7.14 (2.52) | 7.32 (2.38) | .73 | 7.16 (2.58) | 7.14 (2.52) | .04 |
| Group Respect | 7.52 (2.37) | 7.36 (2.39) | .62 | 7.62 (2.45) | 7.32 (2.47) | 1.18 |

Table 7 (continued). *Gender Differences in Emotions, Interpretations, Goals, and Strategies in Conflicts of Interest and Major Provocation Situations*

| Strategies | Conflicts of Interest | | | Major Provocations | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
| | Boys <i>M (SD)</i> | Girls <i>M (SD)</i> | <i>t</i> (1, 365) | Boys <i>M (SD)</i> | Girls <i>M (SD)</i> | <i>t</i> (1, 365) |
| Leaving | 5.28 (2.161) | 5.44 (1.97) | .76 | 5.79 (2.36) | 6.64 (2.05) | 3.69*** |
| Ignoring | 5.87 (2.16) | 5.76 (2.35) | 1.85 | 5.76 (2.35) | 6.18 (2.04) | 1.82 |
| Verbal aggression | 2.34 (1.53) | 2.01 (1.38) | 2.16* | 4.09 (2.60) | 3.10 (2.28) | 3.90*** |
| Passive aggression | 2.34 (1.57) | 1.93 (1.23) | 2.78** | 4.22 (2.54) | 3.42 (2.40) | 3.10** |
| Physical aggression | 1.94 (1.42) | 1.40 (.79) | 4.52*** | 3.10 (2.40) | 1.82 (1.58) | 6.11*** |
| Relational aggression | 1.68 (1.10) | 1.55 (1.02) | 1.21 | 2.60 (2.16) | 2.28 (1.94) | 1.47 |
| Prosocial | 6.50 (2.27) | 7.25 (2.03) | 3.40** | 4.23 (2.40) | 4.77 (2.26) | 2.20* |
| Seek Help From Teacher | 3.94 (2.58) | 3.71 (2.47) | .88 | 4.26 (2.80) | 4.30 (2.69) | .14 |

Notes. Italicized t-scores are corrected for variances being unequal.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Associations between Rejection and Disrespect Interpretations and Revenge Goals

In order to address research questions about the associations between disrespect and rejection interpretations and revenge goals, correlations were computed between these variables in both the minor conflict-of-interest situations and the major provocation situations. A comprehensive table of correlations among all the emotions, interpretations, goals, and strategies is provided in Appendix J.

The correlations among disrespect and rejection interpretations with revenge goals in both vignette contexts are presented in Table 8. Rejection and disrespect interpretations were very highly correlated (.83 and .85) in both contexts. Additionally, both rejection and disrespect interpretations were significantly related to revenge goals in both conflict contexts, although these associations appear to be smaller in the provocation situations than in the conflict of interest situations. In order to test this observation, the respective correlations were statistically compared using the Pearson-Filon test statistic (Raghunathan, Rosenthal, & Rubin, 1996). The association between rejection interpretations and revenge goals in the conflict-of-interest situations were significantly greater than the same association in the major provocation situations, $z = 4.23, p < .05$. Similarly, the correlation between disrespect interpretations and revenge goals was significantly greater in conflicts of interest than in provocation situations, $z = 4.81, p < .05$.

A secondary question about the correlations of rejection and disrespect interpretations with revenge goals concerned whether these associations would differ

Table 8. *Correlations Among Rejection and Disrespect Interpretations and Revenge Goals in Conflicts of Interest and Major Provocation Situations*

| | Rejection Interpretations | Disrespect Interpretations | Revenge Goals |
|----------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|---------------|
| Rejection Interpretations | | .85 | .27 |
| Disrespect Interpretations | .83 | | .25 |
| Revenge Goals | .51 | .52 | |

Note. Above the diagonal are correlations for the major provocation situations. Below the diagonal are correlations for the conflict of interest situations. All correlations were significant at $p < .001$.

for boys and girls. To investigate this question, a series of regression analyses were done in which gender and the particular interpretation was entered along with the Interpretation X Gender interaction. The purpose was to learn whether gender would interact with each interpretation to predict revenge goals or whether predictions from specific interpretations to revenge goals were similar for boys and girls.

First, two regressions were done predicting revenge goals in the conflict-of-interest situations. In the first regression, the interaction between gender and rejection interpretations was not significant ($\beta = .15, t = 1.44, p > .05$). In the second analysis, the interaction between disrespect and revenge goals was also not significant ($\beta = .06, t = .55, p > .05$). Next, Gender X Interpretation interactions predicting revenge goals were examined in two separate regression analyses for the major provocation situations. The interaction of rejection interpretations and gender was not significant ($\beta = -.18, t = -.86, p > .05$). The interaction between disrespect interpretations and gender was also not significant ($\beta = -.04, t = -.22, p > .05$). These findings indicate that the associations between interpretations and revenge goals did not differ for boys and girls.

Finally, how rejection and disrespect interpretations were related to revenge goals was examined, controlling for the effect of the other interpretation. As discussed previously, rejection and disrespect experiences are similar and may often co-occur. One of the foci of this study was to examine if these interpretations were independently related to revenge goals in children's conflicts. To examine this question, partial correlations between interpretations and revenge goals were computed, controlling for

gender and the alternative interpretation. This meant that partial correlations between rejection interpretations and revenge goals controlled for gender differences and disrespect interpretations, whereas partial correlations between disrespect interpretations and revenge goals controlled for gender differences and rejection interpretations. The gender-controlled correlations between “disrespect -free” rejection and “rejection -free” disrespect with revenge goals are presented in Table 9. Controlling for disrespect interpretations, rejection interpretations were significantly related to revenge goals in both conflicts of interest and in major provocation situations. However, disrespect interpretations, controlling for rejection interpretations, remained significantly linked with revenge goals only in the conflict-of-interest situations.

Associations between Rejection and Disrespect Interpretations, Revenge Goals, Rejection Sensitivity, and Disrespect Sensitivity

Two of the research questions posed in the Introduction addressed how rejection sensitivity and disrespect sensitivity were associated with rejection and disrespect interpretations and revenge goals in the conflict contexts. Also of interest was whether interpretations would mediate the association between rejection sensitivity and disrespect sensitivity and revenge goals. In order to address these questions, first correlations between these constructs were examined. Then hierarchical regression analyses as outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) were conducted to examine possible mediation.

As seen in Table 10, correlations between disrespect and rejection interpretations were significantly associated with both components of rejection sensitivity:

Table 9. *Partial Correlations of Revenge Goals with Rejection and Disrespect Interpretations*

| | Conflict Context | Revenge Goals |
|--|------------------|---------------|
| “Disrespect-Free” Rejection Interpretations | CoI | .18** |
| | MP | .12* |
| “Rejection-Free” Disrespect Interpretations | CoI | .20*** |
| | MP | .03 |

Notes. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. CoI= Conflicts of Interests; MP= Major Provocations. Gender was also controlled.

Table 10. *Correlations of Rejection and Disrespect Interpretations and Revenge Goals with Rejection Sensitivity and Disrespect Sensitivity*

| | | Rejection Sensitivity | | Disrespect Sensitivity | | | |
|----------------------------|-----|------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | Rejection Expectations | Anxiety about Rejection | Situational Disrespect | Importance of Respect | Disrespect Expectations | Vigilance for Negative Treatment |
| Rejection Interpretations | CoI | .21 ^{***} | .33 ^{***} | .16 ^{**} | .00 | .14 ^{**} | .08 |
| | MP | .16 ^{**} | .38 ^{***} | .51 ^{***} | .13 [*] | .08 | .26 ^{***} |
| Disrespect Interpretations | CoI | .19 ^{***} | .30 ^{***} | .23 ^{***} | .13 [*] | .12 [*] | .16 ^{**} |
| | MP | .11 ^{***} | .39 ^{***} | .56 ^{***} | .25 ^{***} | .00 | .24 ^{***} |
| Revenge Goals | CoI | .12 [*] | .11 [*] | .06 | -.05 | .19 ^{***} | .09 |
| | MP | .15 ^{**} | .12 [*] | .14 ^{**} | -.05 | .23 ^{***} | .18 ^{***} |

Notes. CoI = Conflicts of Interest; MP =Major Provocation situations.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

anxiety about rejection and rejection expectations. Additionally, both anxiety about rejection and rejection expectations had small associations with revenge goals in both vignette contexts.

Regarding the subscales of disrespect sensitivity, situational disrespect was positively related with both rejection and disrespect interpretations in both contexts yet was only associated with revenge goals in the major provocation situations. The importance of respect was associated with disrespect interpretations in both conflict contexts but was not associated with revenge goals in either vignette context. In contrast, the disrespect expectations subscale was related to revenge goals in both contexts yet was associated with rejection and disrespect interpretations in only the conflict-of-interest situations. Lastly, vigilance for negative treatment was associated with disrespect interpretations in both vignette contexts and was only associated with revenge goals in the major provocation situations and not in conflicts of interest.

Mediation Analyses

In order to examine whether interpretations mediate the association between particular sensitivities and revenge goals a series of regression analyses were conducted (Baron & Kenny, 1986). First, although previous analyses demonstrated that interpretations and revenge goals were associated, these relations were examined again, controlling for gender. In both contexts, rejection interpretations (conflicts of interest: $\beta = .52, p < .001$; major provocation situations: $\beta = .27, p < .001$) and disrespect interpretations (conflicts of interest: $\beta = .52, p < .001$; major provocation situations: $\beta =$

.24, $p < .001$) remained significantly related to revenge goals after controlling for gender effects.

The rest of the steps are described below and results are shown in Tables 11-14. The first regression analysis for each mediation hypothesis was conducted to examine which components of each type of sensitivity were significant predictors of revenge goals. Subscales for the particular sensitivity were entered simultaneously and the subscales that did not remain significantly or marginally associated with revenge goals were removed from the regression. If subscales were marginally associated with revenge goals, they were separated from other significant subscales in order to see if their effects were significant alone, when multicollinearity was reduced. If the subscale that formerly only marginally related to revenge goals was significant when alone in the analysis, then the subscale was retained for the next steps. In the second regression for each mediational analysis, the mediator (the specific interpretations of interest) was regressed on the remaining sensitivity scales, in order to establish the association between the predictor variable and the mediator. Again, any scales that were not significant predictors of the mediator were removed. In the final regression for each mediation analysis, revenge goals were regressed on both interpretations and sensitivities, to examine if the effect of the sensitivity remained significant with interpretations in the model. The mediated effect ($\alpha\beta$) was calculated by multiplying the unstandardized regression coefficients for the mediator predicting the outcome (β) and the predictor variable predicting the mediator (α ; see MacKinnon, Warsi, & Dwyer, 1995). All of the analyses controlled for gender

Table 11. *Regression Analyses to Examine if Rejection Interpretations Mediate Rejection Sensitivity and Revenge Goals in Conflicts of Interest*

| Analysis | Criterion Variable | Predictor Variables | B | Beta | R ² |
|----------|---------------------------|------------------------------|------------------|------------------|----------------|
| 1 | Revenge Goals | Gender | .33* | .12* | .03* |
| | | <u>Rejection Sensitivity</u> | | | |
| | | Anxiety about Rejection | .13 [†] | .10 [†] | |
| | | Rejection Expectations | .15 | .08 | |
| 2 | Rejection Interpretations | Gender | -.00 | -.00 | .11*** |
| | | <u>Rejection Sensitivity</u> | | | |
| | | Anxiety about Rejection | .44*** | .33*** | |
| 3 | Revenge Goals | Gender | .37** | .13** | .28*** |
| | | <u>Rejection Sensitivity</u> | | | |
| | | Anxiety about Rejection | -.06 | -.05 | |
| | | Rejection Interpretations | .52*** | .53*** | |

Note. [†] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

effects. Results for the mediational analyses are presented for the conflict-of-interest situations first, followed by the analyses for the major provocation situations.

Conflicts of interest. Rejection interpretations were hypothesized to mediate the association between rejection sensitivity and revenge goals. Table 11 shows the regression analyses that address this hypothesis. First, controlling for gender, the components of rejection sensitivity (anxiety about rejection and rejection expectations) were entered into a regression predicting to revenge goals. Only the subscale of anxiety about rejection was marginally associated with revenge goals. Although this was a marginal effect, the test for mediation continued because the small association was due to the shared variance between anxiety about rejection and rejection expectations. When rejection expectations was dropped from the model, the effect of anxiety about rejection was significant ($\beta = .13, p < .05$). Next, rejection interpretations was regressed on anxiety about rejection, revealing that anxiety about rejection was a significant predictor of rejection interpretations. Finally, revenge goals was regressed on both rejection interpretations and anxiety about rejection. The effect of anxiety about rejection became non-significant while the effect of rejection interpretations remained strong. The mediated effect was significant ($\alpha\beta = .22, z = 5.99, p < .001$), supporting a model in which the effects of anxiety about rejection on revenge goals are fully mediated by rejection interpretations in conflict-of-interest situations.

The regression analyses examining whether disrespect interpretations mediate the association between disrespect sensitivity and revenge goals in conflicts of interest are presented in Table 12. First, revenge goals was regressed on all components of disrespect

Table 12. *Regression Analyses to Examine if Disrespect Interpretations Mediate Disrespect Sensitivity and Revenge Goals in Conflicts of Interest*

| Analysis | Criterion Variable | Predictor Variables | B | Beta | R ² |
|----------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| 1 | Revenge Goals | Gender | .24 [†] | .09 [†] | .05 ^{**} |
| | | <u>Disrespect Sensitivity</u> | | | |
| | | Situational Disrespect | .07 | .08 | |
| | | Importance of Respect | .00 | .00 | |
| | | Disrespect Expectations | .14 ^{**} | .19 ^{**} | |
| | Vigilance for Negative Treatment | -.01 | -.01 | | |
| 2 | Disrespect Interpretations | Gender | -.03 | -.01 | .01 [†] |
| | | <u>Disrespect Sensitivity</u> | | | |
| | | Disrespect Expectations | .11 [*] | .12 [*] | |
| 3 | Revenge Goals | Gender | .16 | .06 | .28 ^{***} |
| | | <u>Disrespect Sensitivity</u> | | | |
| | | Disrespect Expectations | .11 ^{***} | .15 ^{***} | |
| | Disrespect Interpretations | .38 ^{***} | .49 ^{***} | | |

Note. [†] $p < .10$, ^{*} $p < .05$, ^{**} $p < .01$, ^{***} $p < .001$.

sensitivity. The only scale that significantly predicted revenge goals was disrespect expectations, therefore all other scales were removed from the analysis. In the second regression, disrespect interpretations was regressed on disrespect expectations indicating that disrespect expectations was a significant predictor of disrespect interpretations. In the final regression, both disrespect expectations and disrespect interpretations were entered to predict revenge goals. Both disrespect expectations and disrespect interpretations were significant in the model, however the effect of disrespect expectations was decreased somewhat. Calculation of the mediated effect revealed that the decrease was significant ($\alpha\beta = .05$, $z = 2.33$, $p < .01$), supporting a model in which disrespect interpretations partially mediate the association between disrespect expectations and revenge goals in conflict-of-interest situations.

