Running Head: METAPERCEPTION OF SELF-CONCEPT

Running head (a shortened version of the title) is defined on the title page and used in the heading of your paper.

Title of the paper

Metaperception of Self-Concept by
Same-Sex Adolescent Friends and Nonfriends

Lonna M. Murphy
Purdue University

Author’s name(s)

Institutional affiliation (your college, university, or institution)

Title, name, and affiliation are centered. Heading is right justified. Running Head is left justified.
Metaperception is the process by which people understand what others think of them. Among adults metaperception is more accurate for friends than strangers, and for female friends than male friends. To see if this is also true among adolescents, eighth graders (n = 74) and eleventh graders (n = 86) were paired with same-sex, same-grade friends or nonfriends. They reported their own self-concept, their partners’ self-concept, and what they thought their partner thought of their self-concept. There were no differences between friends and nonfriends. Girls were more accurate than boys regarding behavioral conduct. Eighth-grade girls were more accurate than eighth-grade boys regarding scholastic performance. Possible differences between adolescent and adult metaperception and suggestions for future research are discussed.

The author informs the reader that the implications of the findings will be discussed in the paper. Usually, it is best to give the reader an idea of what the implications are in the abstract. However, if the findings are complicated, as they are in this case, the implications are difficult to explain in a few words.
Peers become a major influence in a person’s life during adolescence (Berndt, 1999; Brown, 1990; Douvan & Adelson, 1966). Friends, especially, become a major influence during this era of the life course (Berndt & Keefe, 1995; Urberg, Degirmencioğlu, & Pilgrim, 1997). Researchers are beginning to look at the effects of friendships on children’s and adolescents’ development (Hartup, 1996), but more work still needs to be done examining how the characteristics of an adolescent’s friends and the characteristics of an adolescent’s friendships affect the individual adolescent’s development. Currently, we know very little about how and individual benefits or suffers developmentally as a consequence of his or her friendships (Hartup, 1996). We especially know very little about the role that friends might play in the development of adolescents’ self-concepts. We know that self-concepts become more complex and multifaceted with age (Harter, 1998), but little is known about possible influences on this development. 

A growing area of research in social psychology examines how well people understand what others think of them, that is, interpersonal perception (Funder, 1995; Kenny, 1994; Laing, Phillipson, & Lee, 1966; Sullins, 1992). In this study the methodology of interpersonal perception was used to examine the role that friends might play in the development of self-concept. The first section of this introduction addresses what is known about the role of significant others in the development of the self-concept. The next section discusses theories of friends’ influence on an individual’s self-concept development. The third section addresses the role of friends in interpersonal perception. A fourth section, which concludes the introduction, addresses how these three distinct areas of research can be integrated to shed light on the role of friends in the development of self-concept.
The self-concept is multidimensional (Bracken, 1996; Harter, 1998; Marsh & Hattie; 1996); that is, people develop distinct self-concepts in several domains. Decades ago, researchers assumed that the self-concept consisted of one global construct (e.g., Cooper-smith, 1967). More current researchers, using more sophisticated methods, have found that the self-concept consists of many domains, and that the number of domains increases with age (Bracken, 1996; Harter, 1985; Marsh & Hattie, 1996). Typically, children and adolescents are given a series of questions about the self that consists of items that represent many possible domains (i.e., physical appearance, behavioral conduct, etc.). A factor analysis is then performed on these items. Factor analyses always show more than once factor, which has led researchers to conclude that there are many domains in the self-concept.

A smaller body of work has examined the role of friends in the formation of the “looking glass” self. For example, Oosterwegel and Oppenheimer (1993) asked children and adolescents to list nine self-descriptions. Then the children and adolescents were asked how they thought a same-sex friend, and opposite sex friend, and both their parents would rate them on the same self-descriptions. [...] The researchers were interested in determining whether the children’s adolescents’ self-concepts matched their parents’ and friends’ concepts of them. They found that the difference between the children’s perceptions of both the same- and opposite-sex friends’ concept of the children and the children’s self-concepts was larger than the the difference between the children’s view of the parents’ concept of the children and the children’s self concept.

The author describes the methodology of this study to point out how it is flawed.
Unfortunately the researchers did not make the comparison between the friends’ actual concept of the student and the parents’ actual concept of the student to determine which of these more accurately matched the student’s self-concept. Because the students did distinguish between their self-concepts, their perceptions of their friends’ concepts of them, and their perceptions of their parents’ concepts of them, it is clear that the students were aware of others’ opinions about themselves. Therefore, they should be able to transform these perceptions into the “looking glass” self.

