

Running Head: TEMPERAMENT, PARENTING, AND SOCIAL HELPING

Helping for the sake of helping: Can altruism be predicted from a child's temperament, self-esteem, and parents' meta-emotion?

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Abstract

Altruism is a voluntary prosocial behaviour with the intention of benefiting another person (Kakavoulis, 1998). Multiple factors may be related to altruism, such as a child's temperament, parental emotional style, and self-esteem. The present study aimed to assess the relative contributions of these factors to children's altruistic behaviour. Children, aged 11 and 12, and their parents, participated in the study. Children completed self-ratings of altruism and self-esteem while parents completed ratings of parental meta-emotion and children's temperament. It was expected that children with high self-esteem and who were high in sociability but low in shyness, and who had parents that espoused an emotion-coaching parenting style would rate higher on altruistic tendencies than children who had lower self-esteem, were lower in sociability, higher in shyness, and had parents who espoused a dismissing parental emotional style. Emotion-coaching and emotion-dismissing parenting styles were found to be related to each other. Shyness was negative correlated with sociability and positively correlated to self-esteem. No variables were significantly correlated with children's altruistic tendency. Results are discussed in terms of all children displaying a tendency to be altruistic and relevance to the school setting.

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Helping for the sake of helping: Can altruism be predicted from a child's temperament, self-esteem, and parents' meta-emotion?

Altruism is a voluntary prosocial behaviour, such as helping, with the intention of benefiting another person (Kakavoulis, 1998). Multiple factors may be related to a child's tendency to exhibit altruistic behaviour. For example, temperament influences how an individual interacts with their environment (Prior, Sanson, Smart, & Oberklaid, 2000) and certain dimensions of temperament partially predict prosocial behaviour (Stanhope, Bell, & Parker-Cohen, 1987; Guyton, 1997). Parental socialization also influences the development of a child and different parenting techniques are related to children's prosocial behaviour (Krevans & Gibbs, 1996; Stanhope et al., 1987). A child's self-esteem influences how a child behaves, interacts with others, and demonstrates prosocial behaviour (Butler & Gasson, 2005; Laible, Carlo, & Roesch, 2004). Further information regarding the relationship of altruistic tendency with other factors may aid in further fostering children's tendency to exhibit prosocial behaviours. The present study aimed to examine the factors of temperament, parents' emotional styles, and children's self-esteem that may be associated with children's altruism. Predicting altruism from these variables will help to close a gap currently viewed in the literature.

Altruism

Helping others is an important aspect of everyday human life that facilitates social relationships. Children may demonstrate their love or interest in various ways and with various actions. Altruistic behaviour includes emotions and actions (Kakavoulis, 1998) and has had various definitions over time. Altruism possesses a moral underpinning and is one subtype of prosocial behaviour considered to be voluntary with the intention of benefiting someone without further motive. Childhood altruistic acts include socially desirable behaviours, such as sharing,

helping and cooperating, that have positive effects on others (Vasta, Haith, & Miller, 1992; as cited in Kakavoulis, 1998). The prosocial behaviour of helping guides individuals toward general “cooperation and ethically responsive behaviour” as it is performed for the benefit of another without guaranteed reward (Stanhope et al., 1987, p. 347). Some perceive altruism as being either endocentric altruism (directed to improve self-image) or exocentric altruism (directed to improve another’s conditions) based on the sources of gratification (Karylowski, 1982; Krebs & Van Hesteren, 1994). The underlying motivations may be to improve one’s own positive self-concept or to improve the conditions of another person in need.

In a study examining adult students and non-students, Amato’s findings indicated that most everyday helping occurs between familiar individuals and is usually planned (Amato, 1990). Both of the factors of familiar people and planning are not usually present in laboratory situations and so laboratory helping studies may not be very generalizable to real-life helping. Since helping is most often embedded in long-term relationships, helping is more often offered in familiar settings with familiar individuals, such as friends and family members. In spontaneous situations the individual does not have time to match their preferences, values, and competencies with the demands of the situation and as such, situational variables are more consistent predictors than individual differences (Amato, 1990). However, individual characteristics are better predictors of planned helping behaviour than spontaneous helping. Kakavoulis (1998) also found that young children express altruistic behaviour most often toward familiar loved persons, although they will also express altruistic behaviour toward others.

The factors that help to determine childhood tendencies to behave altruistically are somewhat known. However, the challenge of determining the relative influence of “nature” versus “nurture” often plays into this developmental pathway. To further complicate matters, the

interplay of “nature” and “nurture” may be a substantial predictor of childhood behaviours. One factor that is considered to fall under the “nature” category, as the result of its genetic linkages, is a child’s temperament. Temperament is evidenced early in life and tends to remain relatively stable over time (Prior et al., 2000). A factor that would be considered along the “nurture” spectrum is parenting style. The style that a parent uses in interacting with their children helps to shape their children. Children’s feelings about the self are based on their individual characteristics as well as the information they gather from people in their environment.

Temperament

There have been variations of the definition of temperament for quite some time now. However, in all, temperament seems to represent a permanent and predictable personality style of a child (Prior, et al., 2000). Specifically, temperament represents an innate behavioural ‘style,’ that is observable in early childhood, and appears to have a biological basis, and strongly influences how one interacts with the surrounding world (Buss & Plomin, 1984; Prior et al., 2000). While temperament is relatively stable across the lifetime of an individual (Buss & Plomin, 1984), the expression of it may be influenced by environment interactions, just as it may influence environmental interaction (Prior et al., 2000). In this way, temperament helps to shape patterns of behaviour over time. Prior et al. (2000) conducted a longitudinal study of temperament to investigate the extent that temperament influenced an individual’s development. Their study covered the following dimensions of temperament: sociability, adaptability, mood, intensity, distractibility, persistence, rhythmicity, reactivity, and activity. Prior et al. found that temperament was related to children’s adjustment difficulties at home and at school across time, positive adjustment, and socially adaptive behaviour. Their findings can be interpreted to suggest that it is important to examine specific aspects of temperament and not utilize the global concept

of temperament in studies. Persistence, flexibility, and reactivity or emotionality are components of temperament, along with temperamental 'self-regulation,' that were shown to have long term influence. Negative, over-reactive, and non-persistent characteristics tend to put children at risk for behavioural maladjustment. Additionally, temperament was found to work in the context of family interactions. Prior et al. noted that it is important to consider individual differences in order to improve the fit between a child and their social context to facilitate positive outcomes.