Major provocation situations. Next, mediation analyses were conducted for responses in the major provocation situations. Table 13 shows the regression analyses that address whether rejection interpretations mediate the link between rejection sensitivity and revenge goals in major provocation situations. First, revenge goals were regressed on the components of rejection sensitivity. Although the total contribution of rejection sensitivity was significant, both anxiety about rejection and rejection expectations were only marginally associated with revenge goals. Because of concerns about multicollinearity, the separate effects were also examined. When they were separated, the effect of anxiety about rejection was significant ($\beta = .14$, $p < .01$) as well as the effect of rejection expectations ($\beta = .14$, $p < .01$). Therefore, the mediation analyses were continued separately. Next in two separate regressions, rejection interpretations

Table 13. *Regression Analyses to Examine if Rejection Interpretations Mediate Rejection Sensitivity and Revenge Goals in Major Provocation Situations*

| Analysis | Criterion Variable | Predictor Variables | B | Beta | R ² |
|----------|---------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| 1 | Revenge Goals | Gender | .77 | .17 ^{**} | .06 ^{***} |
| | | <u>Rejection Sensitivity</u> | | | |
| | | Anxiety about Rejection | .21 [†] | .10 [†] | |
| | | Rejection Expectations | .30 [†] | .10 [†] | |
| 2A | Rejection Interpretations | Gender | .24 | .06 | .15 ^{***} |
| | | <u>Rejection Sensitivity</u> | | | |
| | | Anxiety about Rejection | .65 ^{***} | .38 ^{***} | |
| 2B | Rejection Interpretations | Gender | .03 | .01 | .03 ^{**} |
| | | <u>Rejection Sensitivity</u> | | | |
| | | Rejection Expectations | .40 ^{**} | .16 ^{**} | |
| 3A | Revenge Goals | Gender | .76 ^{**} | .17 ^{**} | .10 ^{***} |
| | | <u>Rejection Sensitivity</u> | | | |
| | | Anxiety about Rejection | .08 | .04 | |
| | | Rejection Interpretations | .30 ^{***} | .25 ^{***} | |
| 3B | Revenge Goals | Gender | .70 ^{**} | .16 ^{**} | .11 ^{***} |
| | | <u>Rejection Sensitivity</u> | | | |
| | | Rejection Expectations | .29 [†] | .10 [†] | |
| | | Rejection Interpretations | .30 ^{***} | .25 ^{***} | |

Note. [†] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

were regressed on the components of rejection sensitivity. Both components predicted a significant amount of variance in rejection interpretations. Finally, revenge goals was regressed on rejection interpretations and anxiety about rejection and separately revenge goals was regressed on rejection interpretations and rejection expectations. In the first analysis, rejection interpretations significantly predicted to revenge goals and the effect of anxiety about rejection became non-significant. The mediated effect was significant ($\alpha\beta = .21, z = 4.20, p < .001$) indicating that rejection interpretations mediate the link between anxiety about rejection and revenge goals. When revenge goals was regressed on rejection interpretations and rejection expectations, the effect of rejection expectations was reduced to a marginally significant level. The mediated effect was significant ($\alpha\beta = .13, z = 2.60, p < .01$), indicating that rejection interpretations mediated the association between rejection expectations and revenge goals.

The regression analyses examining whether disrespect interpretations mediate the association between disrespect sensitivity and revenge goals in major provocation situations are presented in Table 14. First, revenge goals was regressed on the components of disrespect sensitivity. Both situational disrespect and disrespect expectations were significantly related to revenge goals. Importance of respect and vigilance for respect were not independently related to revenge goals and were not included in subsequent analyses. Next, disrespect interpretations was regressed on situational disrespect and disrespect expectations. Situational disrespect significantly predicted disrespect interpretations, while disrespect expectations did not and therefore disrespect expectations was removed. In the final regression, revenge goals were

Table 14. *Hierarchical Regression Analyses to Examine if Rejection Interpretations Mediate Rejection Sensitivity and Revenge Goals in Major Provocation Situations*

| Analysis | Criterion Variable | Predictor Variables | B | Beta | R ² |
|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------------|--------|--------|----------------|
| 1 | Revenge Goals | Gender | .60** | .13** | .10*** |
| | | <u>Disrespect Sensitivity</u> | | | |
| | | Situational Disrespect | .20* | .14* | |
| | | Importance of Respect | -.03 | -.02 | |
| | | Disrespect Expectations | .25** | .21** | |
| | | Vigilance for Negative Treatment | .07 | .06 | |
| 2 | Disrespect Interpretations | Gender | .16 | .04 | .32*** |
| | | <u>Disrespect Sensitivity</u> | | | |
| | | Situational Disrespect | .71*** | .57*** | |
| | | Disrespect Expectations | .06 | .06 | |
| 3 | Revenge Goals | Gender | .70** | .16** | .09*** |
| | | <u>Disrespect Sensitivity</u> | | | |
| | | Situational Disrespect | -.01 | -.01 | |
| | | Disrespect Interpretations | .27*** | .25*** | |

Note. † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

regressed on disrespect interpretations and situational disrespect. Disrespect interpretations significantly predicted revenge goals, while the effect of situational disrespect became non-significant. The mediation effect was significant ($\alpha\beta = .05$, $z = 2.50$, $p < .01$), supporting a model in which the association between situational disrespect and revenge goals is mediated by disrespect interpretations in major provocation situations.

A summary of the mediational analyses can be seen in Table 15. In conflicts of interest, rejection interpretations fully mediated the association between anxiety about rejection and revenge goals. In comparison, disrespect interpretations only partially mediated the relation between disrespect expectations and revenge goals in conflict-of-interest situations. In the major provocation situations, rejection interpretations mediated both the associations between anxiety about rejection and revenge goals and rejection expectations and revenge goals. Furthermore, disrespect interpretations fully mediated the association between situational disrespect and revenge goals in major provocation situations.

The Effects of Beliefs on Revenge Goals

Two of the last research questions addressed in this study concerned whether certain beliefs might affect the association between interpretations and revenge goals. Negative reciprocity beliefs were hypothesized to moderate the link between negative interpretations and revenge goals such that increased endorsement of negative reciprocity would increase the likelihood of revenge goals when conflict was interpreted negatively.

Table 15. *Summary of Mediation Analyses Predicting Revenge Goals*

| Vignette Context | Sensitivity | Components of Sensitivity | Mediator | Outcome of Mediation Analyses |
|------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Conflicts of Interest | Rejection Sensitivity | Anxiety about Rejection | Rejection Interpretations | Full Mediation |
| Conflicts of Interest | Disrespect Sensitivity | Disrespect Expectations | Disrespect Interpretations | Partial Mediation |
| Major Provocation Situations | Rejection Sensitivity | Anxiety about Rejection | Rejection Interpretations | Full Mediation |
| Major Provocation Situations | Rejection Sensitivity | Rejection Expectations | Rejection Interpretations | Full Mediation |
| Major Provocation Situations | Disrespect Sensitivity | Situational Disrespect | Disrespect Interpretations | Full Mediation |

Additionally, legitimacy of aggression beliefs were hypothesized to act in the same way, increasing the potency of negative interpretations on revenge goals.

Initially regression analyses examining these interactions were run separately for the interpretations of rejection and disrespect. Due to there being no hypotheses that beliefs would act differently depending on the interpretation and because results for the two interpretations were very similar, rejection and disrespect interpretations were combined for these analyses by averaging rejection and disrespect interpretations together and using them as one variable. Also, all variables (except for gender because this was a dummy coded variable) were centered before entering them in the regression analysis (Aiken & West, 1991).

As seen in Appendix K, legitimacy of aggression beliefs and negative reciprocity beliefs were very highly correlated ($r = .84$). Thus, as a stringent test of the hypotheses one hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to look at the effects of both negative reciprocity beliefs and legitimacy of aggression beliefs at the same time. In the first step, gender was entered alone. In the second step, the main effects of negative interpretations (the average of rejection and disrespect interpretations), negative reciprocity beliefs, and beliefs about the legitimacy of aggression were examined. In the third step, the interactions of negative interpretations with both sets of beliefs were entered.

Beliefs in conflict-of-interest situations. Table 16 contains the results from the regression analyses that examine beliefs and their interactions with interpretations in the conflict-of-interest situations. As can be seen, both beliefs about the legitimacy of

aggression and negative reciprocity beliefs significantly predicted revenge goals above and beyond negative interpretations alone. Further, the interaction between negative reciprocity beliefs and negative interpretations was significant, although the legitimacy of aggression and negative interpretation interaction was not.

Probing the significant interaction, as suggested by Aiken and West (1991), the simple slopes of negative interpretations on revenge goals were calculated at the mean of negative reciprocity beliefs and at one standard deviation above and below the mean. These regression lines are plotted in Figure 1. The simple slope of negative interpretations on revenge at one standard deviation below the mean on negative reciprocity beliefs was lower ($b = .19$) than at the mean ($b = .34$). At one standard deviation above the mean on negative reciprocity beliefs, the slope was the greatest ($b = .49$). The association between revenge goals and negative interpretations in conflicts of interest is stronger when individuals are high on negative reciprocity beliefs as well.

Beliefs in major provocation situations. Table 17 contains the results from the regression analysis that examines beliefs and their interactions with interpretations in the major provocation situations. Similar to the conflict-of-interest situations, negative interpretations, legitimacy of aggression, and negative reciprocity beliefs all contributed independently to revenge goals in provocation situations. However, neither the Negative Interpretations X Negative Reciprocity Beliefs interaction nor the Negative Interpretations X Legitimacy of Aggression Beliefs interaction was significant alone in its contribution to Revenge Goals.

Table 16. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Beliefs and Negative Interpretations on Revenge Goals in Conflicts of Interest*

| Steps | Variables | β | R^2 | R^2 Change |
|-------|---|---------|--------|-----------------|
| 1 | Gender | .12* | .01* | .01* |
| 2 | Negative Interpretations (Rejection and Disrespect) | .40*** | .50*** | .49*** |
| | Legitimacy of Aggression | .24** | | |
| | Negative Reciprocity | .27*** | | |
| 3 | Negative Interpretations X Legitimacy of Aggression | .02 | .54*** | .04*** |
| | Negative Interpretations X Negative Reciprocity | .17* | | |

Note

. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

06

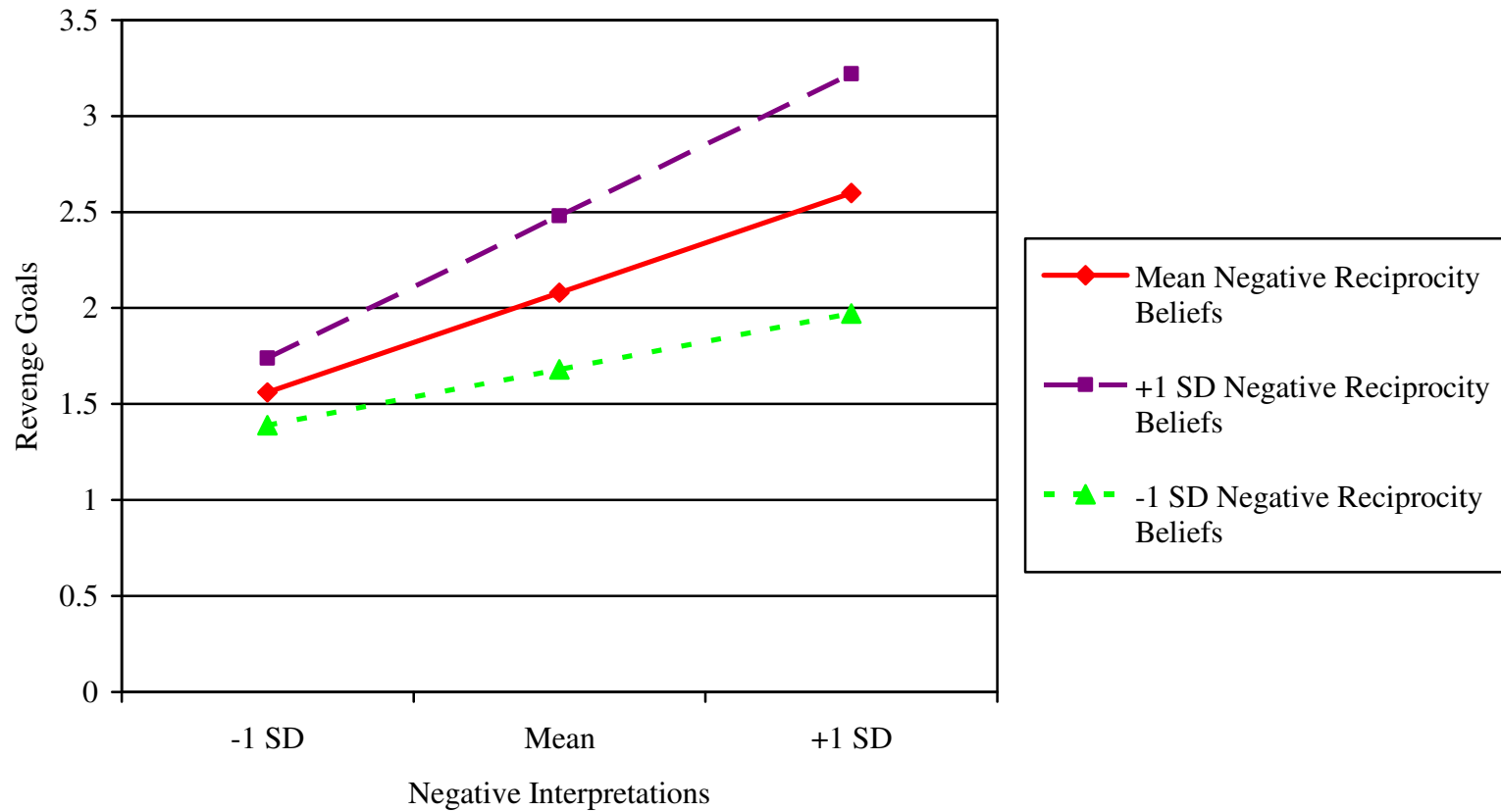


Figure 1. The Interaction of Negative Interpretations and Negative Reciprocity Beliefs on Revenge Goals in Conflicts of Interest

Table 17. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Beliefs and Negative Interpretations on Revenge Goals in Major Provocation Situations*

| Steps | Variables | β | R^2 | R^2 Change |
|-------|---|------------------|--------|-----------------|
| 1 | Gender | .17** | .03** | .03** |
| 2 | Negative Interpretations (Rejection and Disrespect) | .21*** | .54*** | .52*** |
| | Legitimacy of Aggression | .30*** | | |
| | Negative Reciprocity | .42*** | | |
| 3 | Negative Interpretations X Legitimacy of Aggression | .00 | .55*** | .01* |
| | Negative Interpretations X Negative Reciprocity | .10 [†] | | |

Note. [†] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Chapter 4

DISCUSSION

In the following sections, results of the study are reviewed and discussed as they relate to the hypotheses set forth in the Introduction as well as to existing research. Before attending to the major research findings, responses to the conflict-of-interest situations and the major provocation situations are compared and properties of the Disrespect Sensitivity measure are discussed. Following this, the results of the study are discussed in the following order: 1) gender differences; 2) the associations of rejection and disrespect interpretations with revenge goals; 3) the associations of rejection and disrespect sensitivity with revenge goals and as mediated by interpretations; and 4) the associations of beliefs about legitimacy of aggression and beliefs about negative reciprocity with revenge goals and the effects of negative reciprocity beliefs on the association between interpretations and revenge goals. Then, the findings regarding the comparison of disrespect and rejection will be discussed, followed by the study's limitations and some suggestions for future research.