Friends’ Influence on the Self-Concept

Little theory has directed research in the area of adolescent friendships (Berndt, 1992; Furman, 1993). Furman humorously suggested that many researchers make a minor reference to Harry Stack Sullivan’s (1953) theory of interpersonal psychiatry and then go about their business without referring to the theory again. Most research within the Neo-Sullivanian perspective has focused on the hypothesis that children and adolescents with high-quality friendships should increase in their self-esteem (Buhrmester & Furman, 1986; Keefe & Berndt, 1996). There has been no evidence supportive of this hypothesis. In some studies children with higher-quality friendships show higher self-esteem (Dubow, & Ullman, 1989; Townsend, McCracken, & Wilton, 1988), but children do not show an increase in self-esteem over time when they have higher-quality friendships (Keefe & Berndt, 1996).

In this paper, I propose a different process, which is that friends validate adolescents’ self-concepts instead of their self-esteem. Friends are in this view, more concerned about helping their friends arrive at an accurate self-concept than about boosting their friends’ evaluation of themselves. For example, it is more important for adolescents to help their friends understand who they are than for them to make their friends feel about about who they are.

This paragraph states the major hypothesis for the paper.
The Role of Friends in Interpersonal Perception

Metaperception as defined for this paper is the process of understanding what someone else thinks about you (Kenny, 1994). Originally, work in metaperception examined how well people understood what other people in general thought about them (Colvin, Vogt & Ickes, 1997; Kenny, 1994). More current research in metaperception is trying to understand how well people understand what particular others in their lives think about them.

R. D. Laing and his associate (Laing, Phillipson & Lee, 1966) were some of the first researchers to examine metaperception within relationships. They proposed that healthy marital relationships consist not necessarily of two people to each other or who understand each other, but of two people who understand what each thinks of the other. Laing and his colleagues (1966) suggested that individuals who understand what their spouse thinks about them can use this information to change their behavior and/or to make their spouse happier.

To test this hypothesis, Funder and his colleagues (Funder & Colvin, 1988; Funder, Kolar & Blackman, 1995) had college students either matched with a friend whom they brought to the laboratory or match with a student from a different class whom they did not know. The students rated their partner on a trait checklist and then rated how they thought their partner would rate them on the same trait checklist (metaperception). When the students’ metaperception ratings were compared with how their partner rated them, Funder and his colleagues found that college-aged friends were more accurate in metaperception of personality traits than were nonfriends (Funder & Colvin, 1988; Funder, et al., 1995).

Afterwards, just use the last name of the first author followed by “et al.”
Another issue that has been ignored empirically is the development of the skill metaperception. Kenny (1994) has suggested that metaperception ability should increase as general social cognitive abilities increase. Selman (1980) proposed that social cognition, especially perspective taking, increases with age throughout childhood adolescence. Unfortunately, the developmental process of metaperception has not been addressed. To date, all studies of metaperception have involved only adults. Typically, these participants have been students who were enrolled in psychology classes at a university. No work to date has involved children or adolescents to test the proposed developmental increase in metaperception skill. This study will examine the proposed developmental increase in metaperception accuracy by examining the metaperception skills of early and late adolescents.

The Role of Friendship and Metaperception in the Development of the Self-Concept

If adolescents are using their friends to learn about themselves, then they should be aware of what their friends think of them. In outer words, they should be high in metaperception because they observe more and more varied behavioral information suggests the importance of the features of friendship. The neo-Sullivanian perspective (Buhrmeser & Furman, 1986) stresses that better friends will be more supportive and interact more frequently. This should also lead to the observation of more and more varied behavioral information. Close friends should also be more motivated to pay attention to this information. Therefore, the first hypothesis of this study is that friends should be more accurate in metaperception of self-concept than mere acquaintances.

States the first hypothesis and its basis.
Sullins’ (1992) finding that women were better at metaperception than men was confounded by sex role of trait and sex of respondent, but Kenny (1994) and Laing, Philipson and Lee (1966) have suggested that metaperception should be higher for more intimate relationships because of their increased intimacy, sharing, and self-disclosure. Adolescent girls typically have more intimate friendships than adolescent boys (Aboud & Mendelson, 1996; Furman & Buhrmester, 1992). Therefore, the second hypothesis is that girls will be more accurate in metaperception than boys, but only for metaperception of friends.