The manner in which temperament influences children's helping behaviour or altruistic behaviours has had limited research attention. However, in the mid 1980's, Stanhope et al. (1987) investigated temperament and preschool children's helping behaviour. They gathered information on sociability and a more broad temperament measure called social adaptability. Children were assessed for helping behaviour in multiple situations in a laboratory setting with an unfamiliar adult and by mothers' rating of helping at home. Preschool-aged children's helping behaviour in the laboratory setting was significantly correlated with sociability. Outgoing children helped significantly more than shy children in the laboratory but the two groups did not differ in their helping at home. This is consistent with the view that temperament interacts with situational factors in influencing a child's helping behaviour. It is possible that the familiarity of the setting and the identity of the person in need are involved.

Temperament has many dimensions that include emotionality, adaptability, mood, intensity, reactivity, activity, attention span or persistence, soothability, effortful control, shyness, and sociability (Prior et al., 2000, Rowe & Plomin, 1977). Of interest in the current study were the components of sociability and shyness. Sociability refers to a child's tendency to approach novel people and situations rather than withdrawing (Prior et al., 2000) and describes a child who likes to be with people (Russell, Hart, Robinson, & Olsen, 2003). Shyness refers to

wariness and anxiety in novel situations and social withdrawal in response to perceived social evaluation (Rubin & Coplan, 2004). It is evidenced by an awkward behaviour around strangers and casual acquaintances (Stanhope et al., 1987). Sociability is the tendency of an individual to prefer the presence of other people to being alone and broadly refers to the tendency with all people, including friends, family, and strangers (Stanhope et al., 1987). The concept of social withdrawal sometimes confounds shyness and unsociability, but it has been found that shyness and unsociability are different in children (Arbeau & Coplan, 2007). Sociability is the preference for personal contact with others while shyness is a type of fearfulness (Guyton, 1997). While sociability and shyness may seem to be opposing constructs, differences between the two constructs are more complex, such that an unsociable child may prefer to be alone but may not be fearful of others. Shy children may desire social interaction but have social fear that inhibits approaching the feared social situation (Arbeau & Coplan, 2007). Shy children tend to stay close to individuals with whom they are familiar. Whereas shy children exhibit high avoidance, unsociable children do not necessarily actively avoid, but rather prefer solitary activities. Surveyed teachers of young kindergarten students indicated that shy behaviours have a greater cost for children compared to unsociable behaviours. Additionally, teachers were more likely to intervene with shy children than unsociable children, supporting the belief that unsociable children have adequate social skills to interact when they choose to, but that shy children may not have the skills and are often inhibited by social fear and anxiety regulation difficulties. Unsociable children tend to have less negative developmental trajectories than shy children (Rubin & Coplan, 2004).

It is suggested that a child's sociability partially predicts their tendency to engage in prosocial behaviour in a situation (Stanhope et al., 1987). Guyton (1997) found that shyness was

an important predictor of treat donation, prosocial behaviours during a party, and individual helping behaviour. Guyton maintains that stable individual characteristics such as temperament are a critical determinant of prosocial behaviour. Maternal empathy was also related to treat donations. While a child's intrapersonal characteristics influence their behaviour, other factors may also be related to a child's prosocial behaviour, such as factors external to the child. One such example is parenting style.

Parental Emotional Style

Parental socialization influences the social development of a child and the child's tendency to act aggressively and prosocially (Hart, DeWolf, Wozniak, & Burts, 1992; Hastings, Zahn-Waxler, Robinson, Usher, & Bridges, 2000; Krevans & Gibbs, 1996; Lagacé-Séguin & Coplan, 2005; Morris et al., 2002; Stanhope et al., 1987). Hastings et al. (2000) found that mothers' socialization approach during the preschool years predicted later concern for others, an empathic and prosocial reaction. Their findings suggest that mothers who are overly strict or harsh, do not reason or establish consistent and reasonable rules, and strongly show their anger or disappointment may hinder their child's prosocial development. Children who experience forceful and angry socialization may be less likely to maintain or develop concern for others and this in turn may further facilitate their aggressive tendencies. Morris et al.'s (2002) findings further provide evidence that the relationships between negative parenting and factors such as hostility and psychological control may be further heightened in children with temperamental vulnerabilities, such as negative reactivity and low effortful control. Irritable children and children who have difficulty regulating emotions and behaviours who are exposed to negative parenting are at a higher risk of externalizing and internalizing problems. In general, child temperament interacts with family socialization in the development of behaviours.

Lagacé-Séguin and Coplan (2005) examined relations between maternal emotional style, child emotion and behaviour regulation, and child behaviours in one of their studies with preschool children. The relation found between maternal emotional style and child behaviour regulation was explored in relation to children's behaviours. Lagacé-Séguin and Coplan's findings indicated that maternal emotional style interacted with children's behaviour regulation in predicting children's behaviours and emotions. Low ratings on behaviour regulation and high ratings on maternal emotion-coaching style were associated with pro-social behaviour. In contrast, higher rating on behaviour regulation along with high ratings on maternal emotion-coaching style was associated with anxiety. Lagacé-Séguin and Coplan's findings support the concept that children's characteristics along with parenting characteristics both contribute to children's behaviour.

Stanhope et al. (1987) found that mothers of socially adaptable children tend to use an inductive technique of parenting. Inductive parenting uses reasoning in response to a child's misbehaviour rather than relying on punishment techniques. Hart et al. (1992) found that children whose parents are more inductive exhibit fewer disruptive playground behaviours (arguing, rough play, harmful aggressive actions) and were more preferred by peers. Girls and older preschoolers of inductive mothers exhibited more prosocial behaviour, such as social conversation and cooperative play. Inductive parents are less power assertive and use rationales to support the claims and consequences that they present to their children. Krevans and Gibbs (1996) found that children whose parents used inductive rather than power-assertive techniques for discipline were more empathetic and in turn, more empathic children exhibited more prosocial behaviours.

The development of a child is impacted by parents in multiple ways. An example is through parental socialization of emotion. One concept that has been used to emphasize parental socialization of emotion is via concepts surrounding emotional parenting and the theory of parental meta-emotion (Gottman, Katz, and Hooven, 1996). Meta-emotion refers to the ‘feelings and thoughts about emotion’ (Gottman et al., 1996, p. 243). In the case of parents, meta-emotion refers to parents’ feelings about their own and their children’s feelings (Lagacé-Séguin & Coplan, 2005). Meta-emotion philosophy is ‘an organized set of feelings and thoughts about one’s own emotions and one’s children’s emotions’ (Gottman et al., 1996, p. 243). Parents exhibit at least two parenting characteristics, emotion-coaching and emotion-dismissing. Parents who use an emotion-coaching (EC) parenting style are aware of emotions in their lives, are able to discuss their emotions, are aware of emotions in their children, and assist their children with their emotions. They recognize that difficult emotions, such as sadness or anger, are an opportunity for teaching children. EC parents are responsive to their children’s emotional state, respect their children’s feelings, and use situations constructively. Parents who use an emotion-dismissing (ED) parenting style, in contrast, view their children’s negative emotions as potentially harmful, want to get rid of the negative emotions as quickly as possible, and want to fix everything and move on. While there may be some similarities between inductive parenting and emotion-coaching parenting, they are distinct. While inductive parenting has been shown to be related to prosocial behaviour in children, the link between EC parenting and children’s prosocial behaviour is one of the relationships of interest for the current study. The parental style that is demonstrated within parent-child relationships may influence how the child behaves, as well as how they view themselves.

