The developmental pattern of resistance to peer influence in adolescence: Will the teenager ever be able to resist?

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Abstract

Common folklore seems to suggest that adolescents are particularly susceptible to peer influence. However, from the literature the exact age differences in susceptibility to peer influence remain unclear. The current study’s main focus was to chart the development of general susceptibility to peer pressure in a community sample of 10–18 year olds (N = 464) with the recently developed Resistance to Peer Influence Scale (RPI). The one-factor structure of the RPI was cross-validated in the present sample, and the RPI was equally reliable at all ages. As expected, general resistance to peer influence increased during adolescence. In addition, gender differences were most pronounced during mid-adolescence, when girls were more resistant to peer influence than boys. These findings are explained in terms of psychosocial maturation during adolescence.

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When children move into adolescence, they become more independent from their parents and peer relationships gain in importance. Dyadic close friendships are formed, cliques are joined and romantic interests develop. However, peers do not replace parents but rather broaden children’s social arena (e.g., Lashbrook, 2000). Adolescents’ relations with peers and friends have been of interest to many researchers in psychology (see Adams & Berzonsky, 2003). Friends are chosen on the basis of existing similarities in behavior and attitudes, but also seem to foster similarity once friendships have been established. Bi-directional influences contribute to the resemblance of friends (Berndt, 1996a). These influences among friends can be both positive and negative. Thus, peer influence appears to be an integral part of adolescent relationships.

Common folklore suggests that the majority of adolescents are particularly susceptible to the influence exerted by peers. However, inconsistent findings in the literature, as discussed below, make it difficult to draw firm conclusions about the age pattern of susceptibility to peer influence. These inconsistencies may in part be due to differences in the way resistance to peer influence has been conceptualized and assessed. In addition, little is known about how this pattern differs between males and females. The present study investigates age and gender differences in self-reported resistance to general peer influence using a recently developed scale by Steinberg and Monahan (2007).

Age and gender differences in resistance to peer influence

Peer influence during adolescence, both positive and negative, has been studied widely (e.g., Arnett, 2007; Berndt, 1996b; Fergusson, Vitaro, Wanner, & Brendgen, 2007; Gifford-Smith, Dodge, Dishion, & McCord, 2005). There are some studies that have looked at peer influence in the context of neutral (Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986) or pro-social behavior (e.g., Ellis & Zarbatany, 2007; Barry & Wentzel, 2006; Spoth, Redmond, Hockaday, & Yoo, 1996; Wentzel, Filisetti, & Looney, 2007), but in most cases the focus of peer influence research has been on its negative effects and deviant behavior resulting from it. The negative connotation of peer influence becomes apparent in the outcome variables used, i.e. smoking (Urberg, Shyu, & Liang, 1990), drug abuse (Farrell & White, 1998), alcohol use (Dielman, Butchart, & Shope, 1993), and high-risk driving (Shope, Raghunathan, & Patil, 2003). It is also apparent in the content of instruments designed to measure adolescents’ level of susceptibility to peer influence. Adolescents are specifically asked whether, under the influence of peers, they would do things that are prohibited. For example, in many studies adolescents are asked to indicate whether they had broken rules because others had urged them to (e.g., Santor, Messervey, & Kusumakar, 2000).

For deviant, anti-social peer influence a curvilinear relationship between age and susceptibility to peer influence is reported. This susceptibility is found to be strongest during mid-adolescence (Berndt, 1979; Brown, Clasen, & Eicher, 1986; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986). A similar curvilinear age pattern is found for engagement in delinquent behavior (Farrington, 1986; Moffit, 1993). A particular subset of delinquent behavior generally starts to rise from early adolescence to late adolescence, after which it declines (Moffit, 1993).

The use of deviant situations in peer influence instruments and the presence of adolescence-limited delinquency make it difficult to tease apart susceptibility to peer influence in general from susceptibility to anti-social peer influence and the willingness to engage in anti-social activities (Allen, Porter, & McFarland, 2006; Steinberg & Monahan, 2007). Additionally, deviant situations
might be inappropriate for children and young adolescents. Alcohol, drug abuse, or sexual attitudes are issues that are less relevant to primary school children and younger adolescents. Primary school children and young adolescents might be equally susceptible to peer influence as mid-adolescents, but it is less likely that they are pressured to use illicit drugs or drink-and-drive. It is thus not a foregone conclusion that mid-adolescents are more susceptible to peer influence than younger, or older, adolescents.