States the second hypothesis and its basis.

Finally, Kenny (1994) has suggested that the developmental process of metaperception might follow a trajectory similar to general social cognition. The development of metaperception should be specifically linked to the development of perspective taking. Selman (1980) suggests that this process takes place throughout adolescence. Also, the amount of self-disclosure and intimacy among friends increases with age (Buhrmester & Prager, 1995; Savin-Williams & Berndt, 1990). This suggests that adolescents are having more discussions with friends about more personal topics, and they should have greater opportunity to discuss their self-concept and to discuss their friend’s self-concept. They should also also be more committed to their friend and the relationship, and therefore want to be more helpful within this process of self-concept development.

Therefore, the final hypothesis is that older adolescents should be better at metaperception than younger adolescents due to the increase in social cognitive abilities. Because friendships become more intimate with age (Berndt, 1982; Newcomb & Bagwell, 1995), and because social cognitive abilities have been theorized to increase with age (Selman, 1980), the difference between friends and acquaintances should increase with age.

States the final hypothesis and its basis.
This is especially a concept for family and friends. Friends have been found to be more similar than nonfriends in many ways (Guralnick & Groom, 1988; Maccoby, 1990). In addition, friends have been found to perceive that they are more similar to each other than they really are (Aboud & Mendelson, 1996; Tesser, Campbell, & Smith, 1984). Therefore, because friends perceive that they are similar and because friends actually are more similar their metaperception scores might be inflated because of similarity. Analyses will be performed to see if metaperception scores are inflated by friends’ tendency to perceive that they are similar to one another. Also, to examine the possible roles of perceived and actual similarity, conservative analyses will performed to see the extend of metaperception when perceived and actual similarity are controlled.

This is one way to segue into the Method Section.
Method

Participants

Students (n=201) from three schools were recruited for the study. The final sample consisted of 160 students. Two students were dropped because of experimenter error, two students were dropped because they completed the questionnaires incorrectly, thirteen students were absent during the first questionnaire and therefore were not able to participate in the second questionnaire, and 24 students did not meet the matching criteria described below. In total, 12 eighth-grade boys, 8 eighth-grade girls, 10 eleventh-grade boys, and 11 eleventh-grade girls were not included in the final sample, which consisted of 74 eighth-graders (mean age = 14 years 1 month), from two different middle schools (40 girls and 34 boys) and 86 eleventh graders (mean age = 16 years 11 months) from one high school (40 girls and 44 boys). All three schools were from the same county in the Midwest. Of all the students that were asked to participate, 64% agreed to participate.

Describes who the participants were: the total number of subjects and their basic demographic information (e.g., age, sex, location, race/ethnicity)

Many researchers combine “Measures” and “Procedure” into a “Measures and Procedure” subsection. It is preferable to refer to your subjects by who they actually are.

Measures and Procedure

Identify partners for students. The students participated in two small-group administrations of questionnaires that consisted of the following measures. Each group contained between 20 and 30 students. During the first session, the participants rated each of their same-sex classmates on liking. They were asked “How much do you like ______?” The liking scores were on a rating scale of 1 to 5 with a score of 1 for not at all and a score of 5 for very much, as much as a best friend. Students were also asked to rate how well they knew their classmates using a 1 to 5 scale. A score of 5 indicated that they knew classmate extremely well and a score of 1 indicated that they knew their classmate not at all. Pairs of same-sex at each grade were selected based on these ratings. The members of each friendship pair rated each other 4 or 5 on both the liking and the knowing scales. Pairs of same-sex nonfriends at each grade were selected based on the same ratings. The members of each nonfriend pair rated each other 2 or 3 on both liking and knowing.

This section describes how the students were selected and assigned to groups, and how many students were in each group. No information is given that would enable others to identify the participants.
The scores from the liking scare were also used to judge the popularity of each student. The popularity score was the average of all the liking ratings that a student received from same-sex classmates. Students were included in the final sample only if they could have been assigned to either a friend or nonfriend for a partner. This criterion was established so that the nonfriend condition did not mostly contain students who had no friends. The criterion was also intended to prevent the friend condition from containing more popular students than those in the nonfriend condition.

