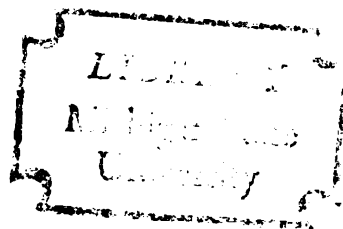SELF - ESTEEM AND ALTRUISM IN BLACK
FIFTH GRADERS

Thesis for the Degree of M. A.
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
LEON L. ANDERSON
1975

ABSTRACT

SELF-ESTEEM AND ALTRUISM IN BLACK
FIFTH GRADERS

By

Leon L. Anderson

This study was an attempt to examine the relationship between self-esteem and gender on altruism, i.e., subjects scoring low on self-esteem inventory would be expected to obtain significantly lower altruism scores than those subjects with high self-esteem scores and boys lower scores than girls. The testing instrument for measuring self-esteem was the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory. A behavioral measure for altruism was developed by the author.

The self-esteem inventory was administered to pupil in two fifth grade classes in Baton Rouge, Louisiana. Those subjects scoring in the upper 15 percentile were considered high in self-esteem (4 males and 4 females) whereas those scoring in the lower 15 percentile were considered low in self-esteem (4 males and 4 females).

These high and low self-esteem subjects were also tested for altruism by awarding them 23 cents for doing a small task and asking them to donate some of the earnings to a "needy child."

It was hypothesized that: (a) Subjects scoring low in self-esteem on the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory would score low on

the behavioral measure for altruism. (b) Females would be more al-
truistic than males in both high and low self-esteem groups. Results
did not provide support for either of the hypotheses.

SELF-ESTEEM AND ALTRUISM IN BLACK

FIFTH GRADERS


By


Leon L. Anderson


A THESIS


Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of


MASTER OF ARTS


College of Social Sciences


1975

To my Parents

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

It seems that some of us are so

    afraid to get involved . . .

As if the giving, taking and

    sharing weren't worth the

    risk of uncertainty.


              father wilbert m. white

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well, and views himself as a model to others. On the other hand,
Rosenberg (1965) found self-contempt, self-rejection and self-
dissatisfaction indicative of low self-esteem. When these factors
are present in the self, there is a lack of self-respect. In the
picture the individual paints of himself he wishes it were otherwise.
Low self-esteem deals with expressions of disappointment with self
for failing to possess abilities or attributes which the individual
desires to have.

## Parental Influence on the Development of Self-Esteem in the Child:

The mother figure can instill either a "good-me" image through
her approval of the infant or a "bad-me" image through her disapproval.
The self-esteem of the "good-me" is quite content-free and dependent
upon attributes approved of and encouraged by the mother figure. Parents
and significant others define and evaluate the person so that later the
person can evaluate himself (Sullivan, 1953).

Erikson's (1959) perception of self-esteem emphasizes successful
resolution of each of the epigenetic crises in the life cycle. After
each resolved crisis self-esteem is confirmed, and the overall sense
of ego-identity accrues after adolescence. The individual's self-
esteem may be based on any or all of the major dimensions built into
Erickson's theroretical system: trust, autonomy initiative, industry,
ego-identity, intimacy, generativity, and integrity. White (1967),
on the other hand, conceptualized self-esteem as the cumulative sense
of competence. Grasping and exploring, crawling and walking, attention

and perception, language and thinking, manipulating and changing the surroundings, all promote a competent interaction with the environment.

Self-esteem for Coopersmith (1969) refers to the "evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself: it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicated the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy." It is an evaluative statement which the individual holds toward himself. Coopersmith views parental attitudes as the key factor in developing high self-esteem. In his study with 1,748 normal middle-class boys, he found those boys who were self-confident and maintained an optimistic outlook on life came from families: (a) where the parents were genuinely interested in their children--their activities, friends, and interests; (b) where high standards of behavior were set with strict and consistent rules of enforcement with rewards rather than corporal punishment as a disciplinary technique; (c) that allowed children to have an active voice in decision-making and where parents kept themselves open for additional suggestions.