A few studies have investigated peer influence and its association with pro-social (e.g., Berndt, 1979; Ellis & Zarbatany, 2007; Barry & Wentzel, 2006; Robertson, Stein, & Baird-Thomas, 2006; Spoth et al., 1996; Wentzel et al., 2007) or neutral behavior (Allen et al., 2006; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986; Walker & Andrade, 1996). The pro-social studies do not focus on age differences; the studies either have a small age range or do not report the age effects. The exception is the study by Berndt (1979), where no age related differences in conformity to pro-social influences was found in a sample of 9–18 year olds. Overall, this field of research provides us with limited information on age related differences in peer influence.

Some studies have investigated susceptibility to neutral influences (e.g., Allen et al., 2006; Berndt, 1979; Steinberg & Monahan, 2007; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986; Walker & Andrade, 1996). These include studies that have reported age effects, but these age effects are not consistent. A curvilinear pattern was observed by Berndt (1979) and Steinberg and Silverberg (1986). They used vignettes depicting neutral situations of peer influence in addition to anti-social situations. Although the curvilinear relationship was weaker for neutral situations compared to anti-social situations, the pattern was significant. From these studies it would seem that neutral peer influence mimics the development reported for anti-social peer influence.

However, in more recent studies the curvilinear pattern of susceptibility to peer influence was not found and a different age pattern emerged, i.e. a linear relationship. Walker and Andrade (1996) conducted an experimental study of peer influence in a neutral situation among participants of a wide age range. Walker and Andrade used an adapted version of the Asch experiment, which can be considered a measure of resistance to peer pressure in a neutral situation (i.e. judging which lines are of the same length). In this cross-sectional study children aged 3–17 years participated. Although a simplified procedure was used for the younger children, the procedures were comparable. With age, children became less likely to follow peers in their decision-making. While 85% of the 3–5 year olds conformed, only 38% of the 9–11 year olds conformed, and none of the 15–17 year olds did. The finding that none of the older adolescents conformed is notable, however similar results have been found in other studies. Conformity in adults, as observed in the original Asch experiments, was not replicated in later studies (e.g., Lalancette & Standing, 1990). In these studies, like Walker and Andrade, adult participants adhered to their own view.

This linear relationship between age and resistance to peer influence is also found by Steinberg and Monahan (2007) who used a new questionnaire, i.e. the Resistance to Peer Influence Scale (RPI). The RPI presents adolescents with 10 neutral peer influence situations. Each item presents the participant with two options which are both acceptable choices. One group reflects highly resistant people, while the other group represents people who are easily influenced by their peers. The participant must indicate which group they belong to and to what degree they belong to this group. This study showed that reported resistance to peer influence increased linearly during adolescence, in particular between the ages of 14 and 18.
Overall, the curvilinear pattern with a peak in susceptibility to peer influence during mid-adolescence might hold up for anti-social activities, for neutral behavior the literature is less clear cut. On the basis of studies of general peer influence (i.e. independent of anti-social activities) described above, a linear age pattern seems to be emerging. Hence, it is expected that increasing age will be associated with increasing levels of reported resistance to peer influence.

When gender is taken into account as a moderator of susceptibility to peer influence further inconsistencies arise (Urberg, Degirmencioglu, & Pilgrim, 1997). Some studies report that girls have a greater tendency to conform than boys. This gender difference is reported in research aimed at how social influences predict smoking behavior in adolescence. One study reported that girls tend to be more susceptible to take up smoking after exposure to social pressures from both parents and peers (Chassin, Presson, Sherman, Montello, & McGrew, 1986). Other studies report the opposite effect, for instance Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) found boys to be more susceptible to both anti-social and neutral pressure. More recently, Steinberg and Monahan (2007) presented similar results for general resistance to peer influence, i.e. boys reported to be more susceptible to neutral peer influence than girls, both during adolescence and young adulthood. Finally, in some studies a gender difference does not emerge at all, e.g., in the Asch conformity paradigm boys’ and girls’ performances were often equal (Adams, Ryan, Hoffman, Dobson, & Nielsen, 1984; Costanzo & Shaw, 1966).

Although these studies have investigated the main effects of gender, no study has looked at how gender interacts with age. Paying closer attention to possible interactions between age and gender might provide more insight into gender differences overall.

