INFORMAL STATUS AMONG ADOLESCENTS: A LITERATURE REVIEW

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ABSTRACT: The paper provides a systematic review of the literature related to informal (or peer) status among adolescents. First, the most important sociological, developmental, and evolutionary perspectives of informal status are presented, followed by a review of the behavioral and personality correlates most widely discussed in the empirical literature. These correlates are athleticism, aggression, prosocial behavior, risk behavior, academic performance, academic engagement, physical attractiveness, involvement in romantic relationships, leadership abilities, and the Big Five personality traits. Since the bulk of the empirical literature comes from the educational context, where adolescents spend the largest portion of their time, this literature and its most frequently used status dimensions (acceptance, coolness, popularity) are the focus of the paper. The review also pays attention to ethnic and gender differences in status dynamics while acknowledges the importance of different cultural contexts. Implications of our current knowledge and future directions for research are also discussed.

KEYWORDS: acceptance, coolness, informal status, peer status, popularity

INTRODUCTION

Status among adolescents has attracted significant scholarly attention in the last few decades. An extensive body of research has demonstrated that adolescents who have high status among their peers, and popular adolescents

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in particular, are profoundly influential in setting the norms of groups and have huge influence on the behavior of their groupmates (e.g. Brechwald– Prinstein 2011; Dijkstra–Gest 2015; Sandstrom 2011). Additionally, research suggests that certain forms of peer status, such as popularity or coolness, as well as the desire to attain them, predict later engagement in risk behavior and academic adjustment problems (e.g. Allen et al. 2014; Mayeux et al. 2008; Schwartz–Hopmeyer Gorman 2011). On the other hand, unpopular and rejected children and adolescents also face similar risks, in addition to an increase in the probability of mental health problems (Parker et al. 2006; Rubin et al. 2015). Moreover, research has unveiled that status differences in wider society, such as those related to gender, race, or physical appearance, are often rapidly reproduced and maintained in small group interactions (e.g. Berger et al. 1980; Ridgeway et al. 2009).

In the empirical literature, peer status has been associated with a variety of behavioral and personality correlates involving athleticism, aggression, prosociality, risk behavior, academic engagement, physical attractiveness, leadership abilities, agreeableness, and extraversion. In addition to these general trends, important gender, ethnic, and cross-cultural differences have been unveiled. Therefore, the review will pay particular attention to ethnic and gender differences while also complementing the predominantly 'Western' literature with findings from other cultural contexts (Hungary and China). Since the research on peer status, to our knowledge, has been carried out almost exclusively in the school context, this will be the focus of our review. Throughout the paper, we will often refer to status among peers as informal or peer status in order to distinguish it from other applications of the term *status* – for instance, from socioeconomic status.

THEORIES OF INFORMAL STATUS

Status is generally understood as the *prestige* or *esteem* individuals enjoy relative to the prestige or esteem individuals at a different level of the *status hierarchy* have (e.g. Anderson et al. 2015; Leary et al. 2014; Ridgeway 2014). Status and the status hierarchy can be related to small, face-to-face groups (e.g. school classes or workgroups), larger groups, and wider society as well. Importantly, individuals with a higher position in the status hierarchy are assumed to have larger influence or power than their peers in lower status positions. Due to the prevalence of status differences, scientists from various fields have been interested in the emergence and maintenance of these

differences. The following sections will present a brief overview of the related sociological, social psychological, developmental, and evolutionary accounts of status with a focus on small, face-to-face groups and the peer context.

Sociological and social psychological perspectives

Since the investigation of social stratification has been one of the most central concerns for sociological research, research related to social status has a long tradition in this field. As is well known, Max Weber distinguished social status from social class as a distinct form of social stratification, and defined status as 'an effective claim to social esteem in terms of positive and negative privileges' typically based on lifestyle and prestige (Weber 1978: 305-306). He defined 'status order' as the way in which 'social honor' is distributed in a community between different status groups (Weber 1978: 927). In the decades after Weber, many sociologists gave a predominantly functionalist account of the status/ prestige difference, relating this to the (assumed) functional importance of a position and scarcity of the necessary skills (e.g. Davis-Moore 1945) as well as to individual achievement (e.g. Parsons 1940). Critical approaches have extensively challenged such assumptions, arguing that social inequalities along such dimensions as class, race, and sex are maintained and reproduced through different social practices that benefit the advantaged groups while also legitimizing these inequalities, (see for instance Bourdieu (1984), Collins (1971), Dahrendorf (1959) among many others). These social practices are, to a great extent, related to the development of status beliefs about differences between social groups with regard to their overall worth and capacities, which in turn creates and maintains status-based group differences, in particular in societies that otherwise value meritocracy and formally constrain explicit discrimination (Ridgeway 2014).

Theories related to status development in small, face-to-face groups reproduce many of these macro-level arguments. For instance, Peter Blau argues in his *theory of social integration* that social interactions may be considered exchange processes wherein individuals with qualities that enable them to provide valuable services to the group receive 'the respect and deference' of others, which grants them 'superordinate status' in exchange for these services (Blau 1960: 555–56). On the other hand, *expectations states theory* (Berger et al. 1972, 1980) and *status construction theory* (Ridgeway 1991; Ridgeway and Balkwell 1997) provide detailed theoretical accounts of how external status differences, unrelated to the task in question, are reproduced and maintained in task-oriented face-to-face groups. These theories predict that individuals belonging to the higher status groups in society (e.g. men, Whites, physically attractive individuals) have a larger chance of obtaining high status in face-to-face groups *both* among peers with high and low status characteristics. For these assumptions to be true, however, a general acceptance of this status order is needed by *both* groups. If the subordinate group(s) challenge this order, based on theories of intergroup conflict, we could predict in-group favoritism in the attribution of status (see, for instance, social identity theory, Tajfel (1974) and Tajfel–Turner (1979).