The Conflict Vignettes

The conflict-of-interest and major provocation vignettes were designed to assess young adolescents' responses in two different kinds of conflict situations. All conflicts of interest had been used in past research (Chung & Asher, 1996) and depicted scenarios in which a classmate wanted to use the same object that the participant wanted to use. All of the emotions, interpretations, goals, and strategies that the participants rated in response to these vignettes showed satisfactory internal reliability with alphas ranging from .71 to .95.

The vignettes depicting major peer provocations were newly developed for this study and were modeled after paradigms in experimental social psychology in which subjects were excluded and then criticized or insulted (e.g., Twenge & Campbell, 2003). These situations were also designed with ecological validity in mind; all situations were designed to describe realistic provocations that children or adolescents might encounter in their everyday school lives. The internal reliabilities for the emotions, interpretations, goals, and strategies for the major provocation vignettes also were satisfactory, ranging from .70 to .95.

The major provocation situations were designed to be more upsetting and threatening than the conflict-of-interest situations and participant responses indicate that this intended difference was achieved. Participants endorsed more negative emotions (i.e., sadness, hurt feelings, and anger) in the major provocation situations than in the conflict-of-interest situations. They also interpreted the conflict much more negatively, including feeling more disrespected and rejected, in the provocation situations than in the conflict-of-interest situations. These negative feelings and negative interpretations corresponded to their reported goals and strategies as well. Participants were much more revenge-motivated and aggressive in the major provocation situations than in the conflict-of-interest situations. Due to these context differences, all of the major research questions were examined separately by context.

Importantly, adolescents' goals and strategies in conflicts of interest and major provocation situations were related to one another in predicted ways. For example, revenge goals were positively related to aggressive strategies while prosocial goals were positively related to more prosocial strategies. Vignette methodology has been used in past studies examining how children react in conflict and other social situations,

providing evidence that children's responses are valid and predict to external criteria like acceptance, friendship characteristics, and their behavior (e.g., Chung & Asher, 1996; Dodge, Murphy, & Buchsbaum, 1984; Lochman et al., 1993; Rose & Asher, 1999; 2004; Troop-Gordon & Asher, 2005).

Disrespect Sensitivity

The new Disrespect Sensitivity measure, designed in this study, was intended to measure adolescents' general tendency to detect disrespect cues from others and interpret social information as disrespectful, as well as participants' tendencies to feel disrespected in a variety of potentially threatening situations. Conceptualization and item generation were guided in part from ethnographic accounts of adolescents participating in gang life and living in inner city neighborhoods (Anderson, 1999; Horowitz, 1983).

Factor analysis of the Disrespect Sensitivity items found that the items did not load on one single factor nor that the factors all highly correlated with one another. Instead, the items appeared to measure four different but related components that may make up Disrespect Sensitivity: Situational Disrespect, Importance of Respect, Disrespect Expectations, and Vigilance for Negative Treatment.

Analyses revealed that situational disrespect, importance of respect, and vigilance for negative treatment were all positively related to one another. The more that adolescents reported feeling disrespected in a variety of situations, the more being respected was important to them and the more they were vigilant for signs of disrespect from others. Disrespect expectations were also positively related to vigilance for negative treatment. In other words, high expectations that others will disrespect you correlated with being more vigilant for signs of disrespect. Further, disrespect expectations were negatively related to the importance of respect; increased expectations

for disrespect corresponded to a decrease in the importance of respect from others. Perhaps this is a defensive mechanism such that when people expect others to disrespect them they discount how important respect is to receive (Cramer, 2000). A significant negative relation was also observed between disrespect expectations and situational disrespect, although this association was small. If this effect is reliable, increases in expectations of disrespect are associated with decreases in people's tendencies to feel disrespected in a variety of situations. This seemingly paradoxical finding needs explanation. One possibility is that as individuals expect poorer treatment from others, such as disrespect, they may become "hardened" in the sense that in typical situations that elicit feelings of disrespect they are less likely to feel this way.

The low to moderate associations that the disrespect sensitivity subscales had with each other as well as the differential relations of the factors with revenge goals suggest that these components might best be considered separate constructs, instead of parts of one larger personality disposition. To understand how these different constructs influence one another, examining how these components relate to each other over time would be useful. If disrespect expectations decrease how important respect is as well as the individual's tendency to feel disrespected in a variety of situations, we should be able to see these changes play out over time.

Gender Differences

Revenge goals. One of the purposes of this study was to examine gender differences in how adolescents interpreted and responded to conflict with peers. Results showed that boys reported greater revenge motivations in both conflicts of interest and major provocation situations than did girls, replicating findings from previous research with children (Rose & Asher, 1999) and adults (McDonald & Asher, in preparation).

However, MacEvoy (2006) had children respond to serious transgressions within a friendship, such as a friend telling other people the target's secret or a friend refusing to provide emotional support. In response to friendship transgressions, MacEvoy did not find gender differences in revenge goal endorsement.

The major provocation vignettes used in the present study were situations with classmates and not situations with friends, but it is plausible that the level of severity of the major provocation vignettes are comparable to the severity level of MacEvoy's (2006) vignettes. If this is the case, our results suggest that the fact that the serious transgressions were committed in the friendship context in the MacEvoy study led to girls' revenge goals being equal to that of boys. Friendship may be a particularly important relationship for girls at this age (Maccoby, 1990), thus transgressions from friends may be particularly hurtful to girls and more likely to lead to the kind of responses that boys exhibit in other contexts.

Interpretations. It was also hypothesized that girls and boys would interpret conflicts of interest and major provocations with peers differently from each other. More specifically, the prediction was that girls would be more likely to feel rejected because they are more relationship-oriented and boys would be more likely to feel disrespected because they are more status-oriented (Maccoby, 1990). However, no gender differences were found in rejection or disrespect interpretations in either context. Further, the hypothesis that the association between rejection and revenge goals would be stronger for girls and that the association between disrespect interpretations and revenge goals would be stronger for boys was not supported. The findings indicate that boys and girls may interpret peer conflicts of interest and major provocations from peers in a similar manner

and that boys' and girls' interpretations are also linked with revenge goals in a similar way.

Although no differences were found between boys and girls in their disrespect and rejection interpretations, the girls reported that they would have more negative emotional reactions (i.e., hurt feelings and sadness). The finding that girls would feel more hurt and sad is not surprising because evidence suggests that girls are generally more likely to exhibit negative emotions (other than anger), like sadness and anxiety, than are boys (Eisenberg, Martin, & Fabes, 1996). However, in the conflict-of-interest situations girls more strongly endorsed interpretations that the actions of the other person were unintentional and not worth getting upset about, and in the major provocation situations girls more strongly endorsed interpretations that the conflict was resolvable. Further, in both contexts girls more strongly endorsed forgiveness goals than boys. They were also more likely in the major provocation situations to say that they would leave and in conflicts of interest they were more likely to endorse prosocial strategies, like talking nicely and trying to make-up.

These results correspond with what has been generally found in the peer interaction processes of boys and girls, namely that girls tend to act in a more prosocial manner with peers in conflict situations than do boys (see Rose & Rudolph, 2006 for a review). However, girls also reported more negative emotions at the same time that they were making more benign attributions. Taken together with their goals and strategies, this pattern suggests that girls may actively try to regulate their initial emotional reactions of hurt and sadness by re-framing the situation as being unintentional, not worth being upset about, and solvable. Research that examines this hypothesis could shed light on the self-regulation strategies that children use in conflict.

Further, relational context may be an important factor in understanding gender differences in the interpretations girls and boys make in social interactions. In friendship transgression situations, MacEvoy (2006) found that girls, more than boys, interpreted that their friends did not care about them and did not respect them. As mentioned previously, the friendship context may be a particularly important relationship for girls. As a result, girls may interpret friendship transgressions more negatively. However, as this study shows, in conflicts of interest and major provocations with general peers may not differ in their negative interpretations.

Age or developmental period may also be an important factor that may affect the interpretations of males and females. McDonald and Asher (in preparation) found that college-age men generally felt both more rejected and more disrespected than did college-age women in conflicts of interest with romantic partners, friends, and roommates. Investigating the content of interpretations in peer interaction is still a relatively new endeavor and future studies should try to tease apart how both relational contexts and age may affect how males and females interpret their social interactions.

Revenge Goals and Rejection and Disrespect Interpretations

Analyses revealed that both rejection and disrespect interpretations were associated with greater desires for revenge in both minor conflicts of interest and in more threatening provocation situations, replicating what has been found with adults in response to conflicts of interest with relationship partners (McDonald & Asher, in preparation). It also builds on previous work in social psychology linking rejection experiences to aggression in adults (e.g., Buckley et al., 2004; Leary et al., 2006; Twenge et al., 2001; Twenge & Campbell, 2003; Warburton et al., 2003) and in children (e.g., Dodge et al., 2003; Guerra et al., 2004), and it adds quantitative evidence to the

ethnographic descriptions of adolescents' aggressive responses to perceived signs of disrespect (Anderson, 1999; Horowitz, 1983).

The associations between interpretations and revenge were larger in the conflict-of-interest situations than in the major provocations situations. Past research on the hostile attribution bias, shows that attributing negative intent in situations in which harm is not clearly intended is diagnostic of externalizing problems and aggressive social behavior (e.g., Dodge, 1980; Orobio de Castro et al., 2002). Negative interpretations in minor conflicts of interest may be a sign of maladaptive functioning or psychopathology as well. Children and adolescents who make negative interpretations in minor conflicts of interest are in turn more likely to have hostile goals (such as revenge) and aggressive strategies that subsequently interfere with their social functioning (e.g., Chung & Asher, 1996; Renshaw & Asher, 1983; Rose & Asher, 1999). However, interpreting major provocations from peers as rejecting or disrespecting may be more normative such that negative interpretations in this context are not as tightly linked with revenge goals. The fact that the associations between negative interpretations and revenge goals are lower in the major provocation situations suggest that some adolescents who feel disrespected or rejected in major provocations situations may still inhibit their revenge desires in contexts and choose less aggressive goals and strategies.

Building on this line of reasoning, examining the thought processes of youth whose responses were akin to “pacifists,” that is those adolescents who interpret conflict negatively yet refrain from endorsing revenge goals, may be enlightening. A better understanding of how or why some children do not seek revenge, even when they are offended by another's behavior, could help to comprehend the origins of revenge motivations and help the field to design interventions for children who are extremely

revenge motivated. A search on PsycInfo (March 26, 2008) revealed only 68 entries under the keyword “pacifism,” suggesting that this topic has been greatly understudied in psychology. Indeed, further examination of pacifism and investigation into the most socially adaptive responses to aggression and provocation should be pursued (e.g., Putallaz et al., 2004).

Rejection Sensitivity and Disrespect Sensitivity

The present research examined whether being particularly sensitive to signs of rejection and disrespect from others would be associated with greater revenge desires and whether these associations were mediated by interpretations. In both vignette contexts, both components of rejection sensitivity were associated with revenge goals. However, not all components of disrespect sensitivity were related to revenge goals. Disrespect expectations were associated with revenge goals in both conflicts of interest and major provocation situations. Situational disrespect and vigilance for negative treatment were associated only with revenge goals in the major provocation situations.

Regarding mediation, it was hypothesized that rejection interpretations would account for the association of rejection sensitivity with revenge goals. In conflict of interest situations, the link between one component of rejection sensitivity, anxiety about rejection, and revenge goals was accounted for by rejection interpretations. Although no causal claims can be made from this study, the results do support a model in which anxiety about rejection increases rejection interpretations that then increase revenge goals in conflicts of interest. Further, in major provocation situations rejection interpretations mediated the associations between both anxiety about rejection and rejection expectations with revenge goals. This suggests that when adolescents are more severely provoked by a peer, their anxiety about rejection and their rejection expectations may increase their

revenge responses through increased rejection interpretations. The present study adds to the literature on rejection sensitivity and provides evidence that the mechanism in which rejection sensitivity increases aggressive behavior is through rejection interpretations and revenge goals (e.g., Ayduk et al., 1999; Downey et al., 1998).

Similarly, it was also hypothesized that disrespect interpretations would mediate the association between disrespect sensitivity and revenge goals. In the conflict of interest situations, disrespect expectations were associated with revenge responses, and this was partially mediated by disrespect interpretations. This mediation analysis supports a model in which disrespect expectations increase disrespect interpretations and both expectations and interpretations directly contribute to revenge goals. In the major provocation situations, situational disrespect was found to be significantly related to revenge goals, and this effect was fully mediated by disrespect interpretations.

The finding that in conflict-of-interest situations disrespect interpretations only partially mediate the association between disrespect expectations and revenge goals is consistent with Crick and Dodge's (1994) reformulated social information processing model. The model suggests that the "database," including the personal characteristics of children, may influence particular information processing steps in the model. The schema, heuristics, and scripts that children bring with them into any social situation can directly prime certain goals in interaction. Disrespect expectations could be a part of this database and automatically increase a child's tendency to seek revenge goals in conflicts of interest, regardless of the kinds of interpretations they make.

Beliefs about Reciprocity and Beliefs about the Legitimacy of Aggression

Of major interest in this study was how certain beliefs would be associated with revenge goals and whether beliefs would affect the association between interpretations

and revenge goals. It was hypothesized that beliefs in the legitimacy of aggressive behavior and beliefs in negative reciprocity would be linked with revenge goals. Further, high endorsement of either of these beliefs was predicted to increase the strength of the association between rejection and disrespect interpretations and revenge goals.

Regarding legitimacy of aggression beliefs, results showed that beliefs about the legitimacy of aggression were positively associated with revenge goals, even after controlling for gender, negative interpretations, and negative reciprocity beliefs. In other words, the greater children's beliefs that aggression is justifiable in a variety of circumstances the more they are revenge-motivated in both conflict-of-interest and major provocation situations. However, the interaction between legitimacy of aggression beliefs and interpretations did not predict revenge goals, after controlling for the interaction of negative reciprocity and negative interpretations.

Previous research has linked legitimacy of aggression beliefs with both everyday aggressive behavior toward peers (as measured by peer nominations) and aggressive strategies in ambiguous provocation and other social situations as assessed through vignettes (Erdley & Asher, 1998; Huesman & Guerra, 1997; Slaby & Guerra, 1988; Zelli, Dodge, Lochman, & Laird, 1999). The present study is the first to link legitimacy of aggression beliefs with revenge goals. Legitimacy of aggression beliefs may support revenge goals and revenge behavior, or alternatively vengeful people justify their own behavior by believing that it is legitimate and acceptable. Adolescents who are revenge motivated in conflict and in response to provocation, and hence are more aggressive, may be more likely to believe that aggression is legitimate thereby creating consistency between their behavior and their beliefs and giving moral justification for their behavior (Festinger, 1957).