According to Coopersmith, (1969) positive, favorable self-concepts and feelings of self-esteem are necessary conditions for personal happiness and effective social functioning. Youngsters possessing these characteristics are active, self-confident, and independent. They express themselves freely and spontaneously experiment with new ideas and activities and approach people without fear. They seemed to approach any given task with the expectation

of success. In contrast, children lacking self-confidence tend to be anxious, apprehensive, inhibited about expressing their own opinions, self-conscious, and withdrawn. They feel helpless, lonely, and inferior, devaluing themselves and their accomplishments. Furthermore their social interactions are limited, their initial school adjustments are difficult, and their academic work is discouraging to them. From an extensive interview, data showed that parents of high self-esteem children established a reasonable balance between protectiveness and support on the one hand, and the encouragement of independence and autonomy on the other. Mothers of children low in self-esteem tended to be emotionally distant and rather inattentive and neglectful in their treatment. Low self-esteem children tended to be either indifferent or hostile to their parents.

## Altruism

Presently, the confusion in research regarding altruism resides in the concept itself which covers a diversity of responses, such as sharing, helping, defending, rescuing, sympathizing, and more.

In orthodox psychoanalytic theory, guilt and anxieties are viewed as the substructure of the individual's altruism. Anna Freud (1937), for example, stated, "Altruism arises from inhibition and deprivation, from reaction formations to agressions, or from the expiative dynamics of guilt." Glover (1925) conceptized altruism as deriving from oral character traits. Fenichel (1945) related it to homosexuality and castration anxiety. There is present some difficulty in explaining alturistic behavior and other adaptive

undefensive behaviors (Maddi, 1968). An individual who is altruistic and is unaware of it, because of generalized guilt which precluded awareness of his own impulses, and desires, can be interpreted in psychoanalytic terms as showing "reflection of repression and self-denial or perhaps a means of making restitution for transgressions dimly felt to have been committed in the past"(Maddi, 1965).

In learning theories, "identification" process have been stressed as factors in the young child's acquisition of the adult's prosocial and moral behaviors. Still, acts of helping and sharing, like other responses, are acquired as the result of specific reinforcements. Much of the research deriving from Fruedian theory and learning theory has focused on how we come to inhibit impluses to restrain from anti-social behavior, to resist temptations; all devices for dealing with the negative sources of altruism.

Berger (1962) on the other hand, viewed altruism as, "an assumption to be based upon concordant vicarious instigation where both performer and observer emotional responses are positive." The notion of vicarious reinforcement in explaining social modeling and other imitative processes are employed by social learning theorist. Bandura (1965) found there is considerable evidence to suggest that observer behavior changes as a consequence of witnessing the reward-cost contingencies associated with a performer's behavior.

Social models are influential in producing charitable responses in children. It was demonstrated by White and Rosenhan (1966) that the observation of a charitable other will facilitate donations of gift certificates to a fictitious orphanage. Ugurel-

Semin (1952) found that the sharing of peanuts by young children correlated positively with age and family size. Fischer (1963) argued that sharing behavior is essentially giving up one reward for the promise of another. In his study, the giving of marbles to an unknown peer was facilitated when the subject was reinforced with bubble gum. Generosity was affected by how many marbles were available to share but not by how many marbles the subject had won on previous days of testing.

Empathic responses can be directly conditioned by pairing positive-affect arousal in the giver with expressions of joy in the recipient (Aronfreed and Paskal, 1965). The recipients' expressive cues of gratitude became an additional stimuli for positive-affect arousal which reinforced the child for his self-sacrifice. The conditioning of positive affect to the observations of the pleasurable consequences of the act for the beneficiary can be attributed to altruisitic behavior. Data support the suggestion that sacrificing behavior can be enhanced by attaching, through contiguous association, positive affect in the donor with expressions of joy in the receiver. Pairing expressions of joy by the experimenter with the hugging of the subject elicited more subsequent sacrificing of M & M candies than administration of either the hug and joy response alone.

Midlarsky and Bryan (1967) used procedures similar to those of Aronfreed and Paskal (1965). They studied the degree which children internalized charitable behavior and the importance of patterning expressive cues combined with affect arousal. The study was designed

to assess the role of affective arousal and expression of joy upon subsequent donation behavior. No attempt was made (unlike Aronfreed's and Paskal's study) to control the patterning of the expressive cues and the hug response. They failed to find any difference between the number of self-sacrifical and charitable responses of elementary school girls observing a model who elicited expressive signs of joy after making self-sacrifical choices or a model who did not. Harris (1968), using an age group similar to that of Midlarsky and Bryan, find a difference between the altruistic behavior of children who were exposed to models and praised for their altruism and those who were not. Social models are influential in producing charitable responses in children. It was demonstrated by White and Rosenhan (1966) that the observation of a charitable other will facilitate donations of gift certificates to a fictitious orphanage.

