EMPATHY IN THE CONTEXT OF PRESCHOOL

FRIENDSHIPS

By

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ABSTRACT

Sixty hours of observations were conducted in three preschool settings to examine 4-year-olds' spontaneous empathic responses to their crying peers. Children's responses to distressed peers were recorded into a micro-cassette player and later transcribed onto paper. A sociometric assessment was given to each child to determine their friends and social status. It was expected that the popularity of children and the number of reciprocal friendships would predict empathic behavior. Also, it was expected that the presence of a teacher would predict the frequency of empathic behavior.

The statistical analyses showed that popularity, reciprocal friendships, and teacher absence did not predict higher frequencies of empathic behavior; however, qualitative observations showed that young children did behave empathically to their peers. Often, teachers responded so quickly to distress that children did not have a chance to initiate empathic responses, and further, may not have felt responsible to do so.

Empathy in the Context of Preschool Friendships

The present study examined 4-year-olds' spontaneous empathic responses to the crying of peers in three child care settings. Naturally occurring crying episodes present unique scenarios to record children's empathic responses. Previous work in the study of empathy has focused on children's elicited responses by showing video tapes or photographs of children in distress (Feshbach & Roe, 1968; Borke, 1971; Deutch, 1974; & Pearl, 1985).

In the majority of previous studies, the children were shown video tapes or pictures of distressed peers and asked to label the emotions, and then tell how it made them feel. Although early empathy tests did not look at empathy in a naturalistic setting, the results provided valuable information. For the most part, these tests indicated that young children could label emotions, especially explicit emotions such as happiness and sadness. Laboratory tests used to elicit children's emotional responses provide little information about how children respond to emotions in a natural setting; therefore, a purpose of the present study was to examine empathy, or shared emotion, occurring between crying children and their peers in a preschool setting.

Two previous studies observed children's spontaneously occurring emotional behavior in natural settings. Phinney, Feshbach, and Farver (1986) examined the responses of 2- to 4-year-olds to their crying peers. Their findings showed that even these very young children responded to 20% of crying episodes by approaching, consoling, or chastising. In a similar study, Caplan and Hay (1989) interviewed 3- to 5-year-olds when a peer cried in the classroom. The findings were that children were very accurate in labeling emotions and suggesting intervention strategies (e.g. "Make him feel better" or "Put a band-aid on"). It is still unclear how children go about labeling and responding to emotions in a naturalistic setting. There is a lack of descriptive information concerning empathic behavior in a natural setting. Besides the lack of descriptive information, there is no clear information about what motivates young children's empathic behavior (Eisenberg & Mussen, 1989).

Possibly, teacher behavior hinders children's empathic responses. Teachers respond to children's distress so quickly that children do not have a chance to initiate empathic responses. Because teachers respond so quickly and consistently, children may not feel it is their responsibility to respond to the distress of their peers. In Caplan and Hay's study (1989), 92% of the children said that they thought teachers were responsible for helping

children in distress. The remaining 8% said "mom" should help a distressed

peer. Caplan and Hay (1989) also found that teachers usually responded to

distressed peers in less than ten seconds, therefore, teachers have many

opportunities to model empathic responses. No studies have specifically

examined the frequency of empathic behavior when a teacher is not at the

scene to respond.

Children's friendships could also motivate empathic behavior.

Emotional interactions have been cited to occur more often between friends,

than non-friends. For example, Brachfeld-Child and Schiavo (1990) found

that 4- to 6- year-olds were more involved and emotionally expressive when

playing games with friends than they were with non-friends. Also, several

studies indicate that preschoolers spend more time playing with their

friends than other classmates (Vespo, 1987; Hartup, Laurenson, Stewert &

Eastenson, 1988).

One study done with fourth graders found that children who had more

reciprocal friends (pairs of children who chose each other on a friendship

rating), were more empathic based on the Feshbach and Roe Test for Empathy

(FASTE; Feshbach & Roe,1968). Possibly, the reason no similar studies have

been conducted with young children is because there is research which

suggests that young children's friendships change on a daily basis (Selman,

1979). Even if young friendships vary, Selman (1979) states that 4- to 6-year-old children desire to have a playmate so much that many would prefer to play with someone they do not particularly like rather than play alone. Children, as well as adults, have a desire to maintain friendships. Eisenberg and Mussen (1989) suggest that young children respond empathically to friends in order to maintain their friendships. How often children's friendships change may vary, but what is clear is that friendships are an important part of young children's lives. No research has examined friendship or popularity as possible motivators for empathic behavior among preschoolers.