In the sociological tradition of adolescent peer relations research, *popularity* is the most frequently used social construct that represents status within the peer group (e.g. Adler-Adler 1998; Coleman 1961b; Eder 1985). These sociological works emphasize that both the precise meaning of popularity and the factors that make someone popular depend on the given peer group and culture (see for instance Coleman 1961b: 43; Eder 1985: 155-56). Consequently, this line of research generally relies on the participants' own construction of popularity. However, in spite of the important empirical contributions, hardly any sociological theory addresses directly the acquisition and functioning of popularity (status) among adolescents. Nevertheless, most theories about the acquisition and maintenance of informal status, such as the small group theories presented above, intend to provide models applicable to a variety of contexts, and many of them explicitly list schools among their examples. In line with these theories, Pál and colleagues argue that in the school context high status peers are the ones who make decisions for the group, while low status students are expected to adjust their opinions to the group and decrease their participation in decision-making (Pál et al. 2016: 806).

Recently, William Bukowski has provided a contextual (sociological) approach to popularity (Bukowski 2011). He argues that in order to understand popularity and the way it functions in a group, we need to understand the context in which it is embedded. He identifies four layers of context that need to be considered:

- the level of individualism or collectivism;
- group norms;
- socioeconomic status (SES);
- the level of secularization and the existence of a pluralistic value system.

He argues that groups that are high in *individualism* ascribe popularity to members who are self-assertive and excel at achievement-related tasks, while groups high in *collectivism* ascribe it to members that are caring and trustworthy. Since he considers popularity as an achievement, he argues that it is more important in the individualistic context. Additionally, he assumes that popularity is of higher importance in the *middle-class context* than in the low-SES context,

and in the *pluralistic secular context* than in the non-secular one, where cohesion is already strengthened by a shared political or religious value system.

Furthermore, theoretical proposals that address differences in peer experience between specific social groups can also be drawn on. For instance, the 'acting White' hypothesis (Fordham-Ogbu 1986) proposes that members of 'involuntary' ethnic/racial minorities in a subordinate social position may consider their academically well-performing members as becoming acculturated into the White American 'cultural frame of reference' at the expense of their own minority culture (Fordham-Ogbu 1986: 182-183). Consequently, academic success can be 'resisted' both socially and psychologically, and students who are thought to be 'acting White' can receive a variety of sanctions (ranging from disapproval to physical violence) from the same-ethnicity peers. Although the theory was developed to account for Black students' school experience in the United States, it may be extended to other socially disadvantaged racial/ ethnic groups in other contexts (see the review of the empirical literature below). Similarly, Paul Willis in his famous ethnographic study documented how the White working-class boys (the 'lads') he observed developed a 'counter-school culture' wherein they could obtain high peer status by adhering to the often violent, counter-school values of this subculture (Willis 1977).

Developmental perspectives

Peer relations have been extensively studied by developmental scientists. Developmental approaches focus on the ways peer relations shape children's and adolescents' social, cognitive, and emotional development and adjustment, interpreting these changes and dynamics in the context of the relevant developmental stage, ranging from early childhood to late adolescence (Newcomb et al. 1993; Parker et al. 2006; Rubin et al. 2015). Similarly to the sociological perspectives, developmental approaches interpret peer status among adolescents most typically through the construct of *popularity*. However, psychological research traditionally conceptualized popularity as being liked by peers (see for instance Coie et al. 1982). This changed in the late 1990s when some studies demonstrated that youngsters who are perceived as popular by their peers are not necessarily the ones who are widely liked (e.g. LaFontana-Cillessen 1998; Parkhurst-Hopmeyer 1998), which led to the distinction between popularity (a status dimension related to power, prestige, and visibility) and acceptance (a status dimension related to social preference) (Cillessen-Marks 2011). Empirical findings extensively support the argument that the two status dimensions are, starting from early adolescence, only moderately correlated distinct constructs (for a meta-analysis of 20 years of empirical research see Van den Berg et al. (2020)).

Although some forms of peer relations (e.g. friendship) are extensively covered by developmental theories, there are only a few theories that directly address popularity. One such theory is the *gender prototypicality theory* of popularity (Mayeux–Kleiser 2019) which argues that popularity as a status dimension distinct from social preference emerges in early adolescence as a 'byproduct' of intensifying cross-sex interactions and cross-sex attention. This explains, according to the proponents of the theory, why popularity gets disproportionately ascribed to those peers who are 'gender-typical' with regard to their appearance and behavior – it is they who are most likely to attract opposite-sex attention (Mayeux–Kleiser 2019).

Another developmental theory, *maturity gap theory*, associates adolescent popularity with the increasing gap between biological maturity and the limited social opportunities in adolescence (Dijkstra et al. 2010; Moffitt 1993). According to this theory, youngsters ascribe popularity to those peers who can 'close' this gap by demonstrating biological maturity (e.g. through sports, physical attractiveness, or sexual activity) and/or independence from adult rules (e.g. through smoking or alcohol and other substance use).