Negative reciprocity beliefs were also examined in the present study. Previous research had found that college students high in negative reciprocity beliefs were more likely to act negatively to a confederate who had previously treated them badly (Eisenberger et al., 2004). The present study extended this research by examining negative reciprocity beliefs with young adolescents and examining how these beliefs are associated with revenge goals. Beliefs in negative reciprocity predicted revenge goal endorsement above and beyond gender, negative interpretations, and legitimacy of aggression beliefs. The more participants agreed that people should reciprocate negative treatment from others, the more that they wanted revenge in conflict situations. Further, an interaction between negative reciprocity beliefs and negative interpretations showed that negative reciprocity beliefs magnified the effect of negative interpretations on revenge goals in the conflict-of-interest situations. Participants who were high on both negative interpretations and negative reciprocity beliefs were more likely to want to get even than students who were high on only one of these variables. This interaction approached significance in the major provocation situations as well.

Interestingly, these beliefs helped to explain the gender differences in revenge goals. As discussed earlier, boys endorsed revenge goals at higher rates than girls in both vignette contexts. However, boys did not feel more negatively (actually girls felt worse) or make more negative interpretations in either context. So why were boys more revenge-motivated? One possible answer is that boys endorsed both legitimacy of aggression beliefs and negative reciprocity beliefs at higher levels than did girls. Post hoc regression analyses were conducted to test this possibility. In these analyses, gender, legitimacy of aggression beliefs, and negative reciprocity beliefs were entered simultaneously. These analyses revealed that the main effects of these beliefs on revenge goals in both contexts

reduced the gender effect to non-significance (conflicts of interest: $\beta = .01, p > .05$; major provocations: $\beta = .00, p > .05$), suggesting an explanation for the gender difference in revenge goal endorsement. Thus, boys may endorse revenge goals more than girls because they think that aggression is more legitimate and they believe more in negative reciprocity than girls do.

Future research on negative reciprocity beliefs and their contribution to revenge goals and aggressive behavior is needed. A great deal of research has examined how achievement beliefs affect student academic achievement and performance (e.g., Dweck, 2000), but very few studies have examined how certain beliefs affect aggressive behavior [exceptions are studies of self-efficacy beliefs (e.g., Erdley & Asher, 1996) and legitimacy of aggression beliefs (Erdley & Asher, 1998; Huesman & Guerra, 1997; Slaby & Guerra, 1988)]. A natural question to ask is how negative reciprocity beliefs develop. One possibility is that parents and peers are socializing agents of negative reciprocity beliefs (Bandura, 1977; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Parents could directly teach their children that they should reciprocate negative behaviors (e.g., the parent who says, “if someone hits you, hit them back”). Children may also be socialized to have negative reciprocity beliefs through observing the behavior of people in their lives or even through the treatment they receive from others. Children who observe others reciprocating the harm that they have received may grow to believe that this is how people “should behave.” Further, in light of these beliefs accounting for the gender difference in revenge goals, studies are needed to examine how these beliefs are integrated into gender role development (Ruble, Martin, & Berebaum, 2006). A better understanding of how these beliefs develop is essential for preventing children from becoming vengeful interaction partners and could lead to ideas for effective interventions. Promising evidence suggests

that even relatively brief interventions focused on changing beliefs about a domain can affect outcomes (e.g., Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007).

Rejection versus Disrespect

One of the questions put forth in the introduction was whether interpretations of rejection and disrespect were distinct experiences. Results produced mixed evidence for a distinction between rejection and disrespect interpretations. Rejection and disrespect interpretations were very highly correlated in both contexts (r 's > .83), indicating that these experiences often co-occur, or perhaps even contribute to each other. Additionally, in the analyses examining if the link between interpretations and revenge goals was moderated by beliefs, both rejection interpretations and disrespect interpretations were indistinguishable in the models, leading to the decision to combine them for the final analyses.

This evidence suggests that rejection and disrespect interpretations may not be functionally distinct. Whereas rejection interpretations entail thoughts that others do not value your relationships with them (Leary, 2001), disrespect interpretations entail perceptions of not being considered worthy or valuable as a human being. When children interpret that they are not valued, this interpretation may be part of a broader interpretation that others do not value them as relationship partners. On the other hand, when children interpret that their relationship is being devalued, they could also make attributions that the other perceives them as generally unworthy. In fact, both disrespect and rejection communicate that the other person has distanced him or herself from the target. For disrespect, distance is vertical, in the form of power or status differences. For rejection, distance is horizontal, in the form of relational space put between interaction partners.

However, evidence suggests that rejection and disrespect interpretations may have distinctive consequences in some situations. From the examination of the independent contributions of rejection and disrespect interpretations to revenge goals, results showed that, when controlling for the variance shared by both rejection and disrespect expectations, only rejection interpretations remained significantly associated with revenge goals in both contexts, whereas “rejection-free” disrespect interpretations only remained significantly related to revenge goals in the conflict-of-interest situations. In other words, in conflicts of interest both disrespect and rejection experiences were independently associated with revenge goals, indicating parts of each experience were uniquely associated with revenge. In the major provocation situations, rejection interpretations also remained significantly associated with revenge goals while disrespect did not. This indicates that distinct components of rejection or disrespect interpretations may have different effects on revenge goals.

The findings about the independent contributions of rejection and disrespect interpretations to revenge goals partially contrast with what was found in a previous examination of this question with college students. McDonald and Asher (in preparation) found that, in conflicts of interest with different relationship partners (romantic partners, friends, and roommates), “rejection-free” disrespect remained significantly associated with revenge goals in all relationship contexts. However, “disrespect-free” rejection remained significantly related only to revenge goals in the romantic context. Although, a direct comparison between the studies is difficult, the patterns suggest both age and context differences in whether there are independent contributions of rejection and disrespect interpretation to revenge goals.

Future work using experimental paradigms could continue to tease apart whether rejection and disrespect experiences are linked with revenge in similar or different ways. Constructing experimental situations in which participants are either disrespected while being included by others or are rejected in a very respectful way would examination of possible differences in the subsequent endorsement of revenge goals and aggressive responding. Priming participants to feel rejected or disrespected may also be useful to study this question. By first priming participants with words related to either rejection or disrespect, and then having them respond to vignettes depicting minor conflicts of interest we could see if these different priming conditions produced differential revenge responses.

Limitations and More Future Directions

Methods. One of the limitations of the current study is that only self-report methods were used to investigate the phenomena of interest. Originally, it was hoped that the behavioral nominations of disrespect and rejection sensitivity would correspond to the self reports of these same phenomena. However, peers' behavioral nominations of disrespect and rejection sensitivity did not differentially correlate with self reports of these constructs. Peer nominations of rejection sensitivity related in a similar way to both self-reported rejection sensitivity and disrespect sensitivity. Further, peer nominations of disrespect sensitivity were not at all related to self-reported disrespect sensitivity, yet they were related to one aspect of rejection sensitivity, anxiety about rejection.

Young adolescents may have difficulty identifying these information-processing patterns in their peers. To do so requires a careful reading of the kinds of situations that lead another person to become reactive. Perhaps as a next step, research could assess if adults could be accurate reporters of rejection sensitivity or disrespect sensitivity in their

peers. Perhaps, even adults cannot accurately recognize these dispositions in others, and if adults have difficulty identifying these constructs in their peers, children are unlikely to be able to do so. Further, if these dispositions are recognizable, they may be identifiable only in partners with which there is an established, intimate relationship. Outside of relationships with intimate others, people may not be able to gather the information they need to assess rejection sensitivity or disrespect sensitivity.

Unfortunately, because peer nominations of disrespect and rejection sensitivity did not correspond to self-report they were not used in the rest of the analyses, and thus the study has a mono-method bias. However, this bias may be difficult to avoid when trying to answer the study's research questions. The study of goals, interpretations, and beliefs is challenging to do without asking people directly. Future research should continue to explore other methods for studying these phenomena, perhaps through the experimental methods suggested above.

Sample characteristics. Another limiting feature of this study is that the sample was relatively homogenous. The seventh graders who participated in this study were predominately Euro-American, from working and middle class backgrounds, and from a midwestern, United States community. A different or more diverse sample was studied, there may have revealed differences in the mean levels of the phenomena. For example, disrespect sensitivity is especially relevant to children and adolescents growing up in dangerous communities in which members consistently feel threatened by aggression and feel the need to defend themselves or risk more harm (Anderson, 1999; Horowitz, 1983). Therefore, children from these kinds of communities are likely to show higher levels of disrespect sensitivity, and perhaps even revenge goals. Further, examining if the associations among rejection sensitivity, disrespect sensitivity, interpretations, and

revenge goals would be similar for children from different types of communities would be interesting. Future research should replicate these findings with more ethnically and economically diverse young adolescents.

Context. The present study also highlights the importance of studying context in the study of revenge and conflict processes. Although, in both conflict situations and major provocation situations, interpretations and goals related in predicted and similar ways, several differences between contexts were found as well. First, participants responded to conflicts of interest and major provocation situations differently. They felt worse, interpreted situations more negatively, and had more hostile goals and strategies in the major provocation situations than in the conflict-of-interest situations. Additionally, the strength of the associations between interpretations and revenge goals were different depending on the context, with the stronger associations occurring in the minor conflicts of interest. As another example, disrespect interpretations mediated the components of disrespect sensitivity differently between the two contexts. In the conflict of interest situations, disrespect interpretations partially mediated the effect of disrespect expectations on revenge goals, whereas in the major provocation situations disrespect interpretations fully mediated the effect of situational disrespect on revenge goals. These context differences highlight the importance of continuing to consider contextual factors in the study of conflict. Beyond the situational differences studied here, other features, such as the presence of an audience or the balance of power (e.g., Aquino, Tripp, & Bies 2001; Kim, Smith, & Bringham, 1998), may influence whether revenge is taken.

In conclusion, to more fully understand the basis for children's revenge goals, future research should examine the higher order goals that revenge serves for people. When children say that they want to get even we should not assume that we know the

exact nature of the goal they are pursuing. For example, revenge may serve the higher order goal of communicating to an offender that “you can’t treat me like that (Heider, 1958).” By way of another example, revenge may also serve the higher functions of trying to restore perceived fairness and equality (Lerner, 1980) or restoring self-esteem (Baumeister, 1997).

Studying the higher order goals behind revenge by interviewing individuals about their goals in conflict, especially “the goals that lie behind their goals” may also be fruitful. In relevant prior work on achievement, Urdan and Mestas (2006) interviewed adolescents about why they pursued performance goals in the academic context. They revealed a diverse array of reasons that students pursued performance goals, each of which may affect classroom motivation differently. A similar procedure could be used to interview adolescents about why they choose to seek revenge. The descriptive information gained from this kind of methodology could then be used to generate questionnaires to examine the functions that revenge might serve for individuals and contribute to a better understanding of how rejection and disrespect experiences influence to revenge goals. For example, finding that people mention that they sought revenge ultimately to improve their relationship with someone else (e.g., to communicate that they do not like to be treated in a certain way or that they would like their relationship to change), may indicate that revenge was done in reaction to perceived rejection and as a corrective action. If higher order goals about restoring power are mentioned, this may serve as an indication that revenge was enacted as a reaction to disrespect and in order to reassert perceived value. The continued study of revenge and the similarities and differences in rejection and disrespect experiences will yield valuable information about

our daily experiences as human-beings and provide information about the motivations behind aggressive behavior, more generally.

Appendix A

Letter to Parents

(the letter was printed on school letterhead)

Dear Parents,

As part of our continuing interest in children's social development and in ensuring a successful transition to middle school, our 7th graders will be invited to participate in a research project conducted by Kristina McDonald and Dr. Steven Asher from Duke University's Department of Psychology. This project will help us learn how to better assist children when they are experiencing difficulties in their social relationships at school. It is hoped that the information gained from the study will help to inform interventions for school bullying, conflict resolution programs, and other programming that will improve children's social experiences in school.

Your child will be filling out questionnaires during portions of four class sessions, with at least one week between sessions. These questionnaires will ask students about their experience at school with their peers. For example, students will be asked questions about their general beliefs regarding the ways that kids should treat each other, how they feel at school, what they expect when they interact with peers at school, what they think about their peers, and how they would respond in different peer interactions. The questionnaires will take about 40 minutes to complete in each session.

In the past, students have enjoyed participating in this type of research. All participating students will be given a small token of appreciation in order to thank them for their help. Students who do not participate in the research will stay in the classroom, but will be asked to work on something else while the other students are filling out the questionnaires. Your child's standing at school will not be affected, regardless of whether he/she participates in this research

Your child's answers will be kept private. All the information that your child provides will be kept with the strictest confidentiality. The researchers will use a number to identify your child's answers to the questionnaires. Only the researchers will have

access to the completed questionnaires, and they will never share any other information that could be used to identify your child.

The only exception to the above is that we would like to know if children would like to learn more about getting along with peers. If a child indicates that he/she would like to learn more then we will make sure that information about getting along with peers is made available to the child.

If you would **not** like your child to participate in the study, please call Kristina McDonald (630-551-6283) or the school (630-553-4385) by October 15th, 2007. We anticipate that the project will begin on or after October 16th, 2007.

If you have any questions, please call either of the researchers (Kristina McDonald at 630-551-6283; Steven Asher at 919-660-5773). They will be glad to address any issues about their research. If you have any questions about your child's rights as a research participant, please contact the chair of the Duke University Human Subjects Committee at 919-684-3030.

Sincerely,

Principal Signature

Appendix B

Vignettes

Directions: This questionnaire describes different situations that could occur in your everyday life at school. Try to imagine that you are actually in these situations. After reading each story you will be asked to indicate your responses to each situation. You will do this by circling a number to indicate how much you agree with each statement. Let's do a short story for practice.

| |
|--|
| PRACTICE |
| One day during math class, one of your classmates tells you that you are very smart. |

How would you **feel** about this situation?

Practice item: I would be happy.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Strongly

Strongly

Disagree

Agree

What would you be thinking in this situation?

Practice item: This person is nice.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Strongly

Strongly

Disagree

Agree

What would you actually do in this situation?

Practice item: I would walk away and not say anything.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| Strongly | | | | | | | | | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

Do you know what goals are? What would your goals be in this situation?

Practice item: I would want to show this person that I am thankful.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| Strongly | | | | | | | | | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

Please make each rating without thinking about your other ratings. You can give a high rating of agreement to more than one statement.

Conflicts of Interest

Television

You are at a recreation center after school. The woman in charge tells you that you can do whatever you want for half an hour. Both you and another kid walk over to a television set in the room to watch TV. You want to watch a show you really like. The other kid tells you that his/her favorite show is also on right now.