Clarification that the “nonfriend” condition does not mean that these students don’t have any friends.

To verify that the students in the two conditions were similar in terms of popularity a 2 (gender) x 2 (grade) x 2 (condition) analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed with popularity as the dependent variable. There was no main effect of condition and no interactions with condition. Thus, students in the two conditions did not differ on popularity. There was a main effect for grade, F (1, 159) = 19.94, p < .0001, which was qualified by Grade x Gender interactions, F (1, 159) = 9.94, p <.01.

The author provides enough information so that readers will understand how this part of the experiment was conducted and how they could replicate it.

To verify that the two conditions differed on partner liking and partner knowing, two 2 (gender) x 2 (grade) x 2 (condition) ANOVAs were performed with partner liking and partner knowing as the dependent variables. Both analyses showed a main effect for condition, Fs (1, 152) = 1149.03 for liking and 1159.68 for knowing, both ps < .001. Students in the friend condition were more likely to like and know their partners (both M's = 4.73, both SDs = .45) than students in the nonfriend condition (both MS = 2.230, both SDs = .46). The main effect of condition was qualified by a Grade X Condition interaction for partner knowing, F (1, 152) = 8.16, p < .01. Post hoc analyses revealed that in the nonfriend condition eight graders (M = 2.47, SD = .51) knew their partners better than eleventh graders did (M = 2.15, SD = .36), but students in the friend condition knew their partners equally well a both grade levels (M = 4.68, SD = .47 for eighth graders and M = 4.76, SD = .43 for eleventh graders).

Analyses that refer mainly to the measures used and not the hypotheses are frequently included in the Method section following the description of the measure.
Metaperception of Self-Concept 12

View of self. During the second session students completed the Harter (1985) Self-Perception Profile for Children. This scale includes 6 items for each of six domains of self-concept. The scale for scholastic competence assesses adolescents’ self-concept in the domain of academics (e.g., “Some kids do very well at their classwork but Other kids don’t do well at their classwork”). The scale for social acceptance assesses the extent to which adolescents think they have friends and are well-liked by their peers. The scale for athletic competence assesses the degree to which adolescents think they are skilled and successful in outdoor sports and games. The scale for physical appearance assesses how adolescents feel about their looks, weight, body shape, and so on. The scale for behavioral conduct assesses students’ thoughts about appropriateness of their behavior. Finally, the scale for global self-worth assesses students’ overall thoughts about themselves.

The author gives the name of the questionnaire and describes its subscales, supplying some sample questions.

As the examples show, each item contains two statements. The students were instructed to determine which statement was most like them. They decided if the statement was very true or sort of true for them. Responses were scored such that the most negative ratings received a score of 1 and the most positive self-concept ratings received a score of 4. The Appendix contains information about gender, grade, and condition differences in students’ self-concept, and the correlations among the scores for different domains.

The author cites the individual who created the measure; Failure to cite this implies that the author of the paper created the measure, which is plagiarism.

View of partner. To determine the partner’s views of the adolescent, each adolescent again filled out the Harter (1985) Self-Perception Profile for Children, but this time each student was asked to determine which statement per item was most like their partner. They were then asked to determine if the statement they chose was very true for their partner or sort of true for their partner.

It’s not necessary to restate all of the subscales and sample questions since a modified version of the measure previously explained is being used; Just point out what’s different.
Perceptions of partner’s view of self. To determine how adolescents thought their partners thought of them, they again completed the Harter (1985) Self-Perception of Profile for Children (SPPC), but this time they reported which statement they thought their partner would choose to describe them. They then decided if their partner would think that the statement was very true for them or sort of true for them. Again, responses were scored such that the most negative ratings received a rating of 1, and the most positive ratings received a score of 4.

The three versions of the SPPC were given in the order described above so that the participants answered self-concept items for themselves before they thought about their partners and their partners’ views of them. Any other order of the self-concept measures might have made the purpose of the study transparent and possibly affected the answers of the participants.

Metaperception. To assess the accuracy of students’ metaperceptions, the partner’s rating of the participant on each item on the “View of Partner” version of the SPPC was subtracted from the participant’s rating on the corresponding item on the “Perception of Partner’s View of Self” version of the SPPC. Each difference was then squared (Nunnally, 1978).