Self-esteem

Self-esteem does not currently have a universal operational definition in the literature (Butler & Gasson, 2005), but tends to refer to a person's evaluative feelings of self worthiness and competence. Individuals may feel varying levels of competence in different domains of their life (Harter, 1982). Domains may encompass cognition, academic performance, social interactions, appearance, physical ability, and more. One's general self-worth reflects how one feels about himself or herself and how much the individual likes himself or herself in general as a person. Similar to the temperament literature, self-esteem literature tends to have various terminology for concepts related to self-esteem and a universal definition is not present (Butler & Gasson, 2005). Self-esteem, self-concept, competence, self-efficacy, and self-worth are among the terms used in this domain.

A child's self-esteem is constructed and shaped by their internal characteristics as well as the environment around them (Gecas & Schwalbe, 1983). As self-esteem and perception of self-worth depend on how one views the self, it is inherently influenced by the individual's inherent characteristics and how they are perceived by themselves. Additionally, how others view one's characteristics also influences how one values oneself. One dimension of self-evaluation is one's perceived competence in multiple areas (Harter, 1982). Children may feel varying degrees of competence in various skill domains, such as academia, social, and physical, as well as have an over-arching feeling of general self-worth based on self-evaluation.

How a child feels about himself or herself may influence the way that they interact and behave (Laible et al., 2004). The way that they view themselves influences how they interact with peers and may influence whether they are willing to help someone or demonstrate altruistic behaviour. Individuals with high self-esteem are considered to have adaptive functioning (Butler

& Gasson, 2005). They are considered to offer assistance to others. Laible et al. (2004) found that prosocial behaviour was significantly correlated to self-esteem and aggression. They found that participants with high levels of prosocial behaviour reported higher levels of self-esteem and low levels of aggressive behaviour. Cauley and Tyler (1989) found a significant correlation between young children's self-concept and cooperative behaviour observed during free play. Children may have greater feelings of self-worth if the significant caregivers in their lives are understanding and sensitive to them (Laible et al., 2004).

Other influences

Demographic factors such as gender and age have had contradicting relations to helping behaviour or altruistic tendencies. While some researchers have supported that age influences helping behaviours, others do not, and some find that certain prosocial helping behaviours change with age while others are relatively stable (Green and Schneider, 1974; Krebs & Sturupp, 1974; Payne, 1980). Children's gender, similarly, has had conflicting findings whether it influences children's helping behaviour or altruistic tendency. Some researchers have not found significant differences between boys and girls in altruistic behaviour (Kakavoulis, 1998; Iannotti, 1985; Shumaker, 1993). Others have found that gender does influence various prosocial behaviours, such as sharing and helping (Harris and Siebel, 1975; Laible et al., 2004; Payne, 1980; Shigetomi, Hartman, & Gelfand, 1981), most often in favour of girls.

Rationale and Hypotheses

While temperament is largely natural and predisposed within the individual, parenting style is an external force acting on the child. Both of these constructs influence each other and act together on a child's development. The relationship between parenting and child behaviour may also be related to the genetic similarity between the parent and child (Putnam, Sanson, &

Rothbart, 2002). Temperament and parenting have been found to be related but this relation may be further complicated by underlying biological factors that influence both the parent and the child. It is difficult to fully untangle ‘nature’ and ‘nurture’ in the associations between parents and their children. The relation between a child’s temperament and a parent’s style is reciprocal. A child’s temperament may influence how an individual acts as a parent and a parent’s style, in turn, may influence how the child expresses their innate temperament. Additionally, ‘nature’ and ‘nurture’ are difficult to speak of separately with respect to a child’s self-esteem. A child’s self-esteem may be associated with the child’s inherent temperament and parenting style, and in turn may be an additional factor significantly related to the child’s behaviour. Although the factors of temperament, parenting style, and self-esteem may all be related to children’s behaviour, researchers to-date have not examined all three variables, concurrently, in the prediction of children’s altruistic tendencies.

Resulting from the lack of empirical support, the relative contributions of these factors to children’s altruistic tendencies are not clear. Additionally, results have been mixed about whether a child’s age and gender is associated with their helping behaviour. The current study intended to assess children’s tendencies to demonstrate altruistic behaviours as a function of their parents’ emotional parenting style, child’s temperament, and ratings of childhood self-esteem. Additional factors such as child’s age and gender were also examined. It was expected that temperament, parenting style, and children’s self-esteem would be significantly related to children’s altruistic orientation.

While Stanhope et al. (1987) found that temperament was associated with a child’s helping behaviour in a laboratory setting, laboratory settings are not always generalizable to real-life situations. Additionally, observers can only rate a child on very limited time and situations

and as such may not have enough information to grasp the child's true general tendency to help (Kakavoulis, 1998). This is supported by Stanhope et al.'s findings that ratings of a child's helping behaviour differed between the laboratory setting and the home setting. As such, temperamental factors such as shyness around strangers may contribute to whether the child acts altruistically. Children who are sociable may tend to help with both familiar and unfamiliar settings or people, while shy children may tend to help familiar individuals more than unfamiliar people or situations. Based on Stanhope et al.'s (1987) and Guyton's (1997) findings, it was predicted that outgoing children would be more altruistic than shy children. Sociable children were expected to exhibit more helping behaviours than unsociable children.

Children whose parents practice EC parenting (rated higher in EC) were expected to have a higher altruistic tendency than parents who did not espouse EC parenting. Children whose parents rated higher in practicing ED parenting were expected to have a lower altruistic tendency than children whose parents rated lower in ED parenting. Parents, such as those who use EC parenting, who use inductive, rational techniques may help children to develop into individuals who are more empathetic and demonstrate prosocial reactions (Gottman et al., 1996; Hastings et al., 2000; Stanhope et al., 1987).

Children who have higher ratings of self-esteem were expected to be more altruistic than children with low self-esteem. Individuals with higher self-esteem are considered to demonstrate adaptive functioning and behaviours such as helping (Butler & Gasson, 2005). Laible et al. (2004) also found that prosocial behaviour and self-esteem are correlated.