The purpose of this study was to examine the empathic responses (observing, reporting, and comforting) of 4-year-olds to peers in distress. It was expected that popularity (number of times chosen as a friend on the sociometric assessment) would significantly predict a higher frequency of empathic responses to peers who were crying. It was also expected that children having a higher number of reciprocal friends (children who chose each other as a best friend on the sociometric assessment) would significantly predict a higher frequency of empathic responses. Finally, it was anticipated that teachers' absence at the scene of a crying child would significantly predict a higher frequency of empathic responses by peers.

Method

Subjects

The subjects in the present study were 35 4-year-old children (16 girls
and 19 boys) enrolled in a university lab school and two private preschools.
The three preschools had play-based curricula and served families in the
surrounding middle class community. The children ranged in age from 48
months to 56 months (M=52). A consent letter was sent to each parent
requesting permission for their child to participate. Those who returned the
consent form were included in this study.

Procedures

Naturalistic Observation. The purpose of the observations was to
record the empathic responses of peers and teachers who were within
hearing and seeing distance of a child who cried. Children were observed in
outdoor play to maximize collection of crying and responding. Phinney,
Feshbach, and Farver (1988) reported that children were involved in more
accidents and aggressive disputes outside than during inside free play. Each
setting was observed for a total of 20 hours. The outdoor area was scanned
until a crying child was observed. The investigator recorded who was crying,

why they were crying, and the exact words and actions of children and

teachers within hearing or seeing distance of the child in distress. The

information was spoken into a micro-cassette tape recorded and later

transcribed. For example:

> C and S are running from a group of children chasing them. C falls
> down on the cement. A teacher runs over to the scene. S points to a
> group of children and says, "They were being mean to us and hurt us.
> ─Here they come now." A teacher examines C's knee. S leans down and
> looks closely at C's knee. The teacher says, "Do you feel better?" C
> does not respond. S says, "Here they come?" C and S take off running.

Sociometric Assessment. A Sociometric Assessment developed by Asher,

Singleton, Tinsley, and Hymel (1979) was used to identify children's friends.

Test-retest reliability for the sociometric was calculated by Howes (1988)

with a sample of approximately 100 4-year-olds in a 3-year longitudinal

study and was found to be 0.78.

The procedure for administering the assessment began when a familiar

investigator took each child into a room and had them identify pictures of all

the children in the study. Then children were asked to point to their three

best friends who they liked to play with the most and then three people they

did not care to play with at all. After all the children had finished, the

number of times each child was chosen as one of a classmates three best

friends was tallied. The number of times each child was chosen as one of the three whom classmates least liked to play with was also tallied.

The children were also given a status score which was the number of times nominated as a best friend minus the number of times chosen as a least-liked peer. Children who were chosen more times as a least liked friend than a best friend were given a score of 1. Children who were chosen more times a best friend that a least-liked friend were given given a score of 2

Coding

Categories for Causes of Crying. Categories similar to those used by Phinney, Feschbach, and Farver (1986) were formed for causes of crying, peer responses, and teacher responses. First, every response from all of the above categories was written down. Similar responses were grouped together to form smaller categories which will be described below. Causes of distress were grouped into three categories: object dispute, aggression, and accident and were coded in the following way:

(1) **Object dispute** was coded when the cry resulted from a dispute over an object, territory, or role in play. (Object dispute was coded when a child cried because she wanted a toy that another was using.

Territorial dispute was when a child was in an area and did not want anyone else in the area. Fighting over a role in play was considered when two children wanted to be the ghost buster, for example, and one cried when she did not get to take the role.)

(2) **Aggression** was coded when the cry resulted from name calling, hitting, kicking, or throwing sand. (In a similar study conducted by Phinney, Feshbach, and Farver (1988), aggression was defined as verbal or physical assault. A more narrow definition was used in this study which included only the types of aggression exhibited during the study.)

(3) **Accident** was coded when a child fell or was hurt unintentionally by a peer. (For example, when a child cried when she got her finger run over by a wagon pulled by another child.)