Both on the empirical and theoretical level, it is evident that those people who elicit altruistic behaviors make sacrifices for no apparent material or personal gains. The problem of reinforcement in altruistic behavior is concerned with two basic issues. One is, whether in the absense of positive reinforcement self-sacrifical behavior will be continued. The other issue is concerned with whether the average person includes altruistic behavior another that gain rewards. This second issue is a matter of attribution. There is little or no research which directly concerns attribution of altruism in situations of varying rewards. Kohlberg's (1963) research seems relevant. He outlined three stages in the development of moral judgement:

Stage I:     judgements are made on the basis of the
             hedonic consequences of an act (whether
             it elicits reward or punishment from
             external sources).

Stage II:    morality is a function of the approval
             and disapproval of others.

Stage III:   behavior is judged in relation to internal
             standards of reciprocity and justice.

Berkowtitz (1963) and his colleagues demonstrated that helping

behavior in college students leaned more toward dependent than inde-

pendent others, even though possibilities of rewards were remote.

Schopler and Basteson (1965) replicated their study and also found

that dependency elicits helping behaviors in spite of absence of

externally administered reinforcement.

Huffman (1963) speculated a possible basis in parental treat-

ment concerning the development of "consideration for others" in young

three-year olds.  Using familiar division into affective, conative

and cognitive categories he hypothesized that children will begin to

alter their behavior out of consideration for others to the extent

that they have a generally positive affective orientation toward

others, can control impulses, and are aware of the needs of others.

These prerequisite characteristics Huffman described can be traced

to aspects of child-rearing pattern.  First, positive affective

orientation should result from parental acceptance.  The child given

parental affection and allowed considerable impulse expression is

less likely to be driven by unfulfilled emotional needs and by pent-

up hostility, which could either blind him to the needs of others or

sensitize him to others for his own selfish means. Acceptance from parents generates positive feelings toward himself and others and provides a positive model for the child to identify. Second, the ability to control one's impulses (conative aspect) in consideration for others results from the type of parental discipline which directs the child's attention to the consequences of his action for other people and provides a model in the form of self-restraint. Finally, awareness of others and their needs (cognitive aspect) results from parental discipline that directs attention to the needs of others.

In Huffman's study, data concerning parental treatment were obtained from interviews and direct observation of mother's behavior toward their children. "Scores" were found for acceptance, consequence-oriented discipline, and other oriented discipline. Acceptance was expected to relate positively to the child's general affective orientation of friendliness. Findings suggested four behavior systems in the young child which may be differentially influenced by parental practices: affective orientation, determined mainly by parental acceptance; hostility and related drives, instigated mainly by power assertion; impulse control, fostered mainly by love-withholding disciplines in a non-power assertive context; and consideration for others fostered mainly by other-oriented discipline in a non-power assertive context.

The child at some period of his life experience contradictorily practiced and valued acts of altruism. His acts of kindness are diversely evoked out of fear, obligation, expectations of reward,

wanting to be like the adult, or genuine concern for the person in need. Parents who are concerned about the welfare of others proceed in various ways toward the socialization of their children. Parents typically teach principles of altruism (which one should do and its expected to do) more than model the practices. This is one kind of moral training parents transmit to their children. There is another kind of training which parents teach principles and also exemplify them in living.

Research using adults and older children as subjects have examined variables in the situation or in the person that momentarily alter or govern altrustic responses. Experimental procedures to arouse feelings of guilt (Darlington and Macher, 1966), and obligation (Wilke and Lanzetta, 1970) increased helping reactions from the subjects and resemble processes that could have occurred in childhood and resulted in similarly motivated helping. In a naturalistic study (Rosenhan, 1969) social workers who were more altrusitic reported having closer ties with parents who were themselves involved in altruistic causes. These workers grew up identifying with nurturing, altruistic parent-models.

## Variables Associated with Altruism

The variables associated with altruism can be ordered along two dimensions. The prototypical altruistic situation involves someone who gives (a benefactor), and someone who receives (a recipient). The independent variables then can be divided into those which relate to characteristics of the benefactor, and those which relates to

characteristics of the recipient. It is true that all these variables ultimately affect the benefactor, but this effect is often achieved by altering characteristics of the recipient.