The present study examined the relative associations of children's temperament, parenting style, and child self-esteem on altruistic behaviour. It was predicted that children low on shyness and high on sociability would rate high on altruistic tendency. Children of parents

with high EC parenting were expected to rate higher on altruistic tendency and children with parents with high ED parenting were expected to rate lower on altruistic tendency. It was predicted that children with high self-esteem would rate higher on altruism than children with low self-esteem. Gender and age were also be included as factors as there have been mixed results regarding whether they are related to helping behaviour, however, it was not predicted whether they would significantly affect altruistic orientation.

Methods

Participants

Fifteen schools within the Annapolis Valley Regional School Board were contacted to participate in the study, of which seven schools agreed to participate. Within the participating schools, 545 grade six children and their parents were recruited. A total of 62 parent-child pairs responded and consented to participation. Of those 62, 43 parents completed the online questionnaires and 57 children completed the student questionnaires (including one partial completion). Children's age and gender were collected via the parent questionnaires. From the available demographic information, 26 females and 17 males participated, which included twenty-nine 11-year-olds and fourteen 12-year-olds ($M = 11.33$, $SD = 0.47$). The missing values for each of the examined variables were filled in with the series mean. Three fathers completed the surveys, and while the MESQ is aimed for mothers it was decided to keep the fathers' data as there were only three fathers.

Questionnaires

Temperament. Children's temperament were assessed by the EAS (Emotionality, Activity, Sociability) Temperament Survey for Children: Parental Ratings (Buss & Plomin, 1984). The EAS assesses the dimensions of Emotionality, Activity, Sociability, and Shyness.

The Emotionality scale is a measure of distress and reflects a child's tendency to become emotionally upset easily and intensely. The Activity scale reflects a child's tendency to be energetic or restless, and measures their speed of action and preferred level of activity. The Sociability scale reflects the tendency of a child to prefer the presence of others to being alone. The Shyness scale reflects the tendency to be inhibited and awkward in new social situations. Buss and Plomin consider Shyness to be a derivative of Sociability. Boer and Westenberg (1994) found that the four EAS scales had reliable internal consistency and interrater agreement with Dutch children between the ages of 4 and 13 years, however, they noted the sociability factor may need modification as the items comprising it could not be pulled away from the scales of shyness and activity. Mathiesen and Tambs (1999) found that four-factor analysis confirmed the usability of the four scales and the scales showed high stability with young Norwegian children. The Shyness and Sociability scale items of the EAS were completed online by parents (see Appendix A). Each dimension included five items that were rated on a Likert scale from 1 (not characteristic or typical for the child) to 5 (very characteristic or typical for the child). The scores from the items on each subscale were added and divided by the number of items, resulting in mean scores ranging from 1 to 5 on the subscales.

Maternal Emotional Style. Lagacé-Séguin and Coplan (2005) developed a modified shortened version of a self-assessment questionnaire measuring parents' emotional style, the Maternal Emotional Styles Questionnaire (MESQ). The MESQ consists of 14 items representing the two-factors of emotion coaching (EC) and emotion dismissing (ED) parenting styles that are rated on a 5-point Likert scale anchored from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) for the EC and ED factors were .92 and .90, respectively. The MESQ demonstrated moderate short-term (6 month) stability. The MESQ

subscales were significantly correlated with the Meta-Emotion Interview (MEI), which measures maternal emotional styles. The association between MESQ and MEI subscales provides support for the MESQ construct validity in assessing maternal parenting styles. The MESQ was completed online by parents (see Appendix B). The scores from the items on each subscale were added and divided by the number of items, resulting in mean scores ranging from 1 to 5 for both EC and ED parenting styles.

Self-esteem. Children's self-rating of self-esteem were measured using Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale (SES; 1989). The SES consists of 10 items that are answered on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (3) to strongly disagree (0). Buss and Gasson's (2005) review of self esteem/self concept scales for children reported that the scale is designed for children 11 years of age and older and reflects global self-esteem or a general feeling of self-worth. Buss and Gasson, based on their review of literature, indicated that the SES has adequate internal consistency, test-retest reliability, and construct validity. While the SES was developed and published in the USA, Bagley, Bolitho, and Bertrand (1997) used the SES with a Canadian population and indicated evidence of validity and reliability. The SES was completed by children in paper form (see Appendix C). The scores from the items were added and divided by the number of items, resulting in a mean score of self-esteem ranging from 0 to 3.

Altruistic Tendency. Schermerhorn (2006) used Litvak-Miller and McDougall's (1997) The Altruism Questionnaire, to measure children's altruistic tendencies in response to everyday situations that may result in helping behaviour. The questionnaire consists of six brief vignettes that depict children in situations where they may chose to help, share, or cooperate. In Schermerhorn's version the vignettes are read aloud to the children, while the children are able to read along. After the vignette is read, the child is asked to choose the reaction they would most

likely choose from three possible reactions. The responses were coded for low-cost helping (0), not helping with justification (1), and high-cost helping based on empathy (2). Reliability and validity data were not available on The Altruism Questionnaire (Schermerhorn, 2006), although it appears to be a stable measure (Litvak-Miller & McDougall, 1997), it may only partially capture a child's true tendency to display altruistic behaviour. The Altruism Questionnaire was completed by children in paper form (see Appendix D). The scores on the items were added and divided by the number of items, resulting in a mean score of altruistic tendency ranging from 0 to 2.

Procedure

This study was approved by the University Research Ethics Board at Mount Saint Vincent University prior to commencing (File#: 2010-033). Following ethics approval, the study was reviewed by Annapolis Valley Regional School Board (AVRSB) for approval to complete the study within AVRSB schools. The AVRSB Superintendent granted approval for the researcher to contact principals at designated schools to request to carry out research through their school. It was then at the discretion of the principal as to whether the researcher could contact students and their parents within the school.

Information notices with detailed information regarding the study were sent home to parents with a link to the online questionnaires and a paper form for informed consent. The parent then returned the signed form indicating informed consent for their and their child's participation. Envelopes were provided to the school for the collection of signed consent forms and later on for completed student questionnaires. The researcher did not have direct contact with participating students or parents unless the parent requested further information or had questions. Prior to the commencement of the online parent questionnaires, the parent was again

provided information regarding the study and required to indicate consent. At the end of the online questionnaires, parents were able to provide contact information if they wanted to be contacted regarding the results of the study. It was estimated that the parent online questionnaires would take less than 20 minutes for the parent to complete. Reminders were sent home to parents who had indicated consent but not completed the online questionnaires.

After the parent consents were returned to the school, the researcher picked up the informed consents and dropped off the child questionnaires for the participating students to complete. The child questionnaires provided information regarding the study before the questionnaires. The child questionnaires were estimated to take less than 20 minutes to complete. Once the student questionnaires were completed, the examiner picked up the completed forms at the school.

Results

Data were collected via online parent questionnaires and paper student questionnaires. Assumptions were checked and data were analysed for outliers. It was determined that all data were distributed as they should be for correlational analyses. Analyses were conducted to examine sex differences, age differences, correlations between all variables, and multiple regression to predict altruistic tendency.