Categories for Empathic Responses to Crying. Empathic responses were also grouped into three categories. Although preconceived categories were not formed, the present categories were similar to those used in a study done by Phinney, Feshbach, and Farver (1986). The categories were called observer, comforter, and reporter and were defined in the following way:

(1) **Observer** was coded when children were within 3 feet of the crier and watched the crier or looked toward a teacher to respond. (For example, a child cried and a nearby peer bent down and looked at her or looked toward a teacher to see what the teacher would do.)

(2) **Comforter** was coded when the child offered verbal or physical assistance to a peer in distress such as apologizing or giving hugs, kisses, or objects. (For example, a child cried and another child offered her a favorite baby doll.)

(3) **Reporter** was coded when the child asked questions such as , "What happened?" or told a teacher or peer the "who, what, why, or where" of an incident. (For example, a child cried and a peer reported to a teacher, "I saw Jim hit her in the sandbox because she wanted the truck.")

Teacher Responses to Crying. Teacher responses to peers in distress were grouped into five categories very similar to those used by Phinney, Feshbach, and Farver (1986). The categories used in the present study were teacher absent, teacher observes, teacher mediates, teacher questions, or teacher consoles and were coded in the following way:

(1) **Teacher absent** was coded if the teacher was physically absent from the crying episode.

(2) **Teacher observe** was coded when the teacher was aware of the crying and observed the scene while children worked out the problem.

(3) **Teacher mediates** was coded when the teacher attempted to get the children who were involved in the crying incident to work out the problem or to apologize.

(4) **Teacher questions** was coded when the teacher asked the children in or around the scene questions such as: "What happened?", "What can we do to work this out?", "Who hit her?", or "Why did you dump sand in her face?"

(5) **Teacher consoles** was coded when the teacher physically or verbally comforted the child by hugging, holding, or offering words of comfort.

Narrative Coding. Each narrative was examined and pertinent information was recorded on a summary sheet devised for each child (See Appendix D). After all the narratives were examined, each child's summary sheet contained the following information: (1) Total frequency of crying; (2) Causes of each cry; (3) Total empathy score (total frequency of observing,

reporting, and comforting); (4) Frequency for each category of responses: observing, reporting, and comforting; and (5) Teacher responses to the particular child when in distress.

Reliability

Reliability for the recording of narratives was assessed between the two investigators recording the narratives. Each observer recorded the same ten narratives, and the narratives were independently coded. All reliabilities were calculated by a ratio of agreements in coding to number of disagreements. Reliability for recording the narratives was taken three times during the study and each time yielded 100% agreement.

Reliability for coding of narratives was calculated on 10% of the narratives 3 times during the study and inter-coder reliability ranged from 85% to 100%. Narratives were randomly chosen and the two trained investigators coded the narratives separately and then compared their results.

Results

The results will be presented in the following order: preliminary analyses to examine gender and setting effects; primary analyses to examine

popularity, reciprocal friends, and teacher absence as predictors of the frequency of empathic responses. Statistical analyses were performed using the SAS (Statistical Analyses System) computer program. The code book, child summary sheet, raw data, and frequencies will be presented in appendices C, D, E, and F respectively.

Preliminary Analyses

An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test was conducted to examine the relationship of gender to the frequency of empathic responses. A total of 16 males and 19 females were observed in the three settings. No significant results were found for gender, $F(1,33) = 1.48$, $p = 0.23$; therefore, gender was not considered as a variable in further analyses.

Insert Table 1 about here

The three settings were similarly compared using an analysis of variance for the frequency of empathic responses. Significant differences were found among the three settings, $F(2,32) = 12.6$, $p = 0.0001$. As can be seen from Table 2, setting 3 was significantly different. Because the mean of setting 3 was extremely different from the other two settings, a post hoc analysis was not conducted.

Insert Table 2 about here

As a result of these findings, setting 3 was omitted from the study; only settings 1 and 2 were used for the remaining analyses.

Primary Analyses

Popularity and Status

The primary method of analyses for the study was regression analyses. Initially, popularity (the number of times each child was chosen by classmates as a best friend) was tallied for each subject. The possible range of scores was from 1 (chosen by one person as a best friend) to 6 (chosen by six people as a best friend). When popularity was used to predict empathy, the results were not significant, $F(1,21) = 2.32$, $p = 0.14$, $R^2 = 0.10$. These results are shown in Table 3 which shows the results for all the regression analyses.