There are four levels of generality which research on altruism has manipulated independent variables (Gouldner, 1960). These levels are:

Level I    Involves temporary psychological states, such as those that accompany experiences of success, failure, dependency interpersonal attraction, and the observation of models. A great deal of research on altruism relates to state variables by which these variables are easily manipulated in laboratory experiments. The state type of variables are largely situational.

Level II    Involves personality traits, such as, cyclothymia, need for approval, and conservatism. These traits seem to correspond to the characteristic states of people. Trait variables examined in studies are usually less manipulatively experimental than those studies which examines state variables. Rating-scales or questionnaires are correlated deriving measures of personality traits with an index of altruism.

Level III    Involves social roles and demographic variables such as social class, age, and sex by which the level of generality is even greater. These variables differ from trait variables because they are more general, permanent, and basically characteristic.

Level IV    Deals with social norms; norms such as the norm of social responsibility and the norm of reciprocity. It can be argued that internalized social norms are too general because they supply no information about the variance of incidences of altruism. Their effect may be of interest only when it relates to temporary states, personality traits, and general social roles.

Age Differences in Altruism

During the preschool years altruism increases, (Gewitz, 1948; Hartup and Keller, 1960; and Walters, 1957). The range of children's ages in the peer group is a situational factor which relates to the frequency of such behaviors. Helpfulness and sympathy are displayed in preschool children much less often than they manifest simple positive social overtures.

Between nursery-kindergarten years and pre-adolescence a marked increase of sharing behavior occurs from age 6 to 8 (Handlon and Gross, 1959; Ugurel-Semin, 1952). The number of pennies given to a partner increased from kindergarten to the fourth grade (Handlon and Gross, 1959). Midlarsky and Bryan (1967) found more self-sacrifical responses made by third and fourth graders in a control condition exceeded that made by first and second graders. It was found that fifth-grade children gave more to charity in a control condition than children in the fourth grade (Harris, 1968). Staub (1968) found an increase in sharing from the fourth to fifth grade after an experience of success, but in the case where the child experienced failure a tendency to decrease in sharing became obvious.

Wright (1942) found also that sharing in children was related to age. In this research, she used thirty-six eight year-olds and thirty-six eleven year-olds. Each child was introduced to eight toys, four of these toys were considered "very attractive." Each child was instructed to share four of these toys with a second child. Responses were categorized into generous, fair, or selfish. The former was more

frequent of the older age group, the latter of the eight year-olds.
Through the first decade of life it is clear that generosity increases
with age. Older children are more generous than younger children because
they may be shifting the basis of moral judgment from a hedonistic
position to one emphasizing social approval (Kohlberg, 1963).

While much of the research relating to age and altruism is not
entirely consistent, there is support in the literature the notion that
altruism increases with age. Some studies have failed to find an age-
dependent increase in altruism when generous models were introduced.
No consistent age-dependent increased in altruism were found in the
modeling conditions in the Midlarsky and Bryan (1967), Aronfreed and
Paskel (1968), and M. Harris (1968) studies. Models seems to influ-
ence younger children more than older children and thereby counter
the effect of a developmental increase in altruism.

## Sex Differences in Altruism

Of 17 studies that examined children of both sexes in relation
to altruism, 11 found no sex differences. Of these studies, two
reported main effects that approached significance ($p < 10$) (Grusec
and Skubiski, 1970; White, 1967).

Studies using nursery school children found no sex differences
in altruism. However, some investigators who used elementary school
children as Ss found a greater incidence of altruism in boys than girls,
and some found the reverse. Fourth and fifth grade girls were more
altrusitic than boys after a few days delay, especially when altruistic
responses were rehearsed (White, 1967). Rosenhan and White (1967)

found a tendency for fourth and fifth grade boys to give more than
girls after prior contact with a female model when the model was not
present during the giving period. There is more in the literature to
support the notion that females are more altruistic than males, how-
ever, these findings are not consistent. There are no clear trends
in the conditions which affect sex differences in altruism in
children.

Findings from various researchers (Coopersmith, 1969 and
Rosenberg, 1965), suggest that children who manifest high self-esteem
think of others also in a positive way. Therefore, it was predicted
that children who viewed themselves in a positive manner would also
be willing to share, rescue, help and sympathize with other children
(i.e., would be more altruistic). In addition, sex differences were
reported by other investigators (Rosenhan and White, 1967), on
altruistic behavior. Although tese findings were not conclusive,
(White, 1967; Grusec and Skubiski, 1970), they lend support for the
predicted results; i.e., girls in the fourth and fifth grade should
tend to be more altruistic than boys.