Finally, Antonius Cillessen proposes a tentative *theory of popularity* (Cillessen 2011) in the closing chapter of the book *Popularity in the Peer System*. This proposal intends to synthetize the multiple approaches and research findings presented in the book. Cillessen argues that the acquisition and maintenance of popularity are two distinct processes and thus should be distinguished. He identifies four factors that can play a role in the *acquisition* of popular status:

- social attention-holding power;
- motivation to be popular;
- behavioral skills (a mixture of prosocial and antisocial skills, in particular relational aggression), and
- psychobiological factors (e.g. stress resistance).

Cillessen argues that the ability to attract attention is essential as popularity implies visibility, which can be achieved through physical attractiveness (good looks or dressing well), achievement (academic, athletic, etc.), or behavior (leadership, bullying, etc.). Additionally, Cillessen argues that an agentic orientation (independence, autonomy, leadership) and agentic, power, and dominance goals are needed for becoming popular, while a communal orientation and communal, intimacy, and affiliation goals are needed for becoming widely accepted/liked. He also identifies four factors that can play a role in the *maintenance* of popularity:

- resource-holding power (successfully challenging others and defending one's position against other challengers);
- self-awareness (the awareness of one's popularity);
- social-cognitive skills (high levels of social intelligence);
- flexible adjustment to the group.

The last point includes understanding when a change of group goals and norms can happen and taking the lead in these changes.

Evolutionary perspectives

Evolutionary psychological and biological approaches apply the Darwinian theory of evolution to human behavior (Barkow 2006). These approaches typically focus on sexual selection and reproduction as well as on the biological basis of group formation and competition (e.g. De Bruyn et al. 2012; Gilbert et al. 1995). According to these perspectives, the status hierarchy in groups emerges as a result of individuals challenging others for resources and defending their resources against other challengers (Gilbert et al. 1995). An important reward of high status is assumed to be more mating opportunities and consequently increased reproductive success (Barkow (1989) cited by De Bruyn et al. (2012)).

In the peer relations context, evolutionary theories consider status (popularity) among peers as a form of *social dominance*, which involves competition for such limited resources as friendships or cross-sex contacts (Hawley 1999, 2003; Pellegrini 2008). From this perspective, *aggression* is not considered as dysfunctional but, if used strategically, an important tool in the competition for these resources (Pellegrini 2008; Pellegrini–Long 2002). Once 'group-level dominance hierarchies' are constructed, the level of aggression is assumed to decrease, as the use of it would be costly both for dominant and subordinate individuals (Pellegrini et al. 2011). This hierarchy is assumed to be beneficial for group members as within-group aggression is minimized and the risk of greater, group-destabilizing aggression is also reduced (Pellegrini et al. 2011).

BEHAVIORAL AND PERSONALITY CORRELATES OF PEER STATUS

This section provides an overview of the empirical literature related to the most frequently discussed behavioral and personality correlates of peer status. As we have seen above, peer-relations research typically distinguishes an affective status dimension related to social preference and a reputational dimension related to social prestige and dominance. The former is most frequently measured by the construct of *acceptance* (preference, likeability), while the latter by (perceived) *popularity*. Additionally, some researchers have captured the reputational dimension through some alternative constructs, most prominently by *coolness* (e.g. Bellmore et al. 2011; Jamison et al. 2015; Kiefer– Wang 2016; Wilson–Jamison 2019). The review below will focus on these three constructs.

Athleticism

Virtually all quantitative (e.g. Chase-Machida 2011; Kennedy 1995; Shakib et al. 2011), qualitative (e.g. Adler et al. 1992; Adler-Adler 1998; Eder-Parker 1987; Francis et al. 2010), and mixed (Coleman 1961b; Eder-Kinney 1995) studies have found that athletic ability is one of the strongest predictors of reputational peer status (popularity, coolness) for boys. Some studies have also found a positive but weaker association between athleticism and popularity for girls (for an overview see Lindstrom–Lease (2005: 228–230) and Rose et al. (2011: 110)). This is in line with the theoretical assumption that relates popularity to dominance, prestige, and visibility within the peer group, as sports participation provides visibility, while competitive sports can be related to dominance, which is traditionally considered a masculine trait. Qualitative research also suggests that as girls enter adolescence, the tension between athletic participation and maintaining status increases (Shakib 2003). Similarly, quantitative research including more sports indicates that predominantly 'sex-appropriate' sports (e.g. football or wrestling for boys, gymnastics or volleyball for girls) contribute to higher status as well as more friendship and dating preference for both sexes (Eder-Kinney 1995; Holland-Andre 1994).

Kennedy (1995) and Shakib and colleagues (2011) investigated the association between (self-rated) popularity and athleticism on representative samples in the United States. Kennedy found among eighth graders that popularity had the strongest association with athletic status for all demographic groups (Black, White, Asian, Hispanic), expect for Black females, for whom it was second after academic status (Kennedy 1995). Shakib and colleagues found in their sample, which included third to twelfth grade students, that regardless of race, gender, and SES, athletes reported higher popularity than non-athletes (Shakib et al. 2011). While Black athletes were *less* likely to report popularity than athletes from other racial/ethnic groups, there was no such gender difference. Although several studies suggest that Black and low-SES students may consider sport more important than their White or higher-SES peers as it can provide a channel for upward social mobility (for an overview see Shakib et al. 2011), the two representative surveys imply that these differences may not be reflected in peer popularity.