Perceived and actual similarity. In order to assess the possible inflation of metaperception scores by high perceived and actual similarity, perceived similarity scores were calculated by subtracting the student’s self-rapport rating from their rating of their partner for each item that was included in the final measures of metaperception. Each of these differences was then squared and the squared differences were summed across the three dimensions of self-concept that were comparable to the three dimensions of metaperception (scholastic, behavioral, and other). Finally, the square root of each sum was taken to derive a final perceived –similarity score.

These sections essentially include analyses that need to be conducted before the hypotheses can be tested.
Results

Metaperception

To test the major hypotheses of 2 (condition) x 2 (gender) x 2 (grade) MANOVA was performed with the dimensions of metaperception as the multivariate dependant variables. Contrary to the hypotheses, there were no main effects of grade or condition (both Fs < 1), and so significant interactions with conditions. There was a significant multivariate F for the main effect of gender, F (3, 150) = 2.97, p < .05, and for the interaction between gender and grade, F (3, 150) = 2.81, p < .05.

Univariate tests revealed a significant (p < .05) gender differences in metaperception for the dimensions of behavioral conduct which was not qualified by an interaction with grade. Girls (m = .80, SD = .45) were more accurate in the behavioral dimension than boys were (M = .99, SD = .45). Univariate tests also revealed a significant main effect of gender for metaperception of the scholastic dimension which was qualified by a significant Gender x Grade interaction. Means and standard deviations are reported, not individual scores.

Actual Similarity of Self-Concept

A comparable MANOVA were performed for actual similarity. There were no multivariate effects. Thus, friends were not significantly more similar than nonfriends.

The Relationship between Metaperception, Perceived Similarity, and Actual Similarity

Perceived similarity and actual similarity were significantly correlated for all three dimensions (r = .57, p < .001 for scholastic; r = .05, p < .05 for behavioral; and r = .49, p < .001 for other dimensions). Thus, students who actually were more like their partners thought that they were more like their partners. There were no significant differences when the correlations were examined by gender, grade, and condition.

The Results section can be difficult to follow since there are usually a lot of different analyses mentioned. Using headings helps the reader to follow along and understand the purposes of the analyses.
None of the variables were significant predictors of metaperception in the scholastic dimension. For metaperception of behavioral conduct, actual similarly predicted metaperception, and for the other dimensions perceived similarity predicted metaperception, but these effects were qualified by the interaction between the two (see Table 3). To clarify these interactions, regression coefficients for perceived similarity were calculated for students with values of actual similarity at the same mean and one standard deviation above and below the mean (Aiken & West, 1991). As both Figure 1 and Figure 2 suggest, the coefficient for perceived similarity was significant only for students who were high in actual similarity (i.e., with difference scores 1 SD below the mean), beta = .50, p < .01 for the behavioral dimension and beta = .36, p < .01 for the other dimensions. The positive coefficients imply that accuracy of metaperception was greater for students who were high in actual similarity when they were also higher in perceived similarity.

**Figures are used here to convey a pattern of results that would be difficult to see in a table.**
Discussion

Previous theories and research suggest that the self is socially constructed (Harter, 1998), but little work has examined how different types of people might affect this construction. The purpose of this study was to examine the role that friends might play in self-concept development. To test the hypothesis that friends are more aware than nonfriends of what the other thinks of them, friends were compared to nonfriends on metaperception of self-concept. These results will be discussed first. Metaperception has also been proposed to be a social-cognitive skill which should develop with age (Kenny, 1994) and vary by gender (Sullins, 1992). The evidence or lack thereof of age and gender differences in metaperception will be discussed second. Third, the role that perceived and actual similarity might play in metaperception will be considered. Finally, the relationship between popularity and metaperception will be considered.

Friendship and Metaperception of Self-Concept

Contrary to hypothesis friends were not higher in metaperception of self-concept than nonfriends. This might be because the measure chosen for this study (Harter, 1985) is mainly concerned with self-concept domains related to school and peers, and both friends and other peers may have similar information about a student’s performance and behavior at school. If so, no difference in metaperception scores for the two groups would be expected, and both groups would be expected to do better than chance.

Further research should examine metaperception among domains that are not school-related. A meta-analysis of gender and age differences in self-concept (Wilgenbusch & Merell, 1999) list two major domains that have been studied by researchers using other measures of self-concept. These are family/parent-relations and emotion.
Metaperception for two of the three dimensions, scholastic and behavioral, was better for girls than for boys, regardless of condition. Previous theory and research has suggested that there would only be a gender difference in metaperception for more intimate relationships (Laing, et al., 1966; Sullins, 1992). However, this study suggests that for metaperception of the scholastic and behavioral dimensions the gender differences exists for friends and nonfriends. The author discusses how the results of the study fit in with other studies that have already been published.