The following hypothesis were tested in this study:

(1)  Self-esteem will be positively related to altruism
     in fifth-grade children.

(2)  In the fith grade, girls will be more altruistic
     than boys.

## II. METHOD

The subjects were members of two fifth-grade classes in The University Terrace School, a predominately black elementary school in Baton Rouge, Louisiana. All subjects were black and ranged in age from 9 to 11 years.

### Instruments

Self-Esteem:

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) measured self-esteem. The scale (see Appendix A) contained fifty-eight items. The subjects checked "Like Me" or "Unlike Me" for each of the 58 items. The SEI assesses general levels of self-esteem. It has been used on both male and female subjects ranging in age from nine years to adult level. Statements indicative of high self-esteem are: 2, 4, 10, 11, 14, 18, 21, 23, 24, 28, 29, 32, 36, 45, 57. Low self-esteem items are: 1, 3, 7, 8, 9, 15, 16, 17, 22, 25, 30, 31, 35, 37, 38, 39, 42, 43, 44, 46, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 58.

Altruism:

Altruism was measured by the amount of money each S gave to a fictitious "needy child." Each subject was given 23 cents, (2 nickels, 1 dime, and 3 pennies), for performing a task in helping the teacher, who was absent from the situation. The task was to place

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book cards back in 15 books according to authors and titles. When it was completed, the child was awarded 23 cents and invited to contribute some of the earnings to a "needy child." Each S was tested separately.

## Procedure

There were two phases in this study. In the first phase each class answered the Coopersmith self-esteem questionnaire. Pupils were asked to place their full name and sex (boy and girl) on the answer sheet. The following instructions were given:

"If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a check in the"Like Me" column. If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a check in the column "Unlike Me." There are no right or wrong answers."

Those subjects scoring in the upper 15th percentile were considered high in self-esteem and those in the lower 15th percentile low in self-esteem. Eight subjects (4 males and 4 females) were chosen from each of the two extreme groups to participate in the second phase of the study. Table 1 shows their self-esteem means and standard deviations in all four groups.

TABLE 1.--Self-Esteem Means and Standard Deviations

| Self-Esteem Group | Sex | Self-Esteem Mean | Standard Deviations |
|---|---|---|---|
| High | Male | 84 | 6.32 |
| | Female | 85 | 7.61 |
| Low | Male | 32 | 2.82 |
| | Female | 35 | 3.46 |

Examination of the table reveals that both the means and S.D. of males and females high in self-esteem are compatible. The low self-esteem males and females show a similar mean and variability pattern.

The second phase began with the teacher introducing experimenter to subject, saying that the child had been chosen to help with a small job in another room. The child was taken to another room at which time it was explained that "a teacher started putting book cards in the books on the table but was called to the office for important business, however, she asked me to find a person who could finish the job and that she left 23 cents to be paid to you after finishing the job." The child was told that for each book there was a card available with titles and names of authors on them and the job was to place these cards in the books. Each card was to match the title and author on each book. The experimenter left the room after instructions were given. When the task was completed and the experimenter re-entered the room, the subject was awarded the 23 cents.

The experimenter then asked if the subject wanted to share some of the money with a "needy child." The needy child was described to each subject as a poor child who didn't have toys, enough food, nor clothes like other children. A donation box labeled "Needy Child" and an envelope was present in the room. The experimenter explained that if the subject wanted to give anything, to put it in the envelope and drop it in the box. It was mentioned that it did not matter how much was given and that one didn't have to give anything if one didn't

want to.  Experimenter then left the room so the subject could make a decision without additional pressures.  Other envelopes with money in them were planted in the box.

III.  RESULTS

The overall purpose of this study was to examine the relation-
ship between self-esteem and gender on altruism.  The initial subject
pool consisted of 55 black elementary school pupils in a medium size
town in a southern community.  From the initial subject pool of 28
males and 27 females (N=55), two groups were further defined as being
high in self-esteem (4 males and 4 females) and low self=esteem (4
males and 4 females).  These two groups (high self-esteem and low
self-esteem) were further tested for altruism.  It was hypothesized
that:  (a) self-esteem is positively related to altruism in fifth-
grade children; and (b) fifth-grade girls will be more altruistic than
fifth-grade boys.