Social acceptance has also been positively associated with athletic ability for both genders (e.g. Daniels–Leaper 2006; Dijkstra et al. 2010; LaFontana– Cillessen 2002; Lubbers et al. 2006; Newcomb–Bukowski 1983; Vannatta et al. 2009). When taking into consideration the gender of the nominator, Dijkstra and colleagues found in a Dutch sample of adolescents that athleticism was more strongly associated with same-gender likeability for boys and cross-gender likeability for girls (Dijkstra et al. 2010).

It is important to note that these findings come predominantly from the United States, where sports occupy a particularly highly valued social position (Coleman 1961a; Shakib et al. 2011). Nevertheless, research from other parts of the world seems to have reached similar conclusions. Niu and colleagues found in a Chinese adolescent sample that athletic skills were positively associated with both popularity and social preference for both genders (Niu et al. 2016). On the other hand, Dong and colleagues found no statistically significant association between popularity and athleticism (Dong et al. 1996). Hungarian research among early adolescents has also found that athletic ability was positively associated with both coolness and acceptance (Bocskor–Havelda 2019; Pethes 2015). However, Bocskor and Havelda found that athleticism was only associated with coolness in the case of boys, while there were no ethnic differences between Roma and non-Roma students.

Aggression

Aggression has been extensively researched in relation to peer status. A large body of evidence suggests that it is positively associated with coolness/ popularity and negatively with acceptance/preference (e.g. Bellmore et al. 2011; Cillessen–Mayeux 2004; Kiefer–Wang 2016; Prinstein–Cillessen 2003; Rodkin et al. 2006; Schwartz et al. 2006) (for a review of the literature see Mayeux et al. 2011). Newcomb and colleagues conducted a meta-analytic

review of earlier literature on the characteristics of the classical sociometric status groups and found that 'sociometrically' popular (i.e. widely liked) children showed a lower than average level of aggression, while rejected and 'controversial' children showed higher than average levels (Newcomb et al. 1993). Since the 'controversial' status group contains pupils who score high on the dimension of social impact (i.e. are both liked and disliked by many peers), this group may be closer to our current understanding of popularity. Indeed, more recent research has distinguished two subtypes of (perceived) popular students: one that is high both on popularity/coolness and acceptance and one that is high on popularity/coolness but average or lower on acceptance (De Bruyn–Cillessen 2006; Rodkin et al. 2000; Van den Berg et al. 2015). The two groups show distinct behavioral profiles: popular-accepted students are usually prosocial, academically engaged, and non-aggressive, while popular but not particularly liked pupils tend to be aggressive and academically disengaged.

In order to provide a more refined picture about the relationship between aggression and peer status, it is important to distinguish between different forms of aggression, such as overt (direct) and relational (indirect) aggression (Crick-Grotpeter 1995) as well as proactive and reactive aggression (Dodge-Coie 1987). Relational (or social or indirect) aggression refers to behavior that is intended to damage another person's social relationships or social position through manipulation – for instance by sabotaging the target person's friendships or romantic relationships, spreading gossip, or by exclusion from activities (Card et al. 2008; Crick-Grotpeter 1995). To our knowledge, one meta-analytic review has investigated the association between indirect aggression and popularity (Casper et al. 2020), two reviews between indirect aggression and acceptance (Card et al. 2008; Casper et al. 2020), and one review between direct aggression and acceptance (Card et al. 2008). The results show that popularity is positively associated with indirect aggression, acceptance is negatively associated with direct aggression, while the negative association between indirect aggression and acceptance becomes nonsignificant if we control for direct aggression. Empirical studies have also found a positive association between direct/overt aggression and popularity (see the literature review by Mayeux-Kleiser 2019). However, some studies suggest that the effect of indirect/relational aggression is stronger (Cillessen-Mayeux 2004; Prinstein-Cillessen 2003), while other studies have found that after controlling for relational aggression, the effect of overt aggression becomes nonsignificant (Rose et al. 2004; Waasdorp et al. 2013). With regard to reactive and proactive aggression, Stoltz and colleagues found that proactive (strategic) aggression was positively while reactive aggression negatively associated with popularity (Stoltz et al. 2016). Prinstein and Cillessen combined the two dimensions and found that the strategic use of both direct and indirect aggression was positively associated with popularity, while reactive direct aggression was negatively associated with both popularity and acceptance (Prinstein–Cillessen 2003).

Bullying is a special form of aggression, which can be defined as "a subtype of aggressive behavior, in which an individual or a group of individuals repeatedly attacks, humiliates, and/or excludes a relatively powerless person" (Salmivalli 2010: 112). It can be viewed as a form of instrumental, proactive aggression with the goal of attaining status and dominance (Pellegrini et al. 2011). There is a growing body of evidence that suggests that skillful bullies tend to have high levels of popularity and low levels of acceptance, while victims have both low levels of popularity and acceptance (e.g. Duffy et al. 2017; Pouwels et al. 2016; Pronk et al. 2017; Rodkin–Berger 2008; Sijtsema et al. 2009; Veenstra et al. 2005). More refined analysis of the different roles has found that followers of bullies were also associated with higher levels of popularity and lower levels of acceptance, while defenders were associated with higher levels of acceptance and in some cases higher levels of popularity (Duffy et al. 2017; Pronk et al. 2017).