T-tests were conducted to examine sex differences for the six variables of emotion-coaching parenting style, emotion-dismissing parenting style, shyness, sociability, self-esteem, and altruistic tendency. The analyses revealed no significant differences ($p > 0.05$) between male and female students for all of the variables (see Table 1). Age differences were also examined for each of the variables. No significant differences ($p > 0.05$) were found between 11-year-old and

12-year-old grade six students for EC parenting, ED parenting, shyness, sociability, self-esteem, and altruistic tendency (see Table 2).

Pearson bivariate correlations were conducted between all of the variables (see Table 3 for variable means). Children's self-rating of their altruistic tendency was not related to emotion-coaching parenting style ($r = -0.07, p = 0.57$), emotion-dismissing parenting style ($r = 0.11, p = 0.38$), shyness ($r = 0.11, p = 0.38$), sociability ($r = -0.02, p = 0.90$), or self-esteem ($r = -0.10, p = 0.46$).

In regard to parenting style, emotion-coaching parenting was not significantly correlated with shyness ($r = -0.15, p = 0.24$), sociability, ($r = 0.21, p = 0.11$), or self-esteem ($r = -0.19, p = 0.15$). Emotion-coaching parenting was positively related to emotion-dismissing parenting ($r = 0.48, p < 0.01$). Parents who rated themselves are higher on emotion-coaching parenting also rated themselves higher on emotion-dismissing parenting. Emotion-dismissing parenting was not significantly correlated with shyness ($r = 0.01, p = 0.96$), sociability ($r = 0.02, p = 0.88$), or self-esteem ($r = -0.15, p = 0.25$).

In regard to children's temperament, sociability was not correlated with self-esteem ($r = 0.01, p = 0.95$). The significant relationship between children's shyness and sociability was found to be negative and moderate ($r = -0.60, p < 0.01$). Children who were rated by their parents as being more sociable were less shy. Shyness was found to be positively related to self-esteem ($r = 0.29, p = 0.02$). Children who were rated by their parents as being higher on shyness, rated themselves as having higher self-esteem.

Linear multiple regression was conducted to examine the contributions of EC parenting, ED parenting, shyness, sociability, and self-esteem to predicting children's altruistic tendency.

Table 1

Comparison of Males (N=17) and Females (N=26) for EC Parenting, ED Parenting, Shyness, Sociability, Self-Esteem, and Altruistic Tendency

Variable	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Significance
EC Parenting	-0.02	41	0.99
ED Parenting	0.56	41	0.58
Shyness	0.55	41	0.59
Sociability	0.59	41	0.56
Self-Esteem	-0.67	41	0.50
Altruistic Tendency	0.83	41	0.41

Table 2

Comparison of 11-year-olds (N=29) and 12-year-olds (N=14) for EC Parenting, ED Parenting, Shyness, Sociability, Self-Esteem, and Altruistic Tendency

Variable	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Significance
EC Parenting	0.33	41	0.74
ED Parenting	-1.54	41	0.13
Shyness	0.81	41	0.42
Sociability	-0.10	41	0.92
Self-Esteem	-0.53	41	0.60
Altruistic Tendency	-1.58	41	0.12

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of the Means and Standard Deviations for EC Parenting, ED Parenting, Shyness, Sociability, Self-Esteem, and Altruistic Tendency (N=40)

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
EC Parenting	3.85	0.35
ED Parenting	3.14	0.48
Shyness	2.42	0.62
Sociability	3.57	0.49
Self-Esteem	2.17	0.44
Altruistic Tendency	1.51	0.33

The association between altruistic tendency and the predictor variables of EC parenting, ED parenting, shyness, sociability, and self-esteem was not significant (Multiple $R = 0.27$), accounting for only 1% of the variation in altruistic tendency (adjusted R^2). Altruistic tendency was not significantly predicted from the other variables ($F(5, 56) = 0.87, p = 0.51$) (see Table 4 for regression results).

Discussion

The purpose of the study was to examine the relative contributions of parental emotional style, children's temperamental domains of shyness and sociability, and self-esteem to children's altruistic tendency. Data was collected via parental questionnaires measuring parental emotional style and child temperament and child questionnaires measuring self-esteem and altruistic tendency. It was predicted that children lower on shyness would rate higher on altruistic tendency and children rated higher on sociability would rate higher on altruistic tendency. Children whose parents rated themselves higher on the practice of EC parenting were expected to have children who were rated as having higher altruistic tendency. Children whose parents rated lower on the practice of ED parenting were expected to have children who rated higher on altruistic tendency. Children with higher ratings of self-esteem were expected to be more altruistic than children with low self-esteem. Gender and age were also included, but no prediction was made whether they would significantly affect altruistic orientation. It was expected that temperament, parenting style, and children's self-esteem would be significantly related to children's altruistic tendency.

The prediction that lower ratings on shyness and higher ratings on sociability would be related to higher ratings on altruistic tendency was not supported. Neither shyness nor sociability were related to altruistic tendency. Stanhope et al. (1987) had found sociability to be correlated

Table 4

Linear Multiple Regression for Variables Predicting Altruistic Tendency (N=62)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Significance
	B	Standard Error		
EC-Parenting	1.42	0.71	2.00	0.05
ED-Parenting	-0.17	0.14	-1.21	0.23
Shyness	0.12	0.10	1.15	0.25
Sociability	0.11	0.12	0.92	0.36
Self-Esteem	-0.13	0.11	-1.21	0.23

with children's helping behaviour in the laboratory setting. They also discussed sociability and shyness as part of the same construct. While sociability/shyness was found to be related to children helping in the laboratory setting, it was not related to helping at home as reported by the mother (Stanhope et al., 1987). It is possible that the laboratory setting behaviours are not the same behaviours that the child would demonstrate in real life and as such it is possible that sociability and/or shyness is not significantly related to children's helping in some situations. If this is the case, this study which utilized altruism vignettes may have tapped into this form of children's helping in real-life situations or at least the type of action the child may naturally tend to use. While an observational method, over a prolonged period of time in multiple settings, would provide a natural form of the behaviour, there is no control over other variables and there is limited ability to identify the underlying motives of behaviour (Krebs & Van Hesteren, 1994; Puustinen, Lyyra, Metsapelto, & Pulkkinen, 2008). Vignettes on the other hand allow for the ecological validity of an individual's own response to a situation and depending on the wording and context may be able to investigate underlying motives, such as altruism, for behaviours. Additionally, vignettes allow for the stimuli to be held constant with concrete information that is the exact same for every single participant while still allowing the participant to put themselves into the situation.