Study aims

The purpose of the current study is two-fold. First, the psychometric properties of the Resistance to Peer Influence scale (Steinberg & Monahan, 2007) are cross-validated in a normative sample of Dutch children 10–18 years of age. The age range is extended to include children as young as 10 years in order to report on development from late childhood onwards. Secondly, age and gender differences in the developmental trajectory of resistance to peer influence are investigated. Based on the findings by Walker and Andrade (1996) and Steinberg and Monahan (2007) it is expected that self-reported resistance to general peer influence will increase during adolescence. Finally, gender effects will be investigated.

Method

Participants

The sample consisted of 464 children and adolescents between the age of 10 and 18 (\(M = 13.41, \ SD = 2.25\)). The gender distribution in the sample was fairly balanced: 243 girls (52%) and 221 boys (48%). Letters were sent to the parents informing them about the study while giving them the opportunity to peruse the questionnaires at their child’s school. The parents were able to object to their child’s participation by mail, e-mail, and telephone. Twelve parents did not give their permission. Another fourteen children were absent at the time of testing due to illness.
Seven schools participated in this study, i.e. 3 primary schools, 2 secondary schools, and 2 higher education schools. The schools were selected on the basis of their heterogeneous student population, regarding social economic status, ethnicity and educational level. These were regular comprehensive schools with various academic levels. The schools were located in Leiden, The Netherlands and the surrounding region, representing both small and large towns. Most participants (85.1%) came from a two parent household where both the biological mother and father were present.

To analyze age differences and the age × gender interaction, three age groups were created, i.e. Group 1 (10–12 years, \( N = 168 \)), Group 2 (13–15 years, \( N = 187 \)), and Group 3 (16–18 years, \( N = 96 \)).

Measure

A new scale that assesses general resistance to peer influence and can be used in large scale assessments is the Resistance to Peer Influence Scale (RPI; Steinberg & Monahan, 2007; see Appendix). Steinberg and Monahan developed this scale for use with young delinquents and the use of neutral situations was thought to diminish the influences of social desirability. Using neutral situations instead of deviant situations it might be easier for adolescents to admit to being influenced by peers. For the same reason, the items are presented in a format proposed by Harter (1985) and phrased in such a way that the ‘right’ and ‘wrong’ answers are less recognizable for the participants. In addition, this instrument is suited for use with a wide age range, from late childhood through young adulthood.

The RPI presents adolescents with neutral peer influence situations. The scale consists of 10 items, three of which are reverse-scored. Each item presents the participant with two options which are both acceptable choices, i.e. ‘some people…but other people…’. The participant has to indicate to which group they belong and to what degree they belong to this group. The items are presented in the Appendix. In an American community sample of 11–24 years olds the reliability was sufficient, \( \alpha = 0.74 \). A confirmatory factor analysis corroborated the single-factor structure of this scale (Steinberg & Monahan, 2007).

For the current study, the Resistance to Peer Influence scale was translated to Dutch and checked by a professional English-to-Dutch translator. Although some items were thought to be rather difficult for the youngest participants, all items were included for further investigation.

Procedure

The RPI was administered as part of a larger study in combination with several other questionnaires to the complete class. The children were explained that the study’s focus was on peer relations and personality. In addition to completing the questionnaires, participants were asked to provide demographic information, i.e. age, gender, and family setting. The response format of the RPI was explained in front of the class before the assessment commenced and the children were presented with a sample question which they practiced. A teacher and at least one master student were present at the time of testing to assist the participants if necessary.
Results

Psychometric properties: factor structure and internal consistency of the RPI

The psychometric properties of the RPI were investigated using the complete sample. To study the factor structure, a Principal Components Analysis (PCA) was performed on the ten items. The scree plot confirmed the presence of one single factor, with a clear break between the eigenvalues of the first and the second eigenvalue (see Fig. 1). The first factor accounted for 30.97% of the variance. The factor loadings ranged from 0.27 to 0.76 (see Table 1). Factor loadings above 0.40 are generally considered to be sufficient and applicable for interpretation (Stevens, 2002). Eight items had a factor loading above 0.40, two items had a factor loading below 0.40, i.e. item 2 and 6.