Many studies have found that women are more receptive to and more expressive of emotion than men are (Hall & Halberstadt, 1981; Kring & Gordon, 1998; Saarni, 1993). These findings suggest two reasons that girls are better at metaperception than boys. First, the girls who are trying to understand another’s view are more emotionally sensitive than boys are. Second, the girls who are sending the cues to be interpreted are being more expressive than their male counterparts. Therefore, the female advantage in metaperception might be due to the greater emotional sensitivity of the student and the greater emotional expressiveness of the partner.
Conclusions

The friends and nonfriends in this study were equally accurate in their metaperception of self-concept, and both groups are generally better than chance. Therefore, both friends and nonfriends have sufficient knowledge about their classmates to have better than chance metaperception. There were, however, no age differences in metaperception. Girls were better than boys were at metaperception of the behavioral dimension. Early adolescent girls were generally better at metaperception of the scholastic dimension than early adolescent boys were, but by late adolescence this gender difference disappeared. There were no differences between the two age groups or genders for the other dimension.

Future research in this area needs to address a couple of major issues. First, are friends better than nonfriends in the metaperception of other constructs? In this study no differences between the two groups on metaperception of self-concept were significant. Secondly, more work needs to be done to better understand the developmental trajectory of the social-cognitive skill of metaperception. Future research should examine a wider range of age groups and should also compare college students to adolescents using multiple techniques. For example, metaperception in this study compared friends to acquaintances, while the typical college student study has compared friends to strangers. Also, in this study students were only asked about metaperception of one other person. Researches would learn more about the developmental trajectory, and have a fuller picture of metaperception, if they used both types of research methods with both children and adults.

Ending with a conclusion is a nice way to summarize your findings and why they are important. Also, discuss how your study adds to the existing literature and emphasize your study’s strengths to leave the reader with a strong impression of your work.

Suggestions for future research

Notice that the author did NOT quote directly from ANY of her sources in the entire paper. Your own idea and integration of previous findings is more important than using a previous research’s original words.
References


In order to examine differences in self-concept scores a 2 (condition) x 2 (gender) x 2 (grade) MANOVA was performed, with the domains of self-concept as the multivariate dependent variables. There was a significant multivariate F for the main effect of gender, F (6, 147) = 7.81, p < .001, which was qualified by a significant multivariate Gender x Grade interaction, F (6, 147) = 4.23, p < .001. Univariate tests revealed significant gender differences for physical appearance, F (7, 152) = 29.23, p < .001, and global self-worth, F (7, 152) = 5.10, p < .05, which were not qualified by any interactions. Boys rated themselves higher in physical appearance (M = 2.74, SD = .68) and global self-worth (M = 3.15, SD = .59) than girls did (Ms = 2.17 for physical appearance and 2.91 for global self-worth, SDs = .71 and .65, respectively).

Because appendixes can contain various types of information, the actual format of the appendix will vary depending on the content; there is no single format, but the content of an appendix should conform to the appropriate APA style rules.

Table A1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Athletic</th>
<th>Behavioral</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2.84 (.57)</td>
<td>2.75 (.63)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3.02 (.68)</td>
<td>3.14 (.49)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11th</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3.03 (.64)</td>
<td>2.90 (.60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2.28 (.78)</td>
<td>2.85 (.48)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table is included in the appendix because it pertains directly to the information present in the appendix. Notice that the numerical labeling is separate from the tables that pertain to the main body of the paper, and that these table labels include an “A” for appendix.
Table 1

*Number of Students of Each Gender, Grade, and Condition*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Non-Friend</th>
<th>Friend</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8th</td>
<td>11th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2

*Popularity by Gender and Grade*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>8th Grade</th>
<th>11th Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boy</td>
<td>2.72 (.64)</td>
<td>2.63 (.41)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>2.93 (.62)</td>
<td>2.34 (.25)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tables are labeled with a number and give a title. Notice how headings are used on both the horizontal and the vertical axes to clearly label the information presented.
Figure 1. The relation between perceived similarity and metaperception for students who differ in actual similarity for the behavioral dimension.