With regard to gender differences, although an earlier review (Rose et al. 2011) suggested that significant gender differences were typically found in the ethnographic but rarely the quantitative literature, a more recent review (Mayeux-Kleiser 2019) argues that overt and relational aggression contribute to boys' and girls' popularity differently. Indeed, some quantitative studies have found the association between overt aggression and popularity/coolness to be stronger (Waasdorp et al. 2013) or only significant (Kiefer-Wang 2016; Xie et al. 2003) in the case of boys. Similarly, some studies suggest that relational aggression is more strongly (e.g. Cillessen-Mayeux 2004) or only (Kiefer-Wang 2016) associated with girls' coolness/popularity. Additionally, popularity has been more strongly associated with bullying for boys (De Bruyn et al. 2010). When taking into consideration the gender of both the bully and the victim, Rodkin and Berger found that same-sex bullying contributed to popularity, boys bullying girls to unpopularity, while bullies were disliked regardless of whom they targeted (Rodkin-Berger 2008). Additionally, Veenstra and colleagues found that male same-gender bullying was positively associated with female acceptance (Veenstra et al. 2010). The ethnographic literature also underlines the importance of physical strength and 'toughness'- the ability to intimidate and dominate others- in boys' popularity, as well as the role of social manipulation and verbal intimidation in girls' popularity (e.g. Adler et al. 1992; Eder 1985; Merten 1997).

Some research also suggests ethnic/racial differences in the association between aggression and peer status. For instance, some studies have found a strong association between aggression and popularity in the case of African American students in Black-majority schools, and a stronger association for African American than European American students in multi-ethnic settings (e.g. Farmer et al. 2003; Luthar–McMahon 1996; Meisinger et al. 2007; Rodkin et al. 2000; Waasdorp et al. 2013).

The empirical evidence that shows an association between some forms of aggression and popularity is in line with predictions of evolutionary theories, which propose that aggression is used strategically to gain and maintain status. In particular, 'bistrategic' youth (Hawley 2003) – i.e. pupils who use both aggression and prosocial behavior –, have been found to have the highest level of popularity (e.g. Closson–Hymel 2016; Dijkstra et al. 2009; Hartl et al. 2020; Kornbluh–Neal 2016) (for an overview of primarily the evolutionary research see Pellegrini et al. 2011). Research by sociologists Robert Faris and Diane Felmlee also underlines the role of aggression in status competition; the authors measured peer status by social network centrality in friendship networks and found that increased network centrality, where aggression decreased (Faris–Felmlee 2011, 2014).

In 'non-Western' cultural contexts, the relationship between peer status and aggression may be more controversial. Some research among Chinese students found a positive association between popularity and aggression (Lu et al. 2018a; Niu et al. 2016; Schwartz et al. 2010) and a negative association between acceptance and aggression (Niu et al. 2016; Schwartz et al. 2010), while other studies found negative association between popularity and aggression (Owens et al. 2014; Tseng et al. 2013; Xi et al. 2016). In Hungary, Bocskor and Havelda found among early adolescents no association between physical aggression and coolness and a positive association between verbal aggression and coolness only in the case of non-Roma students (Bocskor-Havelda 2019). Similarly, they found that acceptance was negatively associated with verbal aggression. Interestingly, verbal aggression had a stronger positive association with girls' coolness and a stronger negative association with their acceptance. Kisfalusi investigated bullying among sixth graders in the same database and found an inverted U-shaped relationship between physical and verbal bullying and coolness nominations among sixth graders: students were more likely to be nominated as perpetrators up to a certain level of coolness (Kisfalusi 2018).

Prosocial behavior

Prosocial behavior is voluntary behavior intended to benefit others (Eisenberg et al. 1999; Wolters et al. 2014), which has been conceptualized by characteristics

such as empathy, concern for others, and interest in enhancing personal relationships (Aikins–Litwack 2011). It has been found to correlate strongly with both peer acceptance and popularity (e.g. De Bruyn–Cillessen 2006; Dijkstra et al. 2009; Kornbluh–Neal 2016; Peters et al. 2010; Wolters et al. 2014). As mentioned above, peers that use a mixture of prosocial and (strategic) aggressive behavior tend to be the most popular. Qualitative studies have found that, in addition to kindness and helpfulness, popular girls also used manipulative tactics and 'meanness' (indirect and verbal aggression) to maintain their status (e.g. Currie et al. 2007; Duncan 2004; Merten 1997; Wiseman 2002), while popular boys were also engaged in demonstrations of physical dominance, ranging from pushing to physical fights (e.g. Adler et al. 1992; Francis et al. 2010). Although an earlier review (Rose et al. 2011) suggested that the quantitative literature had not found gender differences in this domain, Kornbluh and Neal found that popularity had a stronger positive association with prosociality for girls (Kornbluh–Neal 2016).

Sociometric studies among Chinese adolescents also found that both popularity and acceptance were positively associated with prosociality (Lu et al. 2018b; Niu et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2019). Interestingly, those two studies that investigated both status dimensions showed that prosociality was more strongly associated with popularity than with acceptance (Lu et al. 2018b; Niu et al. 2016), which Niu and colleagues attribute to Confucian principles prescribing morally responsible behavior. Two studies that focused on students' perception of popularity determinants and used samples from multiple countries found that Chinese students more strongly associated popularity with prosociality than American (Li et al. 2012) or Australian (Owens et al. 2014) pupils. Owens and colleagues attribute this difference to the collectivist cultural context in China, which also puts stronger emphasis on social harmony.