Table 2 portrays means and standard deviations for gender
and self-esteem in relation to altruism scores.  Examination of this
table reveals a great deal of similarity among all four groups.

TABLE 2.--Altruism, Sex and Self-Esteem

| Self-Esteem Group | Sex | Altruism Score | |
| | | Mean | Standard Deviation |
| High | Male | 10.2 | 8.77 |
| | Female | 14.5 | 6.32 |
| Low | Male | 11.2 | 11.9 |
| | Female | 13.5 | 7.34 |

TABLE 3.--Analysis of Variance:  Altruism, Sex, and Self-Esteem Score

| Score | SS | DF | MS | F |
|-------|-----|-----|------|------|
| Sex | 42.25 | 1 | 42.25 | .56 |
| Self-Esteem | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Gender X | 4.00 | 1 | 4.00 | .053 |
| Error | 911.50 | 12 | 75.90 | --- |
| Total | 957.75 | | | |

With altruism scores as the dependent variable, a 2 X 2 analysis of variance (Table 3) showed that neither gender nor self-esteem had any significant effect on altruism.  Thus neither hypothesis was supported.

# DISCUSSION

This study did not confirm the hypothesis that low self-esteem is associated to low altruism and high self-esteem to high altruism, nor did it find that females scored higher than males in altruism. These negative findings warrant attention to the concept of altruism and its measurement in this study, where altruism was operationally defined as sharing behavior. The concept itself does not entail one single type of behavior but covers a diversity of responses such as helping, defending, rescuing, sympathizing, sharing, and more (Yarrow Scott, and Waxler, 1973). Researchers in the area have been persistent in doing empirical studies where much concern is given to the elicitation of altruistic behavior rather than in examining how these behaviors are learned (Midlarsky, 1968). Although the motivational components involved in the understanding and assessing of altruistic behavior have been somewhat vague, investigators have used a behavioral approach to altruism because of the problems associated with determining thoughts and feelings related to the motivational components of altruism. The motivational definition of altruism is as a helping act which is motivated primarily by the benefactor's anticipation of personal gain from the recipient. On the other hand, a behavioral view of altruism is an any conduct that helps another regardless of the helper's motives. The attention is placed on the actual behavior rather

than the motives involved. There are some problems with the behavioral definition, but it is commonly used in the literature for assessing altruistic behavior. Another major problem mentioned in the literature regarding the concept is the difficulty of defining altruistic acts (Krebs, 1970).

In the present research altruism was defined as sharing behavior; the amount of money given to a fictitious "needy child" was it's measure. The technique itself elicits altruistic behavior, and researchers tend to agree that it is a good tool for measuring altruism, however, this tool also has shortcomings. One basic concern in this study, as in other research on the subject, is that it has been largely experimental, where emphasis is placed on modifying sharing or helping behavior (Yarrow, Scott, and Waxler, 1973). In these experimental situations other problems are generated, for situations are typically created where the child has to share something earned in a game with an abstract person or group. This sharing, though interpreted as altruistic behavior, may not validly measure altruism. All instances of sharing is not altruistic. That is to say, the elicitation of sharing behavior does not suggest the child is altruistic.

Still another problem exists where the experimenter may have unintentionally influenced the child's responses to these abstract others. When the child is asked, "would you like to share some of your earning with a needy child?" the investigator has to make his story as convincing as possible. Such verbal expressions may promote impersonal acts of altruism, and they usually momentarily govern the child's altruistic behavior. But, stronger signs of altruism might

have been observed, if the recipient was actually present in these situations, so that the needy child was face-to-face with the potential benefactor. Strong incidence of altruism was found in situations where there were some direct contacts between recipient and benefactor (Aronfreed and Paskal, 1966; Midlarsky & Bryan, 1967; and Yarrow, Scott, and Waxler, 1973).

As mentioned earlier, most empirical studies on the subject have been devoted toward the elicitation of altruistic behavior rather than the learning processes involved for understanding the origins and development of the phenomenon. Future research should examine some of the early developments of altruistic behavior and how such behaviors are enchanced. Until these areas are investigated the incidence of altruism will remain unclear.