Insert Table 3 about here

When status (the number of times a child was chosen as a friend minus the number of times chosen as not a friend) was used to predict empathy, the results were also not significant, $F_{(1,21)} = 1.69$, $p = 0.21$, $R^2 = 0.07$.

Reciprocal Friends

Each child was given a score for the number of times he/she chose a person as a best friend who also chose him/her as a best friend. The possible range of scores was from 0 to 3. When reciprocal friendship was used to predict empathy, the results were not significant, $F_{(1,22)} = 0.12$, $p = 0.73$, $R^2 = 0.01$.

Teacher Absence

Out of 127 crying episodes, teachers were only absent 12 times. Teacher absence was not a significant predictor for the occurrence of emapthy, $F_{(1,21)} = 0.34$, $p = 0.56$, $R^2 = 0.02$.

Discussion

The phenomena of empathy is enormously complex and difficult to study (Eisenberg & Mussen, 1989). There is an ongoing debate over the definition and measurement of empathy. Historically, researchers have debated

whether emapthy results from affective arousal (feeling with another person), cognition (labeling and understanding another's emotions), or both (Strayer, 1987). As a result of the debate over definition and measurement of empathy, the empirical data is very limited (Eisenberg & Mussen, 1989). Since empathy is difficult to study, it is not disheartening that there were no statistically significant findings in this study. The descriptive information gleaned from this study indicates that young children do respond to the distress of peers.

The descriptive information recorded during this study contains valuable information regarding children's emotional behavior. Crying occurred 126 times in two settings, the average being 2.1 cries per hour. The same average number of cries per hour was reported in a similar study done by Phinney, Feshbach, and Farver (1986). Crying episodes served as unique scenarios to examine empathic responses. The specific empathic responses of children in the present study will be described in detail below. The categories for empathic responses used in this study were similar to those used in the study done by Phinney, Feshbach, and Farver (1986). The impact of popularity, reciprocal friendships, and teacher proximity on empathy will also be discussed.

Empathic Responses

Observer

Young children are very curious about the emotions expressed by their

peers. Often children stopped playing and watched what was happening to

peers who were crying. Observers, defined as children who were within 3

feet of a crier and simply watched or directed their gaze toward a teacher to

help, accounted for 56% of the total empathic responses. In a similar study,

Howes and Farver (1987) reported that bystander observations accounted for

45% of the total responses. Usually, the observers were bystanders who

were not involved in causing the distress. For example, E never cried during

the study or caused another child to cry; however, she carefully observed

others crying 19 times during the study. E spent most of her outside time

engaged in solitary play, but whenever she heard crying, she would curiously

walk over and watch the situation.

The high frequency of children observing peers crying indicates that

children are curious and interested in the emotional expressions of others.

Crying episodes provide the opportunity for children to watch peers and

teachers respond to the distress of others. It was observed that children

would imitate a peer's empathic response to a crier:

M fell down on the cement. L was walking by and said, "What
happened?" M does not respond. L now leans down and pats M.
Then she puts both arms around him and gives him a hug. K has been
watching, and she leans down and gives M a hug.

F and E were at the scene when K fell down and cried. F patted him and
said, "I bet that hurt." E watched F and then bent down and gave K a big
hug.

Teachers have many opportunities to model emotional responsiveness.

The interest and attentiveness to how teachers comfort a crying child may

be reflected in children's attempts to respond to crying. Some very

interesting responses were recorded where children imitated adults, for

example:

B runs into M with the wagon. M starts to cry. J approaches and says,
"Hey, B and M can we settle this?" Then R continues the attempt to
mediate by saying, "B, why did you run into M?" B says, "Because he
threw sand at me earlier." R reasons out loud, "So, if you don't throw
sand at B then he won't hit you with the wagon."

A teacher is holding K because he is crying. L approaches and says
to K, "What happened?" K ignored L. L says, "You don't want to talk
about it?"

D is fighting with L over a toy stove. J is watching the scene. A
teacher approaches and J says to the teacher, "Just say, who had it
first."

A teacher removes F from a situation because she scratched a friend.
F looks up at the teacher and says, "I am very, very angry. I have not
had much rest."

L is trying to get away from the teacher when she is talking to him about not throwing shovels. C approaches and says to L, "Like my dad says, take a long walk on a short pier."