Risk behavior

Several researchers have been interested in the relationship between peer status and different forms of risk-taking activities. Although this concept can cover a wide scope of behaviors, primarily aggression, substance use/abuse, and sexual behavior have been discussed in relation to adolescent peer status (Schwartz–Hopmeyer Gorman 2011). Since aggression has already been discussed above, we will not cover it in the current section. Overall, popularity has been positively associated with substance use (Franken et al. 2017; Hawke–Rieger 2013; Killeya-Jones et al. 2007; Mayeux et al. 2008; Prinstein et al. 2011) and sexual activity (Hawke–Rieger 2013; Mayeux et al. 2008; Prinstein et al.

2003, 2011) for most groups of adolescents. Hawke and Rieger investigated a wide range of risk behaviors among Australian grade 9 students and found, in addition to the results described already, antisocial activities (vandalism, shoplifting, skipping classes, breaking school rules) to be typical of the high-onpopularity-low-on-acceptance group of students, in particular boys (Hawke-Rieger 2013). Social acceptance has not been associated with risk behavior for most groups (Franken et al. 2017; Hawke-Rieger 2013; Mayeux et al. 2008; Prinstein et al. 2003), although Franken and colleagues found that risk behavior was negatively associated with acceptance for girls, while Hawke and Rieger found that boys with high levels of acceptance were those most likely to be engaged in sexual activity, whereas girls with high levels of acceptance were the least likely. The maturity gap hypothesis (Moffitt 1993) can provide a good explanation for the positive relationship between risk behavior and popularity. In particular in the case of those activities that are legal/accepted for adults but not so much for adolescents (tobacco and alcohol use, sexual activity), those peers who engage in such activities can be seen as demonstrating independence and autonomy and thus closing the gap between biological maturity and (the lack of) social maturity.

Academic performance and engagement

Traditional sociometric research has extensively found that 'sociometrically' popular (i.e. accepted) students perform well academically, while members of the 'controversial' group perform around average (Newcomb et al. 1993). As we have seen above, more recent research distinguished two subgroups of (perceived) popular pupils; one that is highly accepted, nonaggressive, and academically engaged, and another that is average or low on acceptance, aggressive, and usually academically disengaged (De Bruyn-Cillessen 2006; Rodkin et al. 2000; Van den Berg et al. 2015). It may be due to this ambiguity that quantitative studies have found controversial results with regard to the relationship between academic performance (GPA) and popularity: some studies showing negative association (e.g. Hopmeyer Gorman et al. 2002), while other studies showing no association at all (e.g. Boyatzis et al. 1998; Meijs et al. 2010). In one study, LaFontana and Cillessen measured academic ability with peer nominations of smartness among early adolescents and found it to be positively associated with both popularity and acceptance (LaFontana-Cillessen 2002). The ethnographic studies by Adler and colleagues found that in the case of boys, both high and low academic achievement had a negative relationship with popularity (being labelled 'nerdy' or 'dummy'), whereas

popular girls did not suffer any stigma for performing well academically (Adler et al. 1992; Adler–Adler 1998). Other qualitative studies also confirmed that academically successful popular boys had to 'balance' popularity and school achievement (e.g. Francis et al. 2010). Although the association between grades and acceptance has typically been found to be positive (Wentzel 2009), Meijs and colleagues found no main effect of academic achievement on acceptance (Meijs et al. 2010). However, they found that in vocational classrooms the combination of high social intelligence and low achievement were associated with popularity, while in college-preparatory classrooms it was the combination of high social intelligence and high achievement.

Academic engagement is generally understood as a multidimensional construct that can be divided into subcategories such as behavioral (e.g. following the rules), emotional (e.g. sense of belonging and appreciation), and cognitive engagement (investment in learning) (Fredricks et al. 2004). Most studies have investigated the relationship between some aspects of behavioral engagement and peer status, and typically found a negative association between popularity/coolness and behavioral engagement (e.g. De Laet et al. 2014, 2015; Hopmeyer Gorman et al. 2002; Kiefer-Wang 2016; Schwartz et al. 2006; Troop-Gordon et al. 2011). Engels and colleagues conducted a very refined analysis of the relationship between academic engagement and peer status on a Belgian sample and found that behavioral engagement was negatively whereas behavioral disaffection positively associated with popularity, while the emotional dimensions were not associated with popularity (Engels et al. 2017). Additionally, acceptance was positively associated with both emotional and behavioral engagement (Engels et al. 2017). Finally, the developmental aspect also needs to be taken into consideration. For instance, Galván and colleagues found that increases in coolness were associated with increased academic engagement (raising hands, participating in class, following class rules) in grade 5, but with increased disengagement (copying homework, coming to class late, getting in trouble in class) in grades 7-8 (Galván et al. 2011).

With regard to racial and ethnic differences, the 'acting White' hypothesis (Fordham–Ogbu 1986) proposes that for many African American students academic success can lead to sanctions from same-ethnicity peers (see the theoretical chapter above). Although some ethnographic studies at the time corroborated Fordham and Ogbu's findings (e.g. Miller 1989: 181), other, more recent ethnographic studies (e.g. Horvat–Lewis 2003; Tyson et al. 2005) and semi-structured interviews (Xie et al. 2006) did not. Similarly, some quantitative studies on large-scale American samples found support for the hypothesis (Fryer–Torelli 2010; Fuller-Rowell–Doan 2010), while others did not (Ainsworth-Darnell–Downey 1998; Cook–Ludwig 1997; Wildhagen 2011).