To study the internal consistency of the scale, Cronbach’s alpha and item—total correlations were investigated. Cronbach’s alpha for the full scale was 0.73, and compared well with the original reliability ($\alpha = 0.74$, Steinberg & Monahan, 2007). The reliability of the RPI was comparable for all age groups; $\alpha = 0.71$ for Group 1, $\alpha = 0.75$ for Group 2, and $\alpha = 0.70$ for Group 3.

The item—total correlations ranged from 0.19 to 0.59 (see Table 1). For the item—total correlations, a cut-off score of 0.30 is recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994); items that fall below this cut-off score are best removed from a scale. Two items fell below this cut-off point, i.e. item 2 and 6. When both items were removed from the scale Cronbach’s alpha was raised to 0.75.

For the subsequent analyses of age and gender differences, it was decided to retain all 10 items of the original scale for two reasons: 1) the overall reliability only showed a marginal improvement after the removal of the two items, and 2) to make as close a comparison as possible of our results to the results found by Steinberg and Monahan (2007). The age and gender differences, as reported below, were identical with the two weaker items (i.e. item 2 and 6) excluded from the scale.
A 3 (Age) × 2 (Gender) ANOVA was used to investigate age and gender differences in resistance to peer influence (see Fig. 2). A main effect was found for age ($F(2, 445) = 10.63, p < 0.01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.046$). With increasing age, adolescents reported that they felt more resistant to peer pressure. Post-hoc analyses revealed that age group 1 differed significantly from age group 2 ($p = 0.033$) and age group 3 ($p = 0.000$). The difference between age group 2 and 3 was significant as well ($p = 0.018$). A main effect was also observed for gender ($F(1, 445) = 15.10, p < 0.01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.033$): girls reported more resistance to peer influence than boys. A trend was found for the interaction between age and gender ($F(2, 445) = 2.61, p = 0.07$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.012$). Independent sample $t$-tests were performed to test the gender difference in each age group. The difference was

### Table 1
Factor loadings and item total correlations for all the items.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor loading</th>
<th>Corrected item—total correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 2. Age and gender differences in resistance to peer influence.
significant during mid-adolescence ($t(185) = -5.08, p < 0.01$). A trend effect was found for the youngest group ($t(166) = -1.66, p = 0.098$), but the late adolescent boys and girls did not differ in reported resistance to peer influence ($t(94) = -0.98, ns$).

**Discussion**

In much of the literature on peer influence during adolescence, no clear distinction is made between susceptibility to general or deviant peer influence. Consequently, the assessment of susceptibility to peer influence was often confounded with a willingness to engage in anti-social activities. The Resistance to Peer Influence scale developed by Steinberg and Monahan (2007) seems to provide a solution for this predicament. The scale provides adolescents with neutral situations of peer influence which makes it possible to use the scale to measure a general form of susceptibility to peer influence and to chart its developmental course.

The single-factor structure of the Resistance to Peer Influence Scale, originally developed in an American sample, was cross-validated in the present sample of Dutch children and adolescents aged 10–18 years. Although two of the original items (i.e. item 2 and 6) loaded insufficiently on the main factor and correlated weakly with the total scale, the internal consistency of the full scale was acceptable for all age groups and suggests that the scale can be used successfully with children from age ten. An explanation for the two weaker factor loadings might be that the items (item 2 and 6, see Appendix) were too complex for the younger adolescents. During the classroom assessments, these items also brought about most of the questions and some participants were unclear about their meaning. This could be related to the Dutch language specifically, rather than the content of the items per se. In the studies with the English version this issue did not emerge. Future studies need to determine whether reworded versions of these two items might contribute to the internal consistency of the RPI.

Age and gender differences in self-reported general resistance to peer influence as observed in the present study were as expected. Overall, older adolescents are found to report more resistance to peer influence. Our results show that the development of resistance to peer influence from age 10 to 18 is not curvilinear — with a temporary lapse in resistance during mid-adolescence — as is often reported for resistance to anti-social peer influence. The current findings demonstrate a steady increase in resistance to general peer influence with age. Steinberg and Monahan (2007) found similar age differences using this instrument in a community sample. The range of scores presented in their study are comparable to the ones reported in the current study. However, it seems from the inspection of the data presented by Steinberg and Monahan that in the Dutch sample an increase in reported resistance occurs earlier. The leap in reported resistance from the first (10–12 year olds) to second (13–15 year olds) age group is much less pronounced in the US sample. In the US sample an increase in reported resistance to peer influence occurs from the age of 14 with few changes in the years before. The difference in the timing of the age pattern is something to take note of and needs further research. Overall, these current age patterns in the Dutch and US sample replicate the findings of Walker and Andrade (1996) who used another neutral measure of resistance to peer influence — the Asch experiment — in a broad age range.