K approaches a younger peer and jumps up and pretends to punch him. SB is sweeping nearby and says in a loud voice, "YOU LEAVE HIM ALONE; HE IS JUST A LITTLE BOY." SB pats the little boy and repeats the above four times in a strong voice. She finally goes back to her sweeping and yells out, "I AM WATCHING YOU."

Comforter

Children offered hugs, kisses, pats, or objects to crying peers in 25% of

the observed episodes. A similar study reported that comforting accounted

for 20% of the total responses (Howes & Farver, 1988). When children

comfort, they go beyond observing or reporting the facts by taking action to

alleviate distress. Here are some examples of children comforting their

peers:

A teacher is holding J, who is crying because K said, "I don't want to be your friend." K watches her cry and runs to her locker and comes back with J's favorite doll saying, "Here J, do you want your baby?" At the same time E brings a picture she has drawn to a teacher and says, "Will you give this to J? She is sad."

M is crying and he says to B, "You hurt me; you stepped on my foot." B gets down and kisses M's knee. B says, "Is it broken? I kissed it for you." Then B holds out a little animal and shakes it at M which makes him laugh.

A falls and bends down to see his wound. A teacher approaches and says, "Do you need a band-aid?" R comes running up with a roll of

masking tape and says, "No, no we can put some tape on it." Then R comments, "Poor A, he better not run today."

Reporter

The reporter would either ask questions such as, "What happened?" or would spread the word about the who, why, what, or when of a crying episode to surrounding teachers. Reporting accounted for 19% of the total responses. Likewise, Howes and Farver (1987) reported that children offering information to a teacher about a distress episode accounted for 20% of the responses in their study. Child reporters wanted to know "What happened?" For example, J touched a crying child's arm and said, "What? What is it? What happened?" It is interesting to note that teachers were observed saying the exact words, "What happened?" to crying children 35 times during the present study. Quite possibly children may be modeling the teachers when they request the "cold facts" of a crying episode.

Upon arriving at the scene of an incident, teachers often ask questions. In order to make sense of a situation they did not see, teachers often asked "What happened?" and continued asking questions in order to mediate the situation. Teachers typically used questions to mediate a situation of distress.

L hits a little boy with a shovel and makes him cry. A teacher approaches and comforts the little boy while asking L, **"What happened?"** L looks down and does not respond. The teacher says, **"Are you upset?"** L says, "It was an accident." Teacher, **"How did you hurt him?"** L says, "I was running with a shovel." Teacher, **"So, your body did not hit him, but your shovel did?"** Teacher points to the scratch on the boy and L looks and then glances down. Teacher, **"Can you tell him you are sorry?"** L squirms around and refuses to apologize. Then another child approaches and says, **"What happened?"**

According to Kostelnik, Stein, Whiren, and Soderman (1988) bombarding children with questions is not the best way to find out about children's emotions. Instead, a teacher could verbally recognize the emotions a child may be feeling without forcing any certain responses from the child. For example, a teacher might say to a child who does not want to share a bike, "You wish you could ride that bike all day; it is frustrating when you have to share something you really enjoy."

Children often offered information about an incident to an approaching teacher without being prompted. Young children may feel more responsible to tell the teacher who did it and how it happened, than to actually comfort the victim themselves. Four-year-olds in the present study were able to interpret what happened and verbalize relevant information to a teacher. Below are some examples of children reporting the facts:

M hits A on the back. A teacher approaches. A yells from the climber, "M did it. He hit her on the back."

R is on the cement crying when a teacher approaches and lifts her up. A says, "She fell. I saw her."

R hits Re with a play horse and she cries. A teacher approaches and K says, "R hitted her. He wanted the horse, and she would not get off."

Sometimes children reported that superheroes were responsible for the distress which children caused. Superheroes provide an escape for taking responsibility in causing a peer's distress. Interestingly, children seem to be empowered to behave with distinct patterns when re-enacting superhero episodes. According to Carlsson-Paige and Levin (1990), when children engage in superhero play they imitate what they see or hear from the media instead of using their own creative ideas, props, characters, and story plots to play. Below are some examples of superhero play taken from the observations done in the present study :

> M and A are pulling the wagon and bump into F. F cries and the teacher comforts her. M and A say, "We were Ninja Turtles, so we did not mean to push her."