Importantly, these studies conceptualized social standing as self-reported popularity (Ainsworth-Darnell–Downey 1998; Cook–Ludwig 1997), self-reported social acceptance (Fuller-Rowell–Doan 2010), or friendship networks (Fryer–Torelli 2010), and none of them used peer-nominated acceptance, popularity, or coolness. Research on other sociodemographic groups, including Latin American students (Flores-Gonzalez 2005) and ethnic minority pupils in Germany (Stark et al. 2017), has also yielded controversial results for the 'acting White' hypothesis.

Finally, similarly to earlier sections, the importance of cross-cultural differences also needs to be emphasized. In the Chinese context, not only acceptance, but also popularity have been found to be positively associated with academic achievement (Li et al. 2012; Niu et al. 2016). In Hungary, Bocskor and Havelda found among early adolescents a minimal but statistically significant negative association between academic engagement and coolness, and a minimal but statistically significant positive association between engagement and acceptance, and GPA and acceptance among early adolescents (Bocskor–Havelda 2019). Additionally, three studies have tested the 'acting White' hypothesis on ethnic Roma students in Hungary (Habsz–Radó 2018; Hajdu et al. 2019; Kisfalusi 2018), but none of them found evidence of an ethnic oppositional culture. However, a vignette experiment found that Roma students in classes with *high ethnic diversity* rated *hypothetical* peers with good GPA as less cool (Keller 2020).

Physical attractiveness and involvement in romantic relationships

Qualitative studies have extensively demonstrated the strong relationship between *physical attractiveness*, being fashionable, and high status, especially in the case of girls (e.g. Adler et al. 1992; Eder 1985; Francis et al. 2010; Merten 1997). Quantitative studies have found attractiveness to be positively associated with both popularity and acceptance for both sexes (e.g. Boyatzis et al. 1998; Dijkstra et al. 2010; LaFontana–Cillessen 2002; Lease et al. 2002; Vaillancourt–Hymel 2006), while some studies found it to be more strongly associated with girls' popularity (e.g. Closson 2009). However, what counts as physically attractive may differ for the two sexes: Wang and colleagues found that lower levels of popularity were associated with a larger body shape for girls, while for boys both thin and heavier body shapes were associated with lower levels of popularity (Wang et al. 2006). Similarly, the importance of romantic relationships, and at a more general level being 'at ease' in cross-sex interactions, have also been shown by several qualitative studies (e.g. Adler et al. 1992; Eder, 1985; Francis et al. 2010). Quantitative research has also found that involvement in dating/romantic relationships is positively associated with popularity and acceptance (Carlson–Rose 2007; Houser et al. 2015; Miller et al. 2009). One study among Chinese elementary school students (grade 5) found that cross-sex interaction was negatively associated with popularity (Li et al. 2012), while another piece of research among adolescents (grade 8) found that dating was positively associated with both popularity and acceptance (Niu et al. 2016). In Hungary, Bocskor and Havelda found that physical attractiveness was positively associated with both acceptance and coolness; however, it was more strongly associated with coolness for boys (Bocskor–Havelda 2019).

Leadership abilities and the Big Five personality traits

There are several dimensions to personality and several taxonomies of personality traits in psychology. Although many of them may be relevant to peer status, relatively few studies have investigated the relationship between personality and peer status, and these studies almost exclusively used the *Big* Five factors (Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism) (e.g. Ilmarinen et al. 2019; Jensen-Campbell et al. 2002; Lubbers et al. 2006; Mervielde-Fruyt 2000; Van der Linden et al. 2010; Wolters et al. 2014). A recent review suggests that out of the five factors extraversion is positively associated with both popularity and acceptance, agreeableness is positively associated with acceptance, neuroticism is negatively associated (in some studies) with both forms of status, while openness and conscientiousness is typically not associated with status (Van Aken-Asendorpf (2018) cited by Ilmarinen et al. (2019)). Van der Linden and colleagues found that when all Big Five dimensions were tested simultaneously, most of the statistical significance was lost, which suggested that the dimensions had overlapping variance (Van der Linden et al. 2010). They created a higher-order factor, the General Factor of Personality (GFP), to grasp this shared variance, and this factor was positively associated with both popularity and acceptance. Wolters and colleagues simultaneously investigated behavioral, personality, and communicative predictors of the two status dimensions among adolescents (Wolters et al. 2014). Out of the two personality traits they investigated (extraversion and agreeableness), only extraversion was found to be a distinct predictor of popularity. Additionally, they found that prosocial behavior only predicted popularity if it was associated with high levels of extraversion, while antisocial behavior was also associated with higher levels of popularity in case of students high on extraversion.

In addition to the Big Five personality traits, some studies have investigated the role of leadership abilities, in particular the extent to which it can moderate the association between popularity and relational aggression. Waasdorp and colleagues found that both popularity and acceptance were positively associated with leadership, and popular pupils who used relational aggression were more likely to be seen as leaders (Waasdorp et al. 2013). Puckett and colleagues found that leadership moderated the positive association between relational aggression and popularity, but not the negative association between relational aggression and acceptance (Puckett et al. 2008), while Gangel and colleagues found that in the case of girls only those relationally aggressive pupils were popular who also scored highly for perceived leadership ability (Gangel et al. 2017).