# SUMMARY

This study was an attempt to examine the relationship between self-esteem and gender on altruism, i.e., subjects scoring low on self-esteem inventory would expected to obtain significantly lower altruism scores than those subjects with high self-esteem scores and boys lower scores than girls. The testing instrument for measuring self-esteem was the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory. A behavioral measure for altruism was developed by the author.

The self-esteem inventory was administered to pupils in two fifth grade classes in Baton Rouge, Louisiana. Those subjects scoring in the upper 15 percentile were considered high in self-esteem (4 males and 4 females), whereas those scoring in the lower 15 percentile were considered low in self-esteem (4 males and 4 females).

These high and low self-esteem subjects were also tested for altruism by awarding them 23 cents for doing a small task and asking them to donate some of the earnings to a "needy child."

It was hypothesized that: (a) Subjects scoring low in self-esteem on the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory would score low on the behavioral measure for altruism. (b) Females would be more altruistic than males in both high and low self-esteem groups. Results did not provide support for either of the hypotheses.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY

Please mark each statement in the following way:

If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a check ( ) in the column "Like Me."

If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a check ( ) in the column "Unlike Me."

There are no right or wrong answers.

|  | | Like Me | Unlike Me |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | I spend a lot of time daydreaming. | _____ | _____ |
| 2. | I'm pretty sure of myself. | _____ | _____ |
| 3. | I often wish I were someone else. | _____ | _____ |
| 4. | I'm easy to like. | _____ | _____ |
| 5. | My parents and I have a lot of fun together. | _____ | _____ |
| 6. | I never worry about anything. | _____ | _____ |
| 7. | I find it very hard to talk in front of the class. | _____ | _____ |
| 8. | I wish I were younger. | _____ | _____ |
| 9. | There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could. | _____ | _____ |
| 10. | I can make up my mind without too much trouble. | _____ | _____ |
| 11. | I'm a lot of fun to be with. | _____ | _____ |
| 12. | I get upset easily at home. | _____ | _____ |
| 13. | I always do the right thing. | _____ | _____ |
| 14. | I'm proud of my school work. | _____ | _____ |
| 15. | Someone always has to tell me what to do. | _____ | _____ |
| 16. | It takes me a long time to get used to anything new. | _____ | _____ |
| 17. | I'm often sorry for the things I do. | _____ | _____ |
| 18. | I'm popular with kids my own age. | _____ | _____ |
| 19. | My parents usually consider my feelings. | _____ | _____ |
| 20. | I'm never unhappy. | _____ | _____ |

|  | Like Me | Unlike Me |
|---|---|---|

21. I'm doing the best work that I can.
22. I give in very easily.
23. I can usually take care of myself.
24. I'm pretty happy.
25. I would rather play with children younger than me.
26. My parents expect too much of me.
27. I like everyone I know.
28. I like to be called on in class.
29. I understand myself.
30. It's pretty tough to be me.
31. Things are all mixed up in my life.
32. Kids usually follow my ideas.
33. No one pays much attention to me at home.
34. I never get scolded.
35. I'm not doing as well in school as I'd like to.
36. I can make up my mind and stick to it.
37. I really don't like being a boy (girl).
38. I have a low opinion of myself.
39. I don't like to be with other people.
40. There are many times when I'd like to leave home.
41. I'm never shy.
42. I often feel upset in school.
43. I often feel ashamed of myself.
44. I'm not as nice looking as most people.
45. If I have something to say, I usually say it.
46. Kids pick on me very often.
47. My parents understand me.
48. I always tell the truth.
49. My teacher makes me feel I'm not good enough.
50. I don't care what happens to me.
51. I'm a failure.
52. I get upset easily when I'm scolded.
53. Most people are better liked than I am.
54. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me.
55. I always know what to say to people.
56. I often get discouraged in school.
57. Things usually don't bother me.
58. I can't be depended on.

# APPENDIX B

## SELF-ESTEEM AND ALTRUISM RAW SCORES

| Self-Esteem | Altruism | Sex |
|:---:|:---:|:---:|
| 88 | 15 | F |
| 82 | 23 | F |
| 82 | 12 | F |
| 70 | 8 | F |
| 80 | 3 | M |
| 86 | 8 | M |
| 78 | 23 | M |
| 92 | 7 | M |
| 32 | 8 | F |
| 34 | 23 | F |
| 40 | 13 | F |
| 34 | 10 | F |
| 34 | 23 | M |
| 26 | 2 | M |
| 32 | 0 | M |
| 36 | 20 | M |