From the current findings, Steinberg and Monahan (2007), and the study by Walker and Andrade (1996) evidence seems to emerge that over the course of development adolescents report to be less susceptible to peer influence in general. This suggests that over time adolescents gain
more autonomy from their peers and are able to adhere to their own stance. This new ability can be understood as the result of increasing psychosocial maturity. Psychosocial maturity studies show that teenagers gain more impulse control, responsibility, and self-awareness over the course of adolescence (e.g., Greenberger & Sorensen, 1974; Loevinger, 1993; Weinberger, 1997). These characteristics are likely to lessen the tendency to follow others without thinking. It is possible that increasing maturity might be linked to a decreasing susceptibility to peer influence. Steinberg and Monahan (2007) also speculate that the linear increase in resistance they observed might be due to psychosocial maturity: “[t]he growth of resistance to peer influence is a developmental phenomenon bounded by individuation from parents at its onset and by the development of a sense of identity at its conclusion” (p. 24). Thus, in contrast to the curvilinear relationship for deviant peer influence, a consistent decrease might be expected for general peer influence. That is, susceptibility to peer influence as a general disposition is expected to decrease during adolescence.

Research on psychosocial development might also shed some light on the moderate age effects found in this study. Although the effects of age were significant, they were modest. In this study age was used to chart the developmental differences, however age should only be considered as a proxy of development. During adolescence, age and maturity are not as tightly linked as during childhood; the timing and pace of development varies considerably during adolescence (e.g., Westenberg & Gjerde, 1999). It might be that maturity rather than age could be the main explanatory variable during adolescence. Individual differences in the timing and speed of maturity are manifold and age differences might actually be less pronounced during this stage of development. This would mean that psychosocial development might also explain more in susceptibility to peer influence than age during adolescence. Hence, future studies of the development of susceptibility to peer influence should include measures of social maturity to shed more light on this issue.

Concerning gender differences in resistance to peer influence, girls reported more resistance in the current study, especially during the mid-adolescent period. For both boys and girls an increase in general resistance to peer influence could be observed with age. The increase in resistance did occur earlier for girls than for boys. Still for none of them a temporary increase in reported sensitivity to peer influence was present, which would have resulted in a curvilinear relationship.

The current finding that mid-adolescent girls report more resistance to peer influence than their male peers and report more resistance earlier corresponds well with psychosocial maturity research. Studies of psychosocial development during adolescence have found that girls mature faster than boys during mid-adolescence, and that the boys catch up with the girls during late adolescence (Cohn, 1991). This may explain the age-by-gender interaction effect observed in the present study: gender differences are present in mid-adolescence and are much smaller during early and late adolescence. Similar age-by-gender interaction effects have been observed in other aspects which are related to psychosocial maturity, such as pro-social development (Eisenberg, Miller, Shell, McNalley, & Shea, 1991). Again, measures of maturity should be included to test this possibility.

The fact that boys reported less resistance to peer influence during mid-adolescence than girls concurs with developmental trajectories of anti-social behaviors for boys. Adolescent-limited delinquency is found for both boys and girls, but overall girls show this behavior to a lesser degree (Moffit & Caspi, 2001). It might be that boys engage more in anti-social behavior during mid-adolescence, because they are more likely to give in to peer influence. At the same time boys also
reported to be more sensitive to peer influence than girls during late childhood in the current study. However, this difference in sensitivity does not result in gender differences in anti-social behavior. This might be due to the fact that in most families parental monitoring is still quite strong during childhood. For boys, adolescence might prove to be a critical period for developing adolescent-limited anti-social behavior, because of the combination of sensitivity to peer influence and diminishing parental monitoring. Studies of adolescent-limited delinquent behavior could further investigate this idea by incorporating a measure of general resistance to peer influence like the RPI in their design.