THE EFFECTS OF PEER NORMS AND GROUP COMPOSITION

The paper was so far intended to provide a brief but comprehensive overview of the relevant theoretical approaches and the most widely discussed behavioral and personality correlates of peer status among adolescents. Due to space limitations, this section cannot aim to provide a similarly comprehensive review of the effects of local and social contexts. Therefore, only some key findings related to peer norms and group composition will be highlighted to complement the picture provided by the discussion of the individual correlates above.

Among adolescents, several studies have demonstrated that peer/classroom norms have a significant impact on behavior (e.g. Dijkstra et al. 2008; Dijkstra–Gest 2015; Laninga-Wijnen et al. 2018). Dijkstra and Gest outlines a distinction between descriptive norms (the extent to which a given behavior is prevalent in the classroom) and salient norms (or 'norm salience' - the extent to which a behavior is associated with popularity) (Dijkstra-Gest 2015). They found among Dutch adolescents that behavior associated with popularity in a given classroom (academic achievement, prosocial behavior, bullying) had a larger effect on the relationship between that behavior and acceptance than the classroom prevalence of that behavior (Dijkstra et al. 2008; Dijkstra-Gest 2015). Similarly, Rambaran and colleagues demonstrated the importance of norm salience in the spread of risk attitudes (e.g. smoking, skipping school, damaging things) among Dutch adolescents (Rambaran et al. 2013). However, it is not only the prevalence and salience of a given norm that matters, but also the perception of this norm (e.g. Allen et al. 2005; Galván et al. 2011; Romera et al. 2019). An earlier review of peer influence processes suggested that adolescents' behavior is more strongly associated with the perception of peer norms than peers' actual (self-reported) behavior (Brechwald-Prinstein 2011).

Another important factor is the socio-demographic composition of a class in particular, its racial/ethnic composition; students who are in the numerical majority may receive more popularity/acceptance nominations as the result of same ethnicity bias. For instance, Bellmore and colleagues found that European, Asian, and Latin American students demonstrated positive same ethnicity bias (more acceptance and fewer rejections of same-ethnicity peers), while African American students demonstrated global same-ethnicity bias (nominating more same-ethnicity peers for both acceptance and rejection) (Bellmore et al. 2007). Since racial/ethnic segregation is prevalent even in desegregated classes (e.g. Moody 2001), pluralistic status systems are often created along racial/ethnic lines (Brown 2011). For instance, Rock and colleagues found that in the case of African American students, high ethnic identity centrality was associated with high levels of peer acceptance and popularity when rated by other African American students, while their acceptance and popularity were unrelated to ethnic identity centrality when rated by European American peers (Rock et al. 2011). Similarly, some studies found in Hungary that Roma students were more likely to dislike (Boda-Néray 2015), bully (Kisfalusi et al. 2018) or consider less clever (Kisfalusi et al. 2019) those peers whom they perceived as Roma but who self-identified as non-Roma.

CONCLUSION

The paper has provided a review of the theoretical perspectives and most frequent correlates of peer status among adolescents. Even though this topic has been studied by a variety of disciplines (including sociology, psychology, and biology), it seems to be somewhat undertheorized, as there are only a few theories that directly address peer status (Mayeux-Kleiser 2019). Nevertheless, theoretical perspectives that address other aspects of peer experience (e.g. friendships) or provide a more general model of group processes can also be drawn on. Sociological perspectives typically conceptualize peer status with popularity and emphasize that its precise meaning and dynamics are defined by the peer group itself. Research on specific socio-demographic groups and cross-cultural comparisons, as well as more recent studies on the effects of peer norms greatly support these views. Additionally, sociological and social psychological theories of group formation predict that either members with resources/services valuable to the group (e.g. Blau 1960) or members who have attributes associated with higher status in wider society (e.g. Berger et al. 1972; Ridgeway 1991) obtain higher peer status. Alternatively, theories of intergroup conflict (e.g. Tajfel–Turner 1979) predict in-group favoritism in the case of different ethnic/racial groups. The empirical research reviewed in this paper mostly provides evidence for the latter, although the application of social network techniques (as contrasted with the now prevalent more traditional statistical methods) and in-depth ethnographic studies in multiethnic settings could add valuable insight and clarification about this issue (Grow et al. (2016) and Kisfalusi et al. (2019) have already investigated the gendered and ethnic aspects of ability attributions with the application of social network techniques).

While sociological and social psychological approaches emphasize the contextand group-specific aspects of peer status, developmental and evolutionary theories make more universal predictions. Findings about the association between peer status and prosociality sit well with general developmental theories, while the association between risk behavior and popularity is in line with the predictions of maturity gap theory (Moffitt 1993). Similarly, findings about the association between (strategic) aggression and popularity, and in particular between popularity and the mixture of prosocial and aggressive behavior, are in line with the predictions of evolutionary theories. Nevertheless, we have seen that even in the case of these more universal associations, the importance of sociodemographic and cross-cultural differences cannot be neglected.

Consequently, more research from 'non-Western' contexts, and in particular research involving multiple samples and cross-cultural comparison are highly needed to refine the picture. Similarly, more research that takes into consideration peer norms as well as different classroom popularity hierarchies (e.g. Laninga-Wijnen et al. 2019) would greatly contribute to our understanding of peer dynamics. Finally, research involving novel methodological approaches (e.g. social network analysis), as well as the application of mixed research methods (e.g. Bocskor 2021) would also provide valuable contributions to our understanding of peer status.

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