Art Class

You and another kid are painting pictures during art. You have both spent quite a lot of time on your pictures and they are almost finished. You both need the blue paint to finish your pictures. You tell the kid that you need the blue paint to finish the ocean on your picture. The kid also tells you that he/she needs the blue paint to finish the sky in their picture.

Basketball

In gym there are a bunch of basketballs for the students to use. When you and another kid get to the room where the basketballs are stored there is only one left. Both you and the other kid reach to get the ball at the same time. You tell him that you were looking forward to practicing your free throws. The kid says, "I was looking forward to practicing also."

The Movie

You are going to watch a movie in class and the teacher has announced that you can sit anywhere you want. You look for a spot near the back but there is there is only one seat left in the back row. Both you and another kid get to the seat at the same time. You tell the other kid that you really want to sit there. The kid says, "So do I."

The Calculator

You and a classmate are sitting at your desks working on your math homework. You both have a lot of homework and want to get it done quickly. Because you are both in a hurry you both would like to use the calculator that your teacher keeps in the classroom for students to use. Both of you go to get the calculator at the same time. You tell the kid that you really want to use it. Your classmate says, "I want to use it too."

The Swing

You are out at recess and you decide you want to play on the swings. There is only one swing left. You are about to get on the swing, but a classmate comes over and grabs the swing.

Major Provocation Situations

The Party

A kid in your class is having a party for their birthday. The kid has invited a lot of people from your class. When you ask if you are invited to the party, the kid says “No. Only cool kids are invited to my party.”

Board Games

One day in class the teacher says you can have free time to play games. The kids in your class go over to grab the board games. You see some kids setting up the game you want to play. You go over to them and ask if you can play with them. One of the kids says no and laughs at you.

Group Work

You have a science project to do with two other people from your class. The teacher randomly assigned groups but you have worked with both of the other students before and you thought you got along well with them. While discussing the assignment, you attempt to give some input and share your ideas. However, one of your classmates does not listen to your ideas at all. When you share your ideas, the kid just talks about a different idea. After trying to tell them about your last idea, which you thought was really good, the kid says, “That’s a bad idea.”

The Play

You are auditioning for a play and you are really excited and really nervous. At the auditions, the director tells everyone that they need to pair up with a partner to read lines. You ask one of your classmates to pair up with you. The classmate says no and adds, “You aren’t very good at this.”

Picking Teams

There are two students that you know who are picking teams to play a game. This is a game you think you are really good at and you think that you can do really well for your team. There are an uneven number of people who want to play so it looks like someone will be left out. As people are being chosen, you realize that a lot of other players are being picked before you. Finally, there are only two players left: you and another kid. The other kid gets picked and you are left out and cannot play. One of the kids says, “I am glad you aren’t on my team.”

Practice Time

You are trying out for a sports team and the coach chooses groups of players to practice together as a team before try-outs. One of the players is designated captain of your team by the coach. The captain assigns positions, but because there are extra people, one person will have to sit out while the others play. The captain keeps assigning you to sit out and you can’t figure out why. You ask to play but the team captain ignores you. Eventually, the team captain says, “You can’t play because you are a bad player.”

Appendix C

Rejection Sensitivity

The following questions describe different situations that you may encounter in your school life. We would like you to read each story and imagine that these things are really happening to you. After each story, you will be asked two questions. One question will ask about how nervous you would be in each situation. Another question asks about what you expect the other person to do. Circle the number on the line indicating your responses to each of the questions.

1. Imagine you are the last to leave your classroom for lunch one day. As you're running down the stairs to get to the cafeteria, you hear some kids whispering on the stairs below you. You wonder if they are talking about YOU.

How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not those kids were badmouthing you?

Not
Nervous

1

2

3

4

5

Very,
Very
Nervous

6

Do you think they were saying bad things about you?

NO!!

1

2

3

4

5

YES!!

6

2. Imagine you had a really bad fight the other day with a friend. Now you have a serious problem and you wish you had your friend to talk to. You decide to wait for your friend after class and talk with him/her. You wonder if your friend will want to talk to you.

How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or your friend would want to talk with you?

| | | | | | | |
|----------------|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|
| Not Nervous | | | | | | Very, Very Nervous |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | |

Do you think your friend would want to talk with you?

| | | | | | |
|------|---|---|---|---|-------|
| NO!! | | | | | YES!! |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

3. Imagine you have just moved and you are walking home from school. You wish you had someone to walk home with. You look up and see in front of you another kid from class, and you decide to walk up to this kid and start talking. As you rush to catch up, you wonder is he/she will want to talk to you.

How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not that kid would want to talk with you?

| | | | | | | |
|----------------|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|
| Not Nervous | | | | | | Very, Very Nervous |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | |

Do you think the kid will want to talk with you?

| | | | | | |
|------|---|---|---|---|-------|
| NO!! | | | | | YES!! |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

4. Now imagine that you're back in class. Your teacher asks for a volunteer to help plan a party for your class. She selects another child to pick three other children to help plan the party. Most of your classmates want to help and they all raise their hands to be picked. You wonder if your classmate will choose YOU.

How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not the classmate will choose you?

| | | | | | | |
|----------------|---|---|---|---|--|--------------------------|
| Not Nervous | | | | | | Very, Very Nervous |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | 6 |

Do you think the classmate will choose YOU?

| | | | | | | |
|------|---|---|---|---|--|-------|
| NO!! | | | | | | YES!! |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | 6 |

5. Imagine you're back in your classroom, and everyone is splitting up into six groups to work on a special project together. You sit there and watch lots of other kids getting picked. As you wait, you wonder if the kids will want you for their group.

How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not they will choose you?

| | | | | | | |
|----------------|---|---|---|---|--|--------------------------|
| Not Nervous | | | | | | Very, Very Nervous |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | 6 |

Do you think the kids in your class will choose you for their group?

| | | | | | | |
|------|---|---|---|---|--|-------|
| NO!! | | | | | | YES!! |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | 6 |

6. Imagine that your family has moved to a different neighborhood, and you're going to a new school. Tomorrow is a big math test, and you are really worried because you don't understand this math at all! You decide to ask another student in the class for help. You wonder if the classmate will offer to help you.

How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not the classmate will offer to help you?

| | | | | | | |
|----------------|---|---|---|---|--|--------------------------|
| Not Nervous | | | | | | Very, Very Nervous |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | 6 |

Do you think the classmate will offer to help you?

| | | | | | | |
|------|---|---|---|---|--|-------|
| NO!! | | | | | | YES!! |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | 6 |

7. Imagine you're in the bathroom at school and you hear some classmates in the hallway outside talking about someone. You hear them say that they don't like this person being in their class. You wonder if the kids could be talking about YOU.

How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not the classmate was talking about you?

| | | | | | | |
|----------------|---|---|---|---|--|--------------------------|
| Not Nervous | | | | | | Very, Very Nervous |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | 6 |

Do you think the classmate probably meant YOU when she said there was a kid she didn't like having in the class?

| | | | | | | |
|------|---|---|---|---|--|-------|
| NO!! | | | | | | YES!! |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | 6 |

8. You hear that a few of the kids are organizing a party and that about half the class will be invited to the party. After you hear that, you wonder if you will be one of the kids invited to the party.

How NERVOUS would you feel, RIGHT THEN, about whether or not YOU would be invited to the party?

Not
Nervous

Very,
Very
Nervous

1

2

3

4

5

6

Do you think that you would be invited to the party?

NO!!

YES!!

1

2

3

4

5

6

Appendix D

Disrespect Sensitivity Measure

Directions: The following questions ask you about what you think other people are like and what you think about how they act. Please respond by circling the appropriate number under each sentence indicating how much you disagree or agree with each statement. Each item is answered on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 10 (strongly agree).

Practice Item:

People like to go swimming.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|----------------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly Disagree | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | | Strongly Agree |

1. People are always trying to make themselves look like they are better than you.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|----------------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly Disagree | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | | Strongly Agree |

2. Most people will respect you.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|----------------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly Disagree | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | | Strongly Agree |

3. Lots of people will treat you badly if you are not careful.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|----------------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly Disagree | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | | Strongly Agree |

4. People tend to respect you as much as you deserve to be respected.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

5. It is best to act in ways so that other people know that you are a person who should be treated right.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

6. People want to make you feel like they are better than you.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

7. Signs that others disrespect you are everywhere.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

8. People tend to treat others in a kind and respectful way.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

9. It is more important to be respected than liked.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

10. People tend to treat others with the respect they deserve.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

11. It is important to pay attention to whether others respect you.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

12. A lot of people can be very disrespectful.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

13. People don't need to worry about being respected by other people.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

14. People won't respect you as much as you deserve, so you should make sure to show them otherwise.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

15. If you look at other people's faces it is easy to see whether they think that you are less important than them.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | | Agree |

16. It is important that people show that they respect you.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | | Agree |

17. It is important to let people know that they should respect you.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | | Agree |

18. If you are not careful, people will make you feel like you are no good.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | | Agree |

For the following statements, think about how much each statement describes you. Circle the number to indicate how much you disagree or agree that the statement describes you.

1. I feel disrespected when someone makes me look silly in front of other people.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | | Agree |

2. I feel disrespected when people disagree with me.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

3. I feel disrespected when people don't listen to what I have to say.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

4. I feel disrespected when I am treated unfairly.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

5. I feel disrespected when someone walks away when I am talking to them.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

6. I feel disrespected when people use my stuff without asking me.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

7. I feel disrespected when someone doesn't ask for my opinion when making a decision.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

8. I feel disrespected when someone gossips about me.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | | Agree |

9. I feel disrespected when someone says something mean to me.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | | Agree |

10. I feel disrespected when people criticize me.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | | Agree |

11. I feel disrespected when people insult my friends.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | | Agree |

12. I feel disrespected when people don't understand that I should be the leader of an activity.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | | Agree |

13. I feel disrespected when people don't trust me to do things right.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | | Agree |

14. I feel disrespected when people don't include me in the group.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

15. I feel disrespected when people tease me.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

16. I feel disrespected when people insult my family.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

17. I feel disrespected when a group is making a decision and I don't get to say what I think.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

18. I feel disrespected when I am not invited to something other kids are invited to.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | 10 |
| Strongly | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Strongly |
| Disagree | | | | | | | | | Agree |

Appendix E

Beliefs about Reciprocity

The following questions ask you about how you think people should act, in certain situations. Please read each statement carefully and rate the following statements on the scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

1. If someone treats you well, you should treat that person well in return.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

2. If someone says something nasty to you, you should say something nasty back.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

3. If someone treats you badly, you should treat them badly in return.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

4. If someone is kind to you, you should be kind in return.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

5. If someone has treated you badly, you should still treat them kindly.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

6. If someone is helpful to you, you should be helpful to them.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

7. If someone does something mean to you, you should do something mean to them.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

8. If someone does something nice for you, you should not do something nice for them.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

9. If someone treats you like an enemy, you should treat them like an enemy.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

10. If someone does you a favor, you should make sure to do a favor for them in the future.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

11. If someone disappoints you, you should disappoint them.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

12. If someone does a lot to help you, you should do a lot to help them.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

13. If someone gives you a gift, you should give them something.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

14. If someone says something rude to you, you should be rude to them.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

15. If someone is friendly to you, you should be friendly to them.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

16. If someone makes you upset, you should make them upset.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

17. If someone does something to hurt you, you should do something to hurt them.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

18. If someone cooperates with you, you should also cooperate with them.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |

Appendix F

Factor Analysis for the Beliefs about Reciprocity Scale

| | Factor 1 | Factor 2 |
|--|-------------|-------------|
| Negative Reciprocity Items | | |
| 14. If someone says something rude to you, you should be rude to them. | .94 | -.27 |
| 7. If someone does something mean to you, you should do something mean to them. | .93 | -.26 |
| 17. If someone does something to hurt you, you should do something to hurt them. | .92 | -.26 |
| 3. If someone treats you badly, you should treat them badly in return. | .91 | -.23 |
| 16. If someone makes you upset, you should make them upset. | .90 | -.33 |
| 2. If someone says something nasty to you, you should say something nasty back. | .89 | -.24 |
| 9. If someone treats you like an enemy, you should treat them like an enemy. | .81 | -.22 |
| 11. If someone disappoints you, you should disappoint them. | .80 | -.34 |
| R5. If someone has treated you badly, you should still treat them kindly. | .54 | -.29 |

| | Factor 1 | Factor 2 |
|---|-------------|-------------|
| Positive Reciprocity Items | | |
| 6. If someone is helpful to you, you should be helpful to them. | -.27 | .85 |
| 15. If someone is friendly to you, you should be friendly to them. | -.27 | .80 |
| 4. If someone is kind to you, you should be kind in return. | -.25 | .77 |
| 1. If someone treats you well, you should treat that person well in return. | -.22 | .76 |
| 12. If someone does a lot to help you, you should do a lot to help them. | -.21 | .73 |
| 18. If someone cooperates with you, you should also cooperate with them. | -.20 | .69 |
| 10. If someone does you a favor, you should make sure to do a favor for them in the future. | -.16 | .68 |
| 13. If someone gives you a gift, you should give them something. | -.16 | .54 |
| R8. If someone does something nice for you, you should <u>not</u> do something nice for them. | -.34 | .49 |

Note. The primary loadings for each factor are **bolded**.

Appendix G

Beliefs about the Legitimacy of Aggression Scale

The following questions ask about how you think it is okay to act to other kids. For each statement, circle the number to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each item.

Practice Item

Really Disagree

Really Agree

I like to play sports.

1 2 3 4 5

| | Really Disagree | | | | | Really Agree |
|--|-----------------|---|---|---|---|--------------|
| 1. It's o.k. to hit someone if you don't like him or her. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 2. It's o.k. to say something mean to someone if he or she really makes you angry. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 3. It's o.k. to say something mean to someone to get what you want. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 4. It's o.k. to hit someone to protect yourself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 5. It's o.k. to say something mean to someone to get even with him or her. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 6. It's o.k. to hit someone if he or she really makes you angry. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 7. It's o.k. to say something mean to someone if you don't like him or her. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 8. It's o.k. to say something mean to someone if he or she does something mean to you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 9. It's o.k. to hit someone if he or she hits you first. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |

| | Really Disagree | | | | Really Agree |
|--|----------------------------|---|---|---|-------------------------|
| 10. It's o.k. to say something mean to someone to show you can't be pushed around. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. It's o.k. to hit someone to get even with him or her. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. It's o.k. to hit someone if he or she does something mean to you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. It's o.k. to say something mean to someone to protect yourself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. It's o.k. to hit someone to get what you want. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. It's o.k. to say something mean to someone if he or she hits you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. It's o.k. to hit someone to show you can't be pushed around. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Appendix H

Behavioral Nominations

Disrespect Sensitivity

Circle the Names of Kids...

002- Ruby

For some kids feeling respected is really important. It really matters to them that other people treat them with respect. These are the sort of kids who are quick to feel disrespected and who get really upset if they feel like they have been disrespected.

001 Monica
026 Ryan
048 Michael
076 Zora
096 Jacob
106 Lindsay
130 Michael
144 Kathryn
158 Austin

010 Justin
036 Daniel
050 Wyatt
079 Samantha
099 Alex
109 Michael
132 Tyler
146 Joe
159 Donny

016 Kevin
044 Brandon
070 Danny
089 Artan
100 Audrey
125 Nancy
137 Natalie
149 Brandon
160 Bradley

.....