Some limitations of the current study need to be mentioned as well. One limitation of the current study is that young adults have not been included. Including older participants would also make it possible to observe at what point during development the increase of resistance to peer pressure stabilizes; a recent report by Steinberg and Monahan (2007) suggests resistance to peer influence reaches adult levels around 18 and does not increase after this age. It is also necessary to include young adults to be sure that the gender gap remains absent from late adolescence onwards. A second limitation of the present study has been to not include a measure of resistance to anti-social peer influence. It would be especially interesting to investigate the degree in which these two constructs are related or distinct. Additionally, these measures can be compared on their predictive value toward engagement in either anti-social or pro-social activities. Many of the studies included in the literature review above have used indirect measures of peer influence in both the anti-social (e.g., Fergusson et al., 2007) as well as a pro-social context (e.g., Robertson et al., 2006). They looked at targeted activities by studying the adolescent’s social network. It remains unclear how self-reported susceptibility and effects of certain types of friends are related. Are adolescents who report high susceptibility to peer influence more likely to copy their friends’ behavior? Finally, longitudinal data should be collected in order to draw stronger conclusions about the development of resistance to peer influence and underlying constructs, like social maturity.

The current study has shown that a self-report measure of general resistance to peer influence might provide new insights in the development of resistance to peer pressure. Going against popular belief, self-reported resistance to peer influence appears to increase during adolescence. It is important to note that the data presented reflect reports of resistance to peer influence rather than actual behavior, limiting the conclusions that can be drawn from this design. However, Walker and Andrade’s (1996) results were based on observed behavior rather than reported resistance and found the same pattern. Future studies should incorporate other measures and use different methodologies to investigate general resistance to peer influence. In addition, the developmental trajectory of resistance to general peer influence might also be compared with resistance to pro-social peer influence. It is still unclear whether pro-social peer influence will follow a similar developmental trajectory. Following the RPI, it would be interesting to develop a measure that focused explicitly on situations of pro-social and positive peer influence.

The availability of a measure of general resistance to peer influence also facilitates the study of many adolescent problem behaviors that are not necessarily delinquent behaviors. Adolescence is also known as a period of risky behavior. Teenage pregnancies, school refusal, conflicts with parents and breaking curfew are all issues that play their part during adolescence. To understand in what degree susceptibility to peer influence might contribute to these activities it is important to use an instrument that does not tap into mainly anti-social activities. Future studies might further
investigate the relationship between general resistance to peer influence and these type of behaviors.

In addition, attention should be paid to a possible interaction between age and gender. Doing this might contribute to a better understanding of gender differences in the literature, which have been inconsistent. Although more research is necessary in the area of resistance to peer influence, the current findings suggest that the instrument developed by Steinberg and Monahan (2007) is reliable from the age of 10. This makes it a suitable candidate for future studies of the development of resistance to peer influence independent of anti-social behavior.

Appendix. Resistance to peer influence scale (Steinberg & Monahan, 2007)

| 1 | Some people go along with their friends just to keep their friends happy. | but | Other people refuse to go along with their friends want to do, even though they know it will make their friends unhappy. |
| 2 | Some people think it’s more important to be an individual than to fit in with the crowd. | but | Other people think it is more important to fit in with the crowd than to stand out as an individual. |
| 3 | For some people, it’s pretty easy for their friends to get them to change their mind. | but | For other people, it’s pretty hard for their friends to get them to change their mind. |
| 4 | Some people would do something that they knew was wrong just to stay on their friends’ good side. | but | Other people would not do something they knew was wrong just to stay on their friends’ good side. |
| 5 | Some people hide their true opinion from their friends if they think their friends will make fun of them because of it. | but | Other people will say their true opinion in front of their friends, even if they know their friends will make fun of them because of it. |
| 6 | Some people will not break the law just because their friends say that they would. | but | Other people would break the law if their friends said that they would break it. |
| 7 | Some people change the way they act so much when they are with their friends that they wonder who they “really are”. | but | Other people act the same way when they are alone as they do when they are with their friends. |
| 8 | Some people take more risks when they are with their friends than they do when they are alone. | but | Other people act just as risky when they are alone as when they are with their friends. |
| 9 | Some people say things they don’t really believe because they think it will make their friends respect them more. | but | Other people would not say things they didn’t really believe just to get their friends to respect them more. |
| 10 | Some people think it’s better to be an individual even if people will be angry at you for going against the crowd. | but | Other people think it’s better to go along with the crowd than to make people angry at you. |

References