Shyness and sociability were found to be negatively related. This is consistent with the conceptual characteristics of the two temperamental domains. Shyness refers to social withdrawal in response to perceived social evaluation and wariness and anxiety in novel situations (Rubin & Coplan, 2004) while sociability refers to a child's tendency to approach novel people and situations rather than withdrawing (Prior et al., 2000). Shyness and sociability are negatively related, however, it is not a perfect relationship and is a moderate, not strong

relation. This supports the idea that they are not perfectly opposing constructs that have complex differences and supports that shyness and unsociability are different in children (Arbeau & Coplan, 2007). Unsociable children may prefer to be alone but may not be fearful of others and shy children may desire social interactions but be inhibited in social situations due to social fear. This may also support teachers differentiating between shy and unsociable behaviours at school (Arbeau & Coplan, 2007).

Surprisingly, the current study found shyness and self-esteem to have a weak positive relationship. Kemple, David and Wang (1996) examined preschoolers' creativity, shyness, and self-esteem. They measured shyness as the opposite rating of sociability. They found that teacher-rated shyness was negatively correlated with teacher, mother, and child ratings of self-esteem and mother-rated shyness was negatively correlated with mother and child ratings of self-esteem, but not teacher ratings of self-esteem. Kemple et al. refer to global measures of self-esteem consistently being found to have a negative relationship with shyness scores with adults, middle childhood, and preschoolers (Asendorf, 1987; Briggs, Snider, & Smith; Cheek & Buss, 1981; Hymel, Woody, & Bowker, 1993; Jones & Russell, 1982; Kemple, 1990; Lazarus; 1982; Zimbardo & Radl, 1981; as cited in Kemple et al., 1996). It is even suggested that low self-esteem in a component of shyness, or that they may influence each other in a cyclical manner.

The prediction that children whose parents rated higher on EC parenting and lower on ED parenting would rate higher on altruistic tendency was not supported. Neither EC parenting nor ED parenting were related to children's altruistic tendency. Parental socialization influences the social development of a child and the child's tendency to act aggressively and prosocially (Hart et al., 1992; Hastings et al., 2000; Krevans & Gibbs, 1996; Lagacé-Séguin & Coplan, 2005; Morris et al., 2002; Stanhope et al., 1987). Lagacé-Séguin and Coplan (2005) indicated that

maternal emotional style interacted with children's behaviour regulation in predicting children's behaviours and emotions, although they did not examine altruism specifically, with high ratings on maternal emotion-coaching style associated with prosocial behaviour. Stanhope et al. (1987) found that the children of mothers who used inductive parenting technique were socially adaptable. While the link between inductive techniques and prosocial behaviour has been researched, the current study examined emotional parenting style, which in fact was not found to be related. It may be that the rationalization of induction is helpful in developing prosocial tendencies while emotional-parenting styles effects may not significantly impact altruism.

Emotion-coaching and emotion-dismissing styles of parenting were found to be positively related. This is contrary to the conceptual characteristics of the two styles of parenting. While parents who adopt EC parenting are aware of emotions and recognize difficult emotions as teaching opportunities, parents who adopt ED parenting, in contrast, lack an awareness of emotions and view difficult emotions as something to quickly move on from (Gottman et al., 1996; Lagacé-Séguin & Coplan, 2005). Lagacé-Séguin and Coplan's factor analyses indicated a two-factor solution, loading on EC and ED, for the MESQ, with the two factors containing items theoretically consistent with their underlying concept. As such, it is surprising that the parents of the current study who rated themselves high on using EC parenting, also rated themselves high on using an ED parenting. It may be that when parents were reading each item they were thinking of different individual situations and how they may react to each. It is also possible that the parents of the current sample have had varied experiences with emotions and the understanding of various emotions and so may not have strong meta-emotion abilities when parenting and may not have a set emotional parenting style. It is possible these parents use both EC and ED parenting dependent on the situation and do not have a general style that overarches

all of their interactions with their child about emotions, and the MESQ aims to tap into a parent's general emotional parenting style. Self-reports are designed to allow for examination of a general overview, compared to observational methods, but parents can be biased in their answers in order to present favourably in terms of parenting practices (Puustinen et al., 2008). Self-report of parenting behaviours is moderately related to observational studies.

The prediction that children with higher ratings of self-esteem would also have higher ratings of altruistic tendency than children with lower ratings of self-esteem was not supported. Higher self-esteem has been found to be related to adaptive functioning, offering assistance to others, cooperative play, and prosocial behaviour (Butler & Gasson, 2005; Cauly & Tyler, 1989; Laible et al., 2004). The current study did not support a relation between self-esteem and altruistic tendency. It may be that a child is no more willing to help another person regardless of how high their self-esteem is. With the shift in education to teach the 'whole' child, the school system that the current sample came from may be targeting education for all students on positive peer interactions, mediating through conflicts, and how to help another individual. Perhaps schools are teaching prosocial behaviours specifically to all children and as such, self-esteem does not play as large of a role in children's helping behaviour. If the findings are generalized to the population, children with low self-esteem are also helpers in real-life, not just children with high self-esteem.

Predictions were not made regarding whether gender or age would be significantly related to altruistic tendency. No significant age or gender differences were found. In terms of age, the comparison was between 11- and 12-year-olds within the same grade at school and this may imply that these children are on similar developmental trajectories as they have been in similar school and social environments as each other. While some researchers have supported

that age influences helping behaviours, others do not, and some find that certain prosocial helping behaviours change with age while others are relatively stable (Green and Schneider, 1974; Krebs & Sturup, 1974; Payne, 1980). The current study may have tapped into the prosocial helping behaviours that are relatively stable. Additionally, the study used varied vignettes across situations. Children's gender has had conflicting findings regarding whether it influences helping behaviour. The current study supports that boys and girls have similar altruistic behaviour (Kakavoulis, 1998; Iannotti, 1985; Shumaker, 1993). Parents rated observing both boys and girls to demonstrate similar feelings and behaviours of altruism to familiar people and strangers (Kakavoulis, 1998) which was explained in terms of supporting the belief that general prosocial feelings and actions are a general phenomenon for all children. However, Iannotti (1985) found that females were rated more favourably for some categories of prosocial behaviours, but only when rated by teachers for sharing and comforting. These ratings corresponded with sex stereotypes but not with observed data as gender differences were not found for naturalistic data or laboratory measures. Along with other information, Iannotti commented that teacher ratings should be avoided as the sole measure of behaviour. As such, it seems likely that there are not true gender differences in those measures of prosocial behaviour.

Contrary to all predictions, no variables were correlated with children's altruistic tendency. This may indicate that the measure of altruistic tendency did not tap into the same construct as measured by some of the previous studies, however, due to the low numbers, this is difficult to ascertain. The current measure examined children's responses to hypothetical situations while many past studies, such as Stanhope et al. (1987), used mothers' rating of helping and laboratory setting situations. Amato (1990) indicated that most helping occurs between familiar individuals and is often planned within the context of long-term relationships.