Rejection Sensitivity

Circle the names of kids.....

009 David

For some kids feeling liked and included is very important. It really matters to them that other kids like and include them. These are the sorts of kids who are quick to feel disliked or left out and who get really upset if they feel disliked or left out.

005 Blaine
015 Rebecca
053 Kelsey
070 Danny
084 Matthew
109 Michael
135 Alec
144 Kathryn
158 Austin

010 Justin
031 Dylan
062 Nicolette
076 Zora
098 Shawn
112 Rachel
140 Nicholas
146 Joe
159 Donny

014 Christian
036 Daniel
065 Alexsys
079 Samantha
099 Alex
129 Justin
148 Jeremy
149 Brandon
160 Bradley

.....

Appendix I

Script for Child Assent

Hello!! I am _____ and this is my assistant _____.

We are here today to start a research project with the 7th graders at (name of school) which is called the Peer Relationships Project. Do you know what a research project is?

Yup—that’s right. Research is done in order to learn more about a question that you may have. One way to do research, is to actually go out into the world and collect information. We are interested in how you get along with other kids, what you think about other kids, and how you feel at school. Because you spend so much time at school and with other kids, we are asking for your help because you are the experts!

Before we get started today I want to tell you a little bit about what we’ll be doing. Your parents already gave permission for you to be in the study, but you don’t have to be in the study if you don’t want to. If you do decide that you do want to be in the study, after each session we will give you a prize to thank you for helping us. You can skip any questions that you don’t want to answer and you can stop participating any time.

Remember that this is NOT a test and there are no right or wrong answers. We want to know what you think—so everyone may have different responses and that is okay. All of your answers will be kept private. That means that no one other than the people working on the project will find out your answers – not your classmates or your teachers or your principal or your parents- so you can be honest about answers. We want your help keeping answers private too. So, please don't tell anyone your answers or ask them what they said. Again, do not share your responses with your friends or with any of the kids in your class.

Is there anyone that doesn't want to participate?

Appendix J

Correlations among Emotions, Interpretations, Goals, and Strategies

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|-----------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 1. Anger | 1 | .63 | .54 | -.58 | .64 | .63 | .61 | .59 | -.33 | -.35 |
| 2. Hurt | .61 | 1 | .91 | -.64 | .54 | .54 | .63 | .47 | -.07 | -.16 |
| 3. Sad | .53 | .86 | 1 | -.64 | .49 | .50 | .56 | .44 | -.09 | -.14 |
| 4. Fine | -.56 | -.53 | -.54 | 1 | -.48 | -.49 | -.45 | -.42 | .26 | .31 |
| 5. Rejection | .62 | .63 | .57 | -.51 | 1 | .85 | .75 | .88 | -.37 | -.47 |
| 6. Disrespect | .63 | .61 | .52 | -.47 | .83 | 1 | .76 | .81 | -.32 | -.44 |
| 7. Judgment of Wrongdoing | .56 | .58 | .51 | -.40 | .75 | .81 | 1 | .69 | -.20 | -.32 |
| 8. Disassociation | .55 | .52 | .45 | -.44 | .82 | .78 | .69 | 1 | -.35 | -.43 |
| 9. Resolvable | -.36 | -.18 | -.12 | .41 | -.42 | -.42 | -.33 | -.40 | 1 | .65 |
| 10. Unintentional | -.37 | -.26 | -.17 | .42 | -.49 | -.46 | -.39 | -.42 | .77 | 1 |
| 11. Unviable | .38 | .26 | .19 | -.33 | .57 | .53 | .47 | .58 | -.58 | -.57 |
| 12. My fault | .15 | .35 | .31 | -.10 | .27 | .22 | .23 | .23 | .03 | .00 |
| 13. Not worth getting upset about | -.37 | -.34 | -.26 | .55 | -.43 | -.38 | -.34 | -.39 | .61 | .68 |
| 14. Revenge | .54 | .31 | .23 | -.31 | .51 | .52 | .46 | .49 | -.46 | -.45 |
| 15. Emotional Regulation | -.16 | -.10 | -.04 | .28 | -.18 | -.11 | -.10 | -.14 | .42 | .42 |
| 16. Get along | -.28 | -.05 | .00 | .29 | -.31 | -.30 | -.25 | -.29 | .80 | .70 |
| 17. Control | -.02 | .06 | .05 | .09 | -.03 | .06 | .08 | .02 | .33 | .35 |

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|--------------------------------|------|------|-----|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 18. Harm Avoidance | .02 | .13 | .13 | .08 | .00 | .09 | .11 | .02 | .33 | .31 |
| 19. Forgiveness | -.27 | -.04 | .02 | .27 | -.28 | -.28 | -.21 | -.30 | .76 | .67 |
| 20. Gaining Partner Acceptance | -.14 | .09 | .12 | .15 | -.13 | -.10 | -.08 | -.12 | .62 | .51 |
| 21. Gaining Partner Respect | -.05 | .08 | .10 | .09 | -.05 | .09 | .04 | -.04 | .50 | .46 |
| 22. Gaining Group Acceptance | .06 | .14 | .13 | .03 | .06 | .13 | .10 | .04 | .41 | .30 |
| 23. Gaining Group Respect | .03 | .10 | .11 | .02 | .03 | .16 | .10 | .00 | .36 | .29 |
| 24. Leaving | .11 | .11 | .16 | .07 | .10 | .12 | .11 | .09 | .10 | .07 |
| 25. Ignoring | .03 | .02 | .03 | .19 | -.01 | .04 | .06 | .00 | .28 | .24 |
| 26. Verbal aggression | .57 | .33 | .25 | -.31 | .51 | .52 | .44 | .47 | -.47 | -.44 |
| 27. Passive aggression | .56 | .33 | .26 | -.32 | .53 | .55 | .48 | .49 | -.48 | -.48 |
| 28. Physical aggression | .42 | .18 | .14 | -.21 | .35 | .41 | .36 | .30 | -.37 | -.36 |
| 29. Relational aggression | .42 | .28 | .24 | -.26 | .44 | .43 | .40 | .40 | -.37 | -.42 |
| 30. Prosocial | -.31 | -.04 | .01 | .31 | -.33 | -.35 | -.24 | -.32 | .82 | .68 |
| 31. Seek Help From Teacher | .12 | .35 | .31 | -.14 | .23 | .24 | .30 | .22 | .07 | .04 |

Note. Above the diagonal are correlations for the major provocation situations. Below the diagonal are correlations for the conflict of interest situations.

| | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 |
|-----------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 1. Anger | .43 | -.07 | -.45 | .33 | .08 | -.21 | .32 | .31 | -.15 | -.05 |
| 2. Hurt | .19 | .06 | -.30 | .05 | .20 | .14 | .33 | .42 | .17 | .23 |
| 3. Sad | .18 | .08 | -.32 | .04 | .15 | .13 | .30 | .37 | .17 | .23 |
| 4. Fine | -.26 | .06 | .51 | -.14 | .03 | .12 | -.25 | -.25 | .05 | -.01 |
| 5. Rejection | .53 | -.07 | -.32 | .27 | .14 | -.19 | .30 | .34 | -.13 | .02 |
| 6. Disrespect | .45 | -.09 | -.34 | .25 | .18 | -.12 | .39 | .40 | -.09 | .08 |
| 7. Judgment of Wrongdoing | .36 | -.08 | -.29 | .18 | .22 | -.01 | .40 | .47 | .03 | .12 |
| 8. Disassociation | .53 | -.11 | -.29 | .23 | .14 | -.17 | .32 | .34 | -.13 | .03 |
| 9. Resolvable | -.57 | .16 | .49 | -.44 | .21 | .73 | .08 | .09 | .64 | .52 |
| 10. Unintentional | -.40 | .29 | .43 | -.30 | .06 | .53 | .00 | .03 | .45 | .39 |
| 11. Unviable | 1 | -.02 | -.37 | .43 | -.14 | -.46 | .04 | .03 | -.45 | -.34 |
| 12. My fault | .16 | 1 | .07 | .00 | -.09 | .12 | -.14 | -.09 | .09 | .12 |
| 13. Not worth getting upset about | -.47 | -.04 | 1 | -.41 | .40 | .41 | .08 | .03 | .36 | .21 |
| 14. Revenge | .55 | .18 | -.45 | 1 | -.29 | -.50 | -.06 | -.06 | -.51 | -.38 |
| 15. Emotional Regulation | -.29 | -.10 | .49 | -.28 | 1 | .37 | .52 | .54 | .39 | .35 |
| 16. Get along | -.53 | .04 | .53 | -.47 | .51 | 1 | .27 | .27 | .86 | .79 |
| 17. Control | -.12 | -.18 | .26 | -.10 | .54 | .39 | 1 | .78 | .28 | .33 |

Note. Above the diagonal are correlations for the major provocation situations. Below the diagonal are correlations for the conflict of interest situations.

| | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 |
|--|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| | | | | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 18. Harm Avoidance | -.15 | -.06 | .24 | -.11 | .58 | .45 | .79 | 1 | .31 | .38 |
| 19. Forgiveness | -.56 | .05 | .50 | -.47 | .49 | .86 | .41 | .48 | 1 | .79 |
| 20. Gaining Partner Acceptance | -.37 | .11 | .36 | -.29 | .44 | .79 | .40 | .47 | .76 | 1 |
| 21. Gaining Partner Respect | -.24 | .04 | .32 | -.15 | .42 | .64 | .51 | .56 | .64 | .79 |
| 22. Gaining Group Acceptance | -.17 | .07 | .23 | -.05 | .36 | .53 | .44 | .53 | .55 | .77 |
| 23. Gaining Group Respect | -.13 | .02 | .23 | -.05 | .33 | .45 | .45 | .53 | .48 | .64 |
| 24. Leaving | -.04 | .08 | .16 | -.09 | .14 | .13 | .03 | .12 | .16 | .10 |
| 25. Ignoring | -.13 | -.02 | .27 | -.17 | .22 | .27 | .22 | .27 | .27 | .23 |
| 26. Verbal aggression | .53 | .18 | -.42 | .86 | -.31 | -.50 | -.15 | -.18 | -.52 | -.35 |
| 27. Passive aggression | .60 | .17 | -.46 | .85 | -.30 | -.51 | -.13 | -.17 | -.53 | -.35 |
| 28. Physical aggression | .41 | .16 | -.34 | .77 | -.26 | -.43 | -.11 | -.17 | -.42 | -.31 |
| 29. Relational aggression | .46 | .15 | -.40 | .75 | -.23 | -.38 | -.09 | -.12 | -.41 | -.28 |
| 30. Prosocial | -.55 | .05 | .50 | -.50 | .47 | .90 | .37 | .43 | .85 | .74 |
| 31. Seek Help From Teacher | .09 | .18 | -.06 | .08 | .15 | .23 | .17 | .23 | .18 | .28 |

Note. Above the diagonal are correlations for the major provocation situations. Below the diagonal are correlations for the conflict of interest situations.

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 |
|--|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 1. Anger | .05 | .26 | .20 | .09 | -.14 | .34 | .38 | .20 | .25 | -.23 | .17 |
| 2. Hurt | .20 | .31 | .25 | .25 | .07 | .01 | .05 | -.11 | .08 | .09 | .38 |
| 3. Sad | .19 | .30 | .24 | .26 | .05 | -.01 | .02 | -.09 | .08 | .10 | .38 |
| 4. Fine | -.03 | -.21 | -.15 | -.04 | .20 | -.09 | -.15 | -.07 | -.15 | .15 | -.21 |
| 5. Rejection | .09 | .34 | .26 | .19 | .05 | .27 | .32 | .12 | .20 | -.23 | .24 |
| 6. Disrespect | .28 | .39 | .43 | .12 | -.01 | .24 | .29 | .15 | .17 | -.18 | .26 |
| 7. Judgment of Wrongdoing | .18 | .38 | .32 | .21 | .10 | .14 | .22 | .05 | .16 | -.05 | .36 |
| 8. Disassociation | .13 | .32 | .27 | .18 | .04 | .25 | .30 | .09 | .15 | -.20 | .21 |
| 9. Resolvable | .30 | .14 | .13 | .14 | .31 | -.44 | -.48 | -.36 | -.35 | .76 | .09 |
| 10. Unintentional | .23 | .05 | .03 | .04 | .19 | -.32 | -.36 | -.25 | -.23 | .54 | .07 |
| 11. Unviable | -.15 | .02 | .00 | -.03 | -.16 | .43 | .49 | .33 | .34 | -.48 | .00 |
| 12. My fault | .05 | .01 | -.03 | -.05 | .02 | -.01 | -.04 | -.02 | .00 | .12 | .06 |
| 13. Not worth getting upset about | .13 | -.05 | -.03 | .23 | .41 | -.39 | -.42 | -.34 | -.37 | .41 | -.07 |
| 14. Revenge | -.21 | .01 | .00 | -.36 | -.43 | .90 | .87 | .76 | .80 | -.51 | -.09 |
| 15. Emotional Regulation | .34 | .28 | .27 | .32 | .42 | -.30 | -.28 | -.25 | -.28 | .37 | .22 |
| 16. Get along | .53 | .33 | .28 | .26 | .40 | -.53 | -.56 | -.44 | -.41 | .92 | .31 |
| 17. Control | .42 | .42 | .44 | .16 | .18 | -.08 | -.07 | -.11 | -.14 | .26 | .26 |
| 18. Harm Avoidance | .43 | .49 | .48 | .21 | .23 | -.12 | -.08 | -.16 | -.07 | .25 | .33 |
| 19. Forgiveness | .55 | .37 | .33 | .29 | .38 | -.53 | -.55 | -.45 | -.44 | .83 | .29 |

Note. Above the diagonal are correlations for the major provocation situations. Below the diagonal are correlations for the conflict of interest situations.

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|----|----|----|----|--|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 |
|--|----|----|----|----|--|----|----|----|----|----|----|

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 20. Gaining Partner Acceptance | .72 | .58 | .51 | .22 | .31 | -.42 | -.46 | -.38 | -.33 | .73 | .38 |
| 21. Gaining Partner Respect | 1 | .61 | .72 | .15 | .18 | -.25 | -.28 | -.23 | -.27 | .45 | .26 |
| 22. Gaining Group Acceptance | .78 | 1 | .88 | .17 | .15 | -.06 | -.04 | -.09 | .04 | .28 | .30 |
| 23. Gaining Group Respect | .86 | .89 | 1 | .11 | .11 | -.05 | -.04 | -.03 | .00 | .22 | .24 |
| 24. Leaving | .06 | .12 | .07 | 1 | .66 | -.39 | -.33 | -.38 | -.26 | .23 | .19 |
| 25. Ignoring | .21 | .21 | .17 | .62 | 1 | -.43 | -.42 | -.39 | -.35 | .38 | .22 |
| 26. Verbal aggression | -.22 | -.12 | -.11 | -.07 | -.14 | 1 | .90 | .78 | .73 | -.53 | -.19 |
| 27. Passive aggression | -.23 | -.12 | -.11 | -.05 | -.13 | .91 | 1 | .72 | .72 | -.57 | -.13 |
| 28. Physical aggression | -.16 | -.08 | -.04 | -.04 | -.13 | .77 | .80 | 1 | .71 | -.42 | .09 |
| 29. Relational aggression | -.18 | -.02 | -.02 | -.06 | -.12 | .73 | .77 | .76 | 1 | -.39 | -.01 |
| 30. Prosocial | .56 | .48 | .38 | .12 | .25 | -.53 | -.52 | -.43 | -.35 | 1 | .31 |
| 31. Seek Help From Teacher | .24 | .24 | .20 | .03 | .02 | -.01 | .03 | -.02 | .06 | .26 | 1 |

Note. Above the diagonal are correlations for the major provocation situations. Below the diagonal are correlations for the conflict of interest situations.

Appendix K

Correlations Among Legitimacy of Aggression Beliefs, Reciprocity Beliefs, Rejection Sensitivity, and Disrespect Sensitivity

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|-------------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|--------|-----|---|---|---|
| 1. Legitimacy of Aggression Beliefs | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Negative Reciprocity Beliefs | .84*** | | | | | | | |
| 3. Positive Reciprocity Beliefs | -.29*** | -.31*** | | | | | | |
| Rejection Sensitivity | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Anxiety about Rejection | -.01 | -.05 | .07 | | | | | |
| 5. Rejection Expectations | .13* | .14* | -.19*** | .35*** | | | | |
| Disrespect Sensitivity | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Situational Disrespect | .02 | .00 | .41*** | .38*** | .07 | | | |

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|-------------------------------------|-------|-------|---------|-------|--------|--------|---------|--------|
| 7. Importance of Respect | -.03 | -.06 | .34*** | .11* | -.18** | .40*** | | |
| 8. Disrespect Expectations | .17** | .18** | -.27*** | .09 | .42*** | -.11* | -.43*** | |
| 9. Vigilance for Negative Treatment | .12* | .13* | .14*** | .18** | .23*** | .36*** | .12* | .28*** |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

References

- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Newbury Park, CA.: Sage.
- Anderson, E. (1999). *Code of the street*. New York: WW Norton.
- Aquino, K., Tripp, T.M., & Bies, R.J. (2001). How employees respond to personal offense: The effects of blame attribution, victim status, and offender status on revenge and reconciliation in the workplace. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 52-59.
- Astor, R.A. (1994). Children's moral reasoning about family and peer violence: The role of provocation and retribution. *Child Development, 65*, 1054-1068.
- Averill, J.R. (1982). *Anger and aggression: An essay on emotion*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Axelrod, R. (1984). *The evolution of cooperation*. New York: Basic Books.
- Ayduk, O., Downey, G., Testa, A., Yen, Y., & Shoda, Y. (1999). Does rejection elicit hostility in rejection-sensitive women? *Social Cognition, 17*, 245-271.
- Ayduk, O., Mendoza-Denton, R., Mischel, W., Downey, G., Peake, P.K., & Rodriguez, M. (2000). Regulating the interpersonal self: Strategic self-regulation for coping with rejection sensitivity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 79*, 776-792.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social Learning Theory*. New York: General Learning Press.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*, 1173-1182.
- Baumeister, R.F. (1997). *Evil: Inside human violence and cruelty*. New York: W.H. Freeman.
- Baumeister, R.F., & Leary, M.R. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin, 117*, 497-529.
- Baumeister, R.F. & Tice, D.M. (1990). Anxiety and social exclusion. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 9*, 165-195.
- Bellah, C.G., Bellah, L.D., & Johnson, J.L. (2003). A look at dispositional vengefulness from the three and five-factor models of personality. *Individual Differences Research, 1*, 6-16.

- Bell-Dolan, D. J., Foster, S. L., & Sikora, D. M. (1989). Effects of sociometric testing on children's behavior and loneliness in school. *Developmental Psychology, 25*, 306–311.
- Benenson, J.F. & Benarroch, D. (1998). Gender differences in responses to friends' hypothetical greater success. *The Journal of Early Adolescence, 18*, 192-208.
- Berkowitz, L. (1993). *Aggression: Its causes, consequences, and control*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Betancourt, H. & Blair, I. (1992). A cognition (attribution)-emotion model of violence in conflict situations. *Personality and Social Psychology, 18*, 343-350.
- Bierman, K.L. (2004). *Peer Rejection: Developmental Processes and Intervention Strategies*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Bies, R. & Tripp, T. (1998). Revenge in organizations: The good, the bad, and the ugly. In R. Griffin, A. O'Leary-Kelly, & J. Collins (Eds.), *Dysfunctional Behavior in Organizations: Non-violent Dysfunctional Behavior*, (pp. 49-67). Stanford, Connecticut: JAI Press.
- Blackwell, L., Trzesniewski, K., & Dweck, C.S. (2007). Implicit Theories of Intelligence Predict Achievement Across an Adolescent Transition: A Longitudinal Study and an Intervention. *Child Development, 78*, 246-263.
- Brown, R.P. (2004). Vengeance is mine: Narcissism, vengeance, and the tendency to forgive. *Journal of Research in Personality, 38*, 576-584.
- Buckley, K. E., Winkel, R. E., & Leary M. R. (2004). Reactions to acceptance and rejection: Effects of level and sequence of relational evaluation. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 40*, 14-28.
- Burks, V.S., Laird, R.D., Dodge, K.A., Pettit, G.S., & Bates, J.E. (1999). Knowledge structures, social information processing, and children's aggressive behavior. *Social Development, 8*, 220-236.
- Caprara, G.V. (1986). Indicators of aggression: The dissipation-rumination scale. *Personality and Individual Differences, 7*, 763-769.
- Chung, T. & Asher, S.R. (1996). Children's goals and strategies in peer conflict situations. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 42*, 125-147.
- Cillessen, A. H. N., & Mayeux, L. (2004). From censure to reinforcement: Developmental changes in the association between aggression and social status. *Child Development, 75*, 147-163.

- Cohen, J., Cohen, P., Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (2002). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences* (3rd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Coie, J.D. & Dodge, K.A. (1998). Aggression and antisocial behavior. In W. Damon (Series Ed.) & N. Eisenberg (Vol. Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 3. Social emotional and personality development* (5th ed., pp. 779-862). New York: Wiley.
- Coie, J. D. & J. B. Kupersmidt (1983). A behavioral analysis of emerging social status in boy's groups. *Child Development*, 54, 1400-1416.
- Cramer, Phebe. (2000). Defense mechanisms in Psychology today: Further processes for adaptation. *American Psychologist*, 55, 637-646.
- Crick, N. and Dodge, K. (1994). A review and reformulation of social information-processing mechanisms in children's social adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 115, 74-101.
- Crick, N.R., & Grotpeter, J.K. (1995). Relational aggression, gender, and social-psychological adjustment. *Child Development*, 66, 710-722.
- Crick, N. R., & Ladd, G. W. (1989). Nominator attrition: Does it affect the accuracy of children's sociometric classification? *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 35, 197-207.
- Crombag, H., Rassin, E., & Horselenberg, R. (2003). On vengeance. *Psychology, Crime, & Law*, 9, 333-344.
- Delveaux, K.D. & Daniels, T. (2000). Children's social cognitions: Physically and relationally aggressive strategies and children's goals in peer conflict situations. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 46, 672-691.
- Dodge, K.A. (1980). Social cognition and children's aggressive behavior. *Child Development*, 51, 162-170.
- Dodge, K. A. (1986). A social-information processing model of social competence in children. In M. Perlmutter (Ed.), *Minnesota Symposium in Child Psychology* (Vol. 18, pp. 77-125). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Dodge, K.A., Asher, S.R., & Parkhurst, J.T. (1989). Social life as a goal-coordination task. In C. Ames & R. Ames (Eds.), *Research on motivation in education: Goals and cognitions* (Vol. 3, pp.107-135). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

- Dodge, K.A., Coie, J.D., Pettit, G.S., & Price, J.M. (1990). Peer status and aggression in boys' groups: Developmental and contextual analyses. *Child Development*, *61*, 1289-1309.
- Dodge, K. A., Lansford, J. E., Burks, V. S., Bates. J. E., Pettit, G. S., Fontaine, R., & Price, J. (2003). Peer rejection and social information processing factors in the development of aggressive behavior and problems in children. *Child Development*, *74*, 374-393.
- Dodge, K.A., Murphy, R.R., & Buchsbaum, K. (1984). The assessment of intention-cue detection skills in children: Implications for developmental psychopathology. *Child Development*, *55*, 163-173.
- Downey, G. & Feldman, S.I. (1996). Implications of rejection sensitivity for intimate relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *70*, 1327-1343.
- Downey, G., Feldman, S., & Ayduk, O. (2000). Rejection sensitivity and male violence in romantic relationships. *Personal Relationships*, *7*, 45-61.
- Downey, G., Lebolt, A., Rincon, C., Freitas, A.L. (1998). Rejection sensitivity and children's interpersonal difficulties. *Child Development*, *69*, 1074-1091.
- Dweck, C. S. (2000). *Self-theories: Their role in motivation, personality, and development*. Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.
- Eisenberg, N., Martin, C.L., & Fabes, R.A. (1996). Gender development and gender effects. In D.C. Berliner & R.C. Calfee (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology* (pp. 358-396). New York: Simon & Schuster Macmillan.
- Eisenberger, R., Lynch, P., Aselage, J., & Rohdieck, S. (2004). Who takes the most revenge? Individual differences in negative reciprocity norm endorsement. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *30*, 787-799.
- Elster, J. (1990). Norms of revenge. *Ethics*, *100*, 862-885.
- Erdley, C.A. & Asher, S.R. (1996). Children's social goals and self-efficacy perceptions as influences on their responses to ambiguous provocation. *Child Development*, *67*, 1329-1344.
- Erdley, C.A. & Asher, S.R. (1998). Linkages between children's beliefs about the legitimacy of aggression and their behavior. *Social Development*, *7*, 321-339.
- Fagan, J. & Wilkinson, D. (1998). Guns, youth violence, and social identity in inner cities. *Crime and Justice*, *24*, 105-188.

- Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Lang, A.-G., & Buchner, A. (2007). G*Power 3: A flexible statistical power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behavior Research Methods*, *39*, 175-191.
- Felson, R.B. (1982). Impression management and the escalation of aggression and violence. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, *45*, 245-254.
- Festinger, L. (1957). *A theory of cognitive dissonance*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Frame, C. L., & Strauss, C. C. (1987). Parental informed consent and sample bias in grade-school children. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, *5*, 227–236.
- Gest, S. D., Graham-Bermann, S. A., & Hartup, W. W. (2001). Peer experience: Common and unique features of friendships, network centrality and sociometric status. *Social Development*, *10*, 23-40.
- Gouldner, A. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review*, *25*, 176-177.
- Graham, S. & Hudley, C. (1994). Attributions of aggressive and nonaggressive African-American male early adolescents: A study of construct accessibility. *Developmental Psychology*, *30*, 365-373.
- Guerra, V. (2007). Predicting children's underestimation of social acceptance from public self-consciousness, depressive symptomology, and peer schema. Unpublished doctoral dissertation.
- Guerra, V.S., Asher, S.R., & DeRosier, M.E. (2004). Effect of children's perceived rejection on physical aggression. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, *32*, 551-563.
- Hayvren, M., & Hymel, S. (1984). Ethical issues in sociometric testing: Impact of sociometric measure on interaction behavior. *Developmental Psychology*, *20*, 844–849.
- Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relations*. New York: Wiley.
- Hewitt, L.S. (1975). The effects of provocation, intentions and consequences on children's moral judgments. *Child Development*, *46*, 540-544.
- Horowitz, R. (1983). *Honor and the American dream: Culture and identity in a Chicano community*. Rutgers University Press: New Brunswick, N.J.

- Huang, W. & Vaughn, M. (1996). Support and confidence: Public attitudes towards the police. In T. Flannagan & D.R. Longmire (Eds.), *Americans view crime and justice: A national public opinion survey*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.
- Huesmann, L. R., & Guerra, N. G. (1997). Social norms and children's aggressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *72*, 408-419.
- Iverson, A. M., Barton, B. A., & Iverson, G. L. (1997). Analysis of risk to children participating in a sociometric task. *Developmental Psychology*, *33*, 104–112.
- Kaiser, C.R., Vick, S.B., & Major, B. (2004). A prospective investigation of the relationship between just-world beliefs and the desire for revenge after September 11, 2001. *Psychological Science*, *15*, 503-506.
- Kearney, K. A., Hopkins, R. H., Mauss, A. L., & Weisheir, R. A. (1983). Sample bias resulting from a requirement for written parental consent. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *47*, 96–102.
- Kelley, H. H. & Thibaut, J. (1978) *Interpersonal relations: A theory of interdependence*. New York: Wiley.
- Kennedy, R. (1997). *Race, crime, and the law*. New York: Pantheon.
- Kim, S.H., Smith, R.H., Brigham, N.L. (1998). Effects of power imbalance and the presence of third parties on reactions to harm: Upward and downward revenge. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *24*, 353-361.
- Kubrin, C.E. & Weitzer, R. (2003). Retaliatory homicide: Concentrated disadvantage and neighborhood culture. *Social Problems*, *50*, 157-180.
- Ladd, G.W. (1983). Social networks of popular, average, and rejected children in school settings. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, *29*, 283-307.
- Leary, M. R. (1990). Responses to social exclusion: Social anxiety, jealousy, loneliness, depression, and low self-esteem. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, *9*, 221-229.
- Leary, M.R. (2001). Toward a conceptualization of interpersonal rejection. In M.R. Leary (Ed.), *Interpersonal Rejection* (pp. 3-20). New York: Oxford Press.
- Leary, M. R., Kowalski, R. M., Smith, L., & Phillips, S. (2003). Teasing, rejection, and violence: Case studies of the school shootings. *Aggressive Behavior*, *29*, 202-214.
- Leary, M. R., Springer, C., Negel, L., Ansell, E., & Evans, K. (1998). The causes, phenomenology, and consequences of hurt feelings. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *74*, 1225-1237.