Laboratory situations and studies may not be generalizable to real-life helping as the situational factors of familiar individuals and planning is not present. In the current study, the altruism vignettes varied in context, setting, and familiarity of individual, looking at a cross-section of helping situations. While this method may give a more general viewpoint, perhaps more vignettes are needed to establish a consistent altruistic tendency or to have vignettes controlled for familiarity of individuals so as to increase children's consistency in responding in terms of their personal altruistic tendency within specific situation types and not across varied situations. Also, different types of methodology may result in different findings. Iannotti (1985) found that while teacher ratings of prosocial behaviour were internally consistent, they were generally unrelated to structured measures in laboratory settings and naturalistic observations. As such, they recommend more than one measure of prosocial behaviour to be able to generalize to other behaviours or contexts as ratings within categories of prosocial behaviour were relatively independent. Stanhope et al.'s (1987) findings also support the concept that multiple measures of prosocial behaviour are beneficial and that situational factors are important. Litvak-Miller and McDougall (1997) did find that scores on the vignette altruism questionnaire were related to the teacher rating of helping behaviours. Children tended to provide altruistic responses, indicating that they have the tendency to carry out helpful behaviours, however, the current study did not go to the next step regarding whether the child who rates high on having an altruistic tendency will then behave altruistically. Perhaps measuring both altruistic tendency and naturalistic behaviour would give a representation of whether children with high altruistic tendency, who would plan to help, will then behave in accordance with their beliefs when real situations arose.

The main limitation of current study was limited sample size. Concerns that arose from schools and principals, in conversation with the researcher, included low levels of literacy in

parents, multiple information forms and studies co-occurring in some of the schools, and parental access to internet for the online questionnaires. Additionally, one third of the parents who consented to participate with their child did not complete the online questionnaires, as such data from those students were substituted by the series mean (acceptable data replacement technique when missing scores are present). One step that may promote fidelity to completion of the questionnaires would be to attach a paper version of the questionnaire directly to the consent form for parents. While online questionnaires can facilitate participation due to the ease and flexibility for parents and reduced number of papers to organize for parents, in the current study internet access may have been a barrier. Paper versions attached to the parental consent may also reduce the percent of parents who consent without completing the questions. Paper versions may have also encouraged some parents to participate as it would be very easy to judge the small amount of time needed to answer the questions. One difficulty in the school system, for which there is no method to circumnavigate around, is the amount of information that is conveyed to parents. Parents often receive information from the school in the form of newsletters, report cards, schoolboard wide or educational initiatives, homework, cafeteria schedules, community announcements, grade level assessment information, and more. As such, reaching parents through schools can be challenging. The time of year within the school system may have also been a factor. Parents were receiving this information close to report card time, provincial questionnaires for grade 6 parents, and information regarding transitioning to middle school. The rural geographical area of the Annapolis Valley may have also been a factor. Perhaps for parents and children from this geographical area the examined factors are not truly related to altruism. Individuals from rural Nova Scotia tend to be perceived in general to be friendly and helpful to other people. It may be that parents and children from the Annapolis Valley will all tend to help

someone else, regardless of their temperament, self-esteem, and parenting style. It is often expected in rural agrarian Nova Scotia that one person will help out another regardless of who they are. The expected culture in the Annapolis Valley is to be helpful and friendly to others and this may have been reflected in the current study. The sample of parents for the current study may be unique. There may have been a ceiling effect as most parents rated very similarly across items and scales. Additionally, it may be that the parents who gave permission to participate in the current study may be a sampling of parents who promote altruism in their children.

Some may argue that altruism is not a true construct. Piliavin and Charng (1990) reviewed literature on altruism through the 1980's. Previously it was perceived that behaviour that appeared to be motivated by concern for others always has underlying selfish motives, which questions whether true altruism exists (Piliavin & Charng, 1990). In the 1980's, research shifted from focus on determinants of helping to focus on the existence of altruistic personality, motivation underlying helping behaviour, and the process of developing altruism. Piliavin and Charng's review indicates that altruism is a part of human nature as evidenced by research across disciplines. Their review goes into more depth in different areas relating to altruism.

The current study did not reject the null hypothesis. In general, none of the examined variables of shyness, sociability, EC parenting, ED parenting, and self-esteem were related to children's altruistic tendency. These findings may be a result of tapping into the naturally occurring relationships that researchers have yet to examine in detail. These factors may not be predictive of children's altruistic tendency in real-life. While differences were expected based on related past research, the current study may demonstrate that there are not naturally occurring differences in these factors predicting altruism. Children may tend to display or plan to display altruistic behaviour regardless of these factors. All children may have a general tendency to want

to be altruistic. There may be other factors that relate to altruism, such as specific situational factors.

The area of altruism and the factors that may be related to altruism are relevant in the school setting because the more information that educators and school personnel know about children and the pathways through which factors function, the better equipped they will be to teach the whole child. Knowledge within this area may help to foster prosocial interactions. Teachers intuitively treat children differently and may target children depending on shyness or sociability in terms of helping the child with social interactions. Teachers perceive that shy behaviours have a greater cost for children than unsociable behaviours (Arbeau & Coplan, 2007) and these teachers are more likely to intervene with shy children to support the belief that those children may need help developing those skills. The current findings did not find either factor related to helping, and as such, maybe differentiating between shyness and sociability in terms of targeting support in school is not the best method to use. Teachers may need further information. If the teacher has the knowledge of how the factor of shyness or another factor is related to social interactions, it is likely they will be better able to refine the help they offer children. Ultimately, this may lead to better socioemotional adjustment at school. The current findings may suggest that all children view altruism similarly, so general education for everyone may be appropriate. In terms of school psychology, school psychologists are increasingly called upon to address socioemotional and behavioural issues at school, and not just academic issues and psychoeducational assessments. Ideally, a school psychologist would be able to screen a student who the school is concerned about socially and then from that screening help the school support that child. The school psychologist's role in supporting the child with difficulties may differ dependent on school factors. The school psychologist may provide support for teachers and

resource teachers on different approaches to use with the child or provide information to school staff regarding strategies to help that individual child. It may also be that the school psychologist would work directly with the student on certain social skills or emotion regulation in an individual setting. The role of the school psychologist may also be to look at the environment that the child is in and determining ways that the school environment may be changed to better support prosocial behaviours. Children who demonstrate prosocial behaviours are likely to have positive trajectories and helping others may help a child develop socially. Additionally, if shyness and sociability influence children differently in a social situation it will be important to help school staff differentiate effectively between the two so as to target social support for students better.