- Leary, M. R., Twenge, J. M., & Quinlivan, E. (2006). Interpersonal rejection as a determinant of anger and aggression. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 10, 111-132.
- Lerner, M.J. (1980). *The belief in a just world: A fundamental delusion*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Lochman, J.E., Wayland, K.K., & White, K.J. (1993). Social goals: Relationship to adolescent adjustment and to social problem solving. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 21, 135-151.
- Luckenbill, D.F. & Doyle, D.P. (1989). Structural position and violence: Developing a cultural explanation. *Criminology*, 27, 801-818.
- Maccoby, E.E. (1990). Gender and relationships: A developmental account. *American Psychologist*, 45, 513-520.
- Maccoby, E.E. & Jacklin, C.N. (1974). *The psychology of sex differences*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Maccoby, E. & Martin, J. (1983). Socialization in the context of the family: Parent-child interaction. In P. Mussen and E. N. Heatherington (Eds), *Handbook of child psychology: vol. 4. Socialization, personality, and social development* (pp. 1-101). New York: Wiley.
- MacEvoy (2006). Hurt feelings in children's friendships: Associations with social cognitions, behavior, and adjustment. Unpublished doctoral dissertation.
- Mauger, P.A., Perry, J.E., Freeman, T., Grove, D.C., McBride, A.G., & McKinney, K.E. (1992). The measurement of forgiveness: Preliminary research. *Journal of Psychology and Christianity*, 11, 170-180.
- McCullough, M.E., Bellah, C.G., Kilpatrick, S.D., & Johnson, J.L. (2001). Vengefulness: Relationships with forgiveness, rumination, well-being, and the Big Five. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 27,601-610.
- McCullough, M.E. & Hoyt, W.T. (2002). Transgression-related motivational dispositions: Personality substrates of forgiveness and their links to the big five. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 28, 1556-1573.
- McCullough, M.E., Rachal, K.C., Sandage, S.J., Worthington Jr., E.L., Brown, S.W., & Hight, T.L. (1998). Interpersonal forgiving in close relationships: II. Theoretical elaboration and measurement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75, 1586-1603.

- McDonald, K.L. & Asher, S.R. (2005). *Beliefs about friendship in late adolescence*. Poster presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Atlanta, Georgia in April, 2005.
- McDonald, K.L. & Asher, S.R. (in preparation). Vengeful reactions to minor conflicts of interest with friends, roommates, and romantic partners.
- McFall, R.M. (1982). A review and reformulation of the concept of social skills. *Behavioral Assessment, 4*, 1-33.
- McFall, R. M., & Dodge, K. A. (1982). Self-management and interpersonal skills learning. In P. Karoly & F.H. Kanfer (Eds.), *Self-management and behavior change: From theory to practice* (pp. 353-392). Pergamon Press.
- McGuire, W. J., and McGuire, C. V. (1982). Significant others in the self-space. In Suls, J. (ed.), *Psychological Perspectives of the Self* (Vol. 1). Lawrence Erlbaum, Hillsdale, NJ.
- MacKinnon, D. P., Warsi, G., & Dwyer, J. H. (1995). A simulation study of mediated effect measures. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 30*(1), 41-62.
- Meng X.L., Rosenthal, R., Rubin, D.B. (1992). Comparing correlated correlation coefficients. *Psychological Bulletin, 111*, 172-175.
- Merriam-Webster (2004). *The Merriam-Webster dictionary*. Merriam-Webster.
- Miller, W.I. (1998). Clint Eastwood and equity: Popular culture's theory of revenge. In A. Sarat and T. R. Kearns (Eds.), *Law in the domains of culture*, (pp. 161-102). Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.
- Miller, D. T. (2001). Disrespect and the experience of injustice. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*, 527-53.
- Murphy, J.G. (2000). Two cheers for vindictiveness. *Punishment & Society, 2*, 131-143.
- Nasby, W., Hayden, B., & DePaulo, B.M. (1979). Attributional bias among aggressive boys to interpret unambiguous social stimuli as displays of hostility. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 89*, 459-468.
- Newcomb, A.F., Bukowski, W.M., & Pattee, L. (1993). Children's peer relations: A meta-analytic review of popular, rejected, neglected, controversial, and average sociometric status. *Psychological Bulletin, 113*, 99-128.
- Nietzsche, F. (1881). *Daybreak: Thoughts on the prejudices of morality* (R. J. Hollingdale Trans.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1982.

- Nisbett, R.E. & Cohen, D. (1996). *Culture of honor: The psychology of violence in the south*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Orobio de Castro, B., Veerman, J.W., Koops, W., Bosch, J.D., & Monshouwer, H.J. (2002). Hostile attribution of intent and aggressive behavior: A meta-analysis. *Child Development, 73*, 916-934.
- O'Toole, M.E. (2007). The school shooter: A threat assessment perspective. Critical Incident Response Group (CIRG) & National Center for the Analysis of Violent Crime (NCAVC). FBI Academy: Quantico, Virginia.
<http://www.fbi.gov/publications/school/school2.pdf>
- Parkhurst, J.T. & Asher, S.R. (1985). Goals and concerns: Implications for the study of children's social competence. *Advances in clinical child psychology, 8*, 201-228.
- Parkhurst, J.T. & Asher, S.R. (1992). Peer rejection in middle school: Subgroup differences in behavior, loneliness, and interpersonal concerns. *Developmental Psychology, 28*, 231-241.
- Pepitone, A. & Wilpizeski, C. (1960). Some consequences of experimental rejection. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 60*, 359-364.
- Piaget, J. (1932). *The moral judgement of the child*. Glencoe, IL: Free Press.
- Putallaz, M. Kupersmidt, J.B., Coie, J.D. McKnight, K. & Grimes, C.L. (2004). A behavioral analysis of girls' aggression and victimization. In M. Putallaz & K.L. Bierman (Eds.), *Aggression, antisocial behavior, and violence among girls: A developmental perspective* (pp.110-136). New York: Guilford Press.
- Raghunathan, T. E., Rosenthal, R., & Rubin, D. B. (1996). Comparing correlated but nonoverlapping correlations. *Psychological Methods, 1*, 178-183.
- Renshaw, P.D. & Asher, S.R. (1983). Children's goals and strategies for social interaction. *Merrill Palmer Quarterly, 29*, 353-372.
- Rose, A. J., & Asher, S. R. (1999). Children's goals and strategies in response to conflicts within a friendship. *Developmental Psychology, 35*, 69-79.
- Rose, A. J., & Rudolph, K. D. (2006). A review of sex differences in peer relationship processes: Potential trade-offs for the emotional and behavioral development of girls and boys. *Psychological Bulletin, 132*, 98-131.
- Ruble, D.N., Martin, C.L., & Berebaum, S.A. (2006). Gender development. In N. Eisenberg (Vol. Ed.) & W. Damon (Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology, Vol. 3: Social, emotional, and personality development* (6th ed., pp. 858-932). New York: Wiley.

- Savin-Williams, R. C. (1979). Dominance hierarchies in groups of early adolescents. *Child Development, 50*, 923–935.
- Schafer, J. L. (1997). *Analysis of incomplete multivariate data*. New York: Chapman and Hall.
- Severson, H. H., & Ary, D. V. (1983). Sampling bias due to consent procedures with adolescents. *Addictive Behaviors, 8*, 433–437.
- Shantz, D.W. & Pentz, T. (1972). Situational effects on the justifiableness of aggression at three age levels. *Child Development, 43*, 274-281.
- Shantz, D.W. & Voydanoff, D.A. (1973). Situational effects on retaliatory aggression at three age levels. *Child Development, 44*, 149-153.
- Singer, T., Seymour, B., O’Doherty, J.P., Stephan, K.E., Dolan, R.J., Frith, C.D. (2006). Empathetic neural responses are modulated by the perceived fairness of others. *Nature, 439*, 466-469.
- Slaby, R.G. & Guerra, N.G. (1988). Cognitive mediators of aggression in adolescent offenders: 1. Assessment. *Developmental Psychology, 24*, 580-588.
- Smetana, J.G., Campione-Barr, N., & Yell, N. (2003). Children’s moral and affective judgments regarding provocation and retaliation. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 49*, 209-236.
- Smetana, J.G., Toth, S.L., Cichetti, D., Bruce, J., Kane, P., & Daddis, C. (1999). Maltreated and nonmaltreated preschoolers’ conceptions of hypothetical and actual moral transgressions. *Developmental Psychology, 35*, 269-281.
- Stuckless, N. & Goranson, R. (1992). The vengeance scale: Development of a measure of attitudes toward revenge. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 7*, 25-42.
- Sukhodolsky, D.G., Golub, A., & Cromwell, E.N. (2001). Development and validation of the anger rumination scale. *Personality and Individual Differences, 31*, 689-700.
- Tisak, M. S. (1995). Domains of social reasoning and beyond. *Annals of Child Development, 11*, 95-130.
- Tomada, G. & Schneider, B.H. (1997). Relational aggression, gender, and peer acceptance: Invariance across culture, stability over time, and concordance among informants. *Developmental Psychology, 33*, 601-609.

- Trembley, P.F. & Belchevski, M. (2004). Did the instigator intend to provoke? A key moderator in the relation between trait aggression and aggressive behavior. *Aggressive Behavior, 30*, 409-424.
- Tripp, T.M. & Bies, R.J. (1997). What's good about revenge? The avenger's perspective. In R.J. Lewicki, R.J. Bies, & B.H. Sheppard (Eds.), *Research on negotiation in organizations* (Vol. 6, pp 146-160). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Troop-Gordon, W., & Asher, S. R. (2005). Modifications in children's goals when encountering obstacles to conflict resolution. *Child Development, 76*, 568-582.
- Twenge, J.M., Baumeister, R.F., Tice, D.M., & Stucke, T.S. (2001). If you can't join them, beat them: Effects of social exclusion on aggressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 81*, 1058-1069.
- Twenge, J.M. & Campbell, W.K. (2003). "Isn't it fun to get the respect that we're going to deserve?" Narcissism, social rejection, and aggression. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 29*, 261-272.
- Urdu, T., & Mestas, M. (2006). The goals behind performance goals. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 98*, 354-365.
- Vidmar, N. (2000). Retribution and revenge. In J. Sanders & V.L. Hamilton (Eds.), *Handbook of justice research in law*. New York: Kluwer Academic.
- Vossekuil, B., Fein, F.A., Reddy, M., Borum, R., & Modzeleski, W. (2002). The final report and findings of the safe school initiative: Implications for the prevention of school attacks in the United States. United States Secret Service and United States Department of Education: Washington, DC.
http://www.secretservice.gov/ntac/ssi_final_report.pdf
- Waldmann, P. (2001). Revenge without rules: On the renaissance of an archaic motif of violence. *Studies in conflict and terrorism, 24*, 435-450.
- Warburton, W.A., Williams, K.D., & Cairns, D.R. (2003). When ostracism leads to aggression: The moderating effects of control deprivation. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 42*, 213-220.
- Watzlawick, P., Beavin, J.H., & Jackson, D.D. (1967). *The Pragmatics of Human Communication*. Norton: New York.
- Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review, 92*, 548-573.

- Williams, K. D., Cheung, C. K. T., & Choi, W. (2000). CyberOstracism: Effects of being ignored over the Internet. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79, 748-762.
- Williams, K. D., & Sommer, K. L. (1997). Social ostracism by one's coworkers: Does rejection lead to loafing or compensation? *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 23, 693-706.
- Zelli, A., Dodge, K.A., Lochman, J.E., & Laird, R.D. (1999). The distinction between beliefs legitimizing aggression and deviant peer processing of social cues: Testing measurement validity and the hypothesis that biased processing mediates the effects of beliefs on aggression. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 77, 150-166.

BIOGRAPHY

Born: May 3, 1980; Springfield, IL

Education

Duke University, Ph.D. Developmental Psychology, 2008 (Anticipated)

Duke University, M.A. Developmental Psychology, 2006

Illinois Wesleyan University, B.A. in Psychology, Magna Cum Laude, 2002

Publications

Asher, S. R., & **McDonald**, K. L. (2004). Intervening to promote friendship: Experimental tests of hypotheses about fundamental skills and processes. A commentary on "Research on Friendship among Children and Adolescents: Findings, Problems, and Future Directions" (Joan G. Miller and Xinyin Chen, Eds.). A Special Section of the *International Society for the Study of Behavioral Development Newsletter*, (Number 2, Serial No. 46), Supplement to *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 28, 6, November, 2004.

French, D.C., Pidada, S., Denoma, J., **McDonald**, K.L., & Lawton, A. (2005). Reported peer conflicts of children in the United States and Indonesia. *Social Development*, 14, 458-472.

McDonald, K.L., Putallaz, M., Grimes, C.L., Kupersmidt, J.B., & Coie, J.D. (2007). Girl talk: Gossip, friendship, and sociometric status. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 53, 381-411.

Asher, S.R., & **McDonald**, K.L. (in press). The behavioral basis of acceptance, rejection, and perceived popularity. In K.H. Rubin, W. Bukowski, & B. Laursen (Eds.), *The Handbook of Peer Interactions, Relationships, and Groups*. New York: Guilford.

Asher, S.R., MacEvoy, J.P., & **McDonald**, K.L. (in press). Children's peer relations, social competence, and school adjustment: A social tasks and social goals perspective. In M.L. Maehr, S. Karabenick, & T. Urda (Eds.), *Advances in Motivation and Achievement (Volume 15: Social Psychological Perspective on Motivation and Achievement)*. Amsterdam: Elsevier.

Conference Presentations

McDonald, K.L., & Asher, S.R. (2007, May). Vengeful reactions to minor conflicts of interest with friends, roommates, and romantic partners. In S.R. Asher (Chair), *Overreacting to Interpersonal Events: Why People Make Mountains Out of Molehills*. Symposium conducted at the annual meeting of the Association of Psychological Science, Washington, DC.

- McDonald, K.L., MacEvoy, J.P., & Asher, S.R.** (2007, April). Motivational influences on gender differences in self-referral for peer relationship problems. In S.R. Asher & A.M. Ryan (Co-chairs), *Help-seeking Beliefs and Behaviors in the School Setting: New Insights Regarding Who, When, and Why*. Symposium conducted at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.
- McDonald, K.L., & Asher, S.R.** (2006, March). *Loneliness in context: A new measure of loneliness for college students*. Poster presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research in Adolescence, San Francisco, CA.
- McDonald, K.L., Putallaz, M., Coie, J.D., Grimes, C.L., Kupersmidt, J.** (2005, April). Girl talk: The function of gossip within girls' friendships. In J.D. Coie & M. Putallaz (Chairs), *The Costs and Benefits of Interpersonal Processes Underlying Girls' Friendships*. Symposium conducted at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Atlanta, Georgia.
- McDonald, K.L., & Asher, S.R.** (2005, April). *Beliefs about friendship in late adolescence*. Poster presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Atlanta, Georgia.
- McDonald, K.L., & French, D.C.** (2002, July). Prospective parents' intervention in children's object disputes. Poster presented at the International Society for the Study of Behavioral Development, Ottawa, Canada.

Graduate Fellowships and Scholarships

- | | |
|------------|--|
| 2007-2008 | The Kenan Dissertation Fellowship in Ethics, The Kenan Institute for Ethics at Duke University |
| 2007-2008 | Predocctoral Fellow at the Center for Developmental Science, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Funded by NICHD (participated as a fellow but declined monetary support) |
| 2007 | Dean's Award for Excellence in Mentoring: Graduate Student Award, Duke University Graduate School Award |
| 2007 | Summer Dissertation Fellowship, Duke University |
| 2007 | Association for Psychological Science Student Travel Award |
| 2006-2007 | Spencer Education Fellow, Spencer Discipline Based Scholarship in Education Program, Duke University |
| 2006, 2007 | Vertical Integration Grant, Duke University |
| 2005-2006 | Preparing Future Faculty Fellow, Duke University |