Based on the current findings, there may be no true relations between altruism and the chosen variables in real-life. This may mean that children with varying levels of self-esteem, with differing temperaments, and coming from families using varied parenting styles may all be equally able to be altruistic. This may provide hope that all children have the desire to help others and behave prosocially. In educating our children, we can rejoice that we are not only teaching primary academics but also may be facilitating the development of future contributing members of society who have concern for others. As well, parents may be encouraging altruism from the home setting. All children may be equally able to be altruistic.

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Appendix A

The EAS Temperament Survey for Children: Parental Ratings
(Buss & Plomin, 1984)

Rate each of the items for your child on a scale of
1 (not characteristic or typical of your child) to 5 (very characteristic or typical of your child):

1) Child tends to be shy. (Shyness)	1	2	3	4	5
2) Child likes to be with people. (Sociability)	1	2	3	4	5
3) Child prefers playing with others rather than alone. (Sociability)	1	2	3	4	5
4) Child makes friends easily. (reversed, Shyness)	1	2	3	4	5
5) Child finds people more stimulating than anything else (Sociability)	1	2	3	4	5
6) Child is very sociable. (reversed, Shyness)	1	2	3	4	5
7) Child takes a long time to warm up to strangers. (Shyness)	1	2	3	4	5
8) Child is something of a loner. (reversed, Sociability)	1	2	3	4	5
8) When alone, child feels isolated. (Sociability)	1	2	3	4	5
10) Child is very friendly with strangers. (reversed, Shyness)	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B

The Maternal Emotional Style Questionnaire
(Lagacé-Séguin & Coplan, 2005)

On this page you will see statements that describe feelings in yourself and your child. We would like to know your opinions about each of these statements. For each statement please decide to what extent you agree or disagree and circle your choice. Please remember that there are no right or wrong answers. And please use the following scale to indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements:

1 = strongly disagree **2**=disagree **3**= neutral **4**=agree **5**=strongly agree

1	When my child is sad, it's time to problem solve	1	2	3	4	5
2	Anger is an emotion worth exploring	1	2	3	4	5
3	When my child is sad I am expected to fix the world and make it perfect	1	2	3	4	5
4	When my child gets sad, it's a time to get close	1	2	3	4	5
5	Sadness is something that one has to get over, to ride out, not to dwell on	1	2	3	4	5
6	I prefer my child to be happy rather than overly emotional	1	2	3	4	5
7	I help my child get over sadness quickly so he/she can move onto other things	1	2	3	4	5
8	When my child is angry, it's an opportunity for getting close	1	2	3	4	5
9	When my child is angry, I take some time to try to experience this feeling with him/her	1	2	3	4	5
10	I try to change my child's angry moods into cheerful ones	1	2	3	4	5
11	Childhood is a happy-go-lucky time, not a time for feeling sad or angry	1	2	3	4	5
12	When my child gets angry my goal is to get him/her to stop	1	2	3	4	5
13	When my child is angry I want to know what he/she is thinking	1	2	3	4	5
14	When my child is angry, it's time to solve a problem	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix C

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale
(Rosenberg, 1989)

Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. If you **Strongly Agree**, choose **SA**. If you **Agree** with the statement, choose **A**. If you **Disagree**, choose **D**. If you **Strongly Disagree**, choose **SD**.

	SA	A	D	SD
I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an even plane with others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am able to do things as well as most other people.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I take a positive attitude toward myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I wish I could have more respect for myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
At times, I think I am no good at all.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I certainly feel useless at times.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix D

The Altruism Questionnaire
(Schermerhorn, 2006)Directions:

You are going to read six short stories. After each one, you will be asked what you would do if you were in that situation. You will be asked to choose from three possible reactions.

Vignette 1.

On the bus after school one day, Hannah finally got to sit in her favourite seat. She hardly ever got that seat because the bus was always so crowded by the time she on. As Hannah sat down, she noticed a little girl two rows in front of her struggling with her seatbelt. Hannah didn't know what to do.

What would you do?

- Tell the bus driver. (0)
- Sit down because you could lose your favourite seat if you get up to help. (1)
- Help the little girl put her seat belt on because you can guess how she is probably feeling. (2)

Vignette 2.

Ethan ran into the drugstore to pick up some medicine for his mother while she waited outside in the car. She gave him an extra dollar to buy himself a special treat. While waiting on line to pay, Ethan heard the old lady in front of him say that she did not have enough money to pay for her medicine. The drugstore clerk said that she only needed one more dollar. Ethan didn't know what to do.

What would you do?

- Keep your extra dollar because the old lady is a stranger. (1)
- Give the old lady your extra dollar because you think about how she might be feeling. (2)
- Go back outside and tell your mother. (0)

Vignette 3.

As she walked to school one morning, Maria heard a strange sound. As she walked closer to the sound, she saw a puppy that was whining. Maria thought that the puppy was probably lost because she had never seen it before in her neighbourhood and she didn't see anybody close by who might be the owner. Maria didn't know what to do.

What would you do?

- Try to look at the puppy's tag for its name and a telephone number because you know how the owner must feel about the missing puppy. (2)
- Tell the next grown up you see. (0)
- Keep on walking because you might be late to school. (1)

Vignette 4.

Jordan's teacher told the class to take out a sharp #2 pencil and start filling in the math test booklet on their desks. Jordan always likes to have two #2 pencils for these kinds of tests just in case one breaks. The teacher doesn't like it when students ask for another pencil once the test starts. As Jordan is about to start writing his name, a classmate who doesn't have any pencils asks him to borrow one of his pencils to use during the text. Jordan didn't know what to do.

What would you do?

- Ignore your classmate because you might need to use both pencils. (1)
 - Tell the teacher. (0)
 - Give up one of your pencils because you can imagine how you would feel if you were that kid. (2)
-

Vignette 5.

One day during recess, Emily was playing kickball with her friends on the playground. It was a hot day and she couldn't wait to get inside to get a cold drink of water. When the recess aide blew the whistle to line up, Emily heard a boy being teased and pushed around by another child. Nobody seemed to notice that the boy was about to be punched. Emily didn't know what to do.

What would you do?

- Tell the teasing child to stop because you can understand how the boy being picked on probably feels. (2)
 - Get on line to go inside because you don't want to get in the middle of a fight. (1)
 - Tell the recess aide. (0)
-

Vignette 6.

Before soccer practice, Brian remembered that it was his turn to pick who he wanted to be on his team. When he arrived at the soccer field, Brian overheard Timmy crying and telling his friend that he would quit the team if he were picked last again. Brian knew he should pick the team fairly, but whatever team Timmy was on always lost. Brian didn't know what to do.

What would you do?

- Tell the soccer coach. (0)
- Pick Timmy to be on your team because you can guess how Timmy feels. (2)
- Not pick Timmy because you want the best chance of winning the game. (1)