> B throws sand at P and runs to hide. P cries. The teacher gets B and asks if he has something to say to P. B says, "I am Batman, and Batman throws sand." P says, "You hurt me." B ignores this and says, "P, are you Joker?"

> L and J were playing Ninja Turtles and covering up C in a barrel. C gets scared and starts to cry and a teacher comforts her. J approaches and says, "I don't know what happened. Ninja Turtles are good. I don't know why they did something to C. Maybe they thought she was a pizza. They didn't have pizza, so they made pizza out of children."

G and M are fighting over a steering wheel while playing Ninja Turtles. M pushes G's hands away from the wheel. A teacher approaches and M says, "We were playing Turtles and Leonardo is supposed to drive." The teacher says, "No matter what the Turtles do, at school we share."

Superheroes possess powers that children wish they had in their own lives (Kostelnik, Whiren, and Stein, 1986). Superheroes can solve every problem and overcome any obstacle. When children role play a superhero, they can avoid responsibility and school rules because in their eyes superhero power exceeds every day responsibility. In effect, superhero play is a way for children to transform themselves into more powerful roles than they have in every day life (Kostelnik, Whiren & Stein, 1986). Sometimes children may use superhero characters to rationalize their own behavior. Children know that they should not hit their friend, so they transform into superheroes and then hit and say the superheroes did it. Possibly, when children transform into a superhero character, empathic behavior is less likely to be exhibited. The only exception is when the child transforms into a superhero who helps others. Carlsson-Paige and Levin (1990) suggest teachers and parents do not ban superhero play altogether, but instead help children see how superheroes have feelings and often use their power to help other people in distress.

Popularity and Empathy

Popularity was measured in this study by a commonly used sociometric assessment (Asher, Singleton, Tinsley & Hymel, 1978). Results indicated that popular children, or children chosen most frequently as a "best friend", did not respond empathically more often then less popular children. No other studies have examined overall popularity as a predictor of empathic behavior.

Popularity is difficult to measure with young children using a sociometric assessment. One reason may be that young children are often encouraged by parents and teachers to be friends with everybody. The biggest concern parents had with the sociometric assessment used in this study was that they did not want their child to single out peers they liked and did not like for friends. Parents wanted their child to be friends with everyone, not to choose certain people they liked the best or least. When adults encourage children to have everyone for a friend, it denies children's real emotions (Kostelnik, Whilen & Soderman, 1988). In reality, liking someone for a friend is not something that can be demanded.

Another reason popularity was hard to measure in preschoolers was that children had a difficult time choosing only three best friends. One

comment was, "I want to pick all of them. Can I pick more?" Another child

said, "I have a bunch of best friends and you know it. I love them and they do

love me." Other comments about choosing friends ranged from very

simplistic reasons such as, "I like him a little bit because he said please one

day" to comments indicating a very cherished relationship such as, "I like E.

She is not like anybody else. She just likes me."

Children gave very specific reasons for not choosing certain people as

friends. Children perceived as naughty, mean, or aggressive were not chosen

by their peers as friends. Children were able to distinguish qualities they

did not want in a friend, but had a hard time choosing just three people they

wanted for best friends. Typical comments about children not chosen for

friends were:

"She hits me, you better not go close to her."

"I do not like him. He is the meanest."

"He is naughty to me."

"I do not like him. He always knocks down my buildings."

In this study there was not anyone who was never chosen as a friend.

Hayes, Gershman, and Bolin (1988) suggest that young children choose

friends they like on the basis of mutual activity, proximity, and physical

possessions. It may be that young children choose friends on the sociometric

based on who has the latest toy or likes to do the same activities, rather than on internal qualities such as emapthy.

One other aspect of the sociometric assessment done in this study is that the range for number of times chosen as a friend was only 1 to 6. In addition, there was nobody who was not nominated at least once as a best friend. With only 15 or 20 children per class and a small range for number of times chosen as a friend, it is unclear whether the results of the sociometric measure truly made a distinction between popular not popular children.

Reciprocal Friendship and Empathy

Number of reciprocal friends did not statistically predict the frequency of empathic behavior. Simply measuring the number of reciprocal friendships did not tap into the quality of empathic exchanges that occurred between two children who chose each other as a best friend on the sociometric assessment. It is important to note that according to descriptive data, approximately 40% of the crying episodes were responded to by observing, comforting, or reporting the facts by a reciprocal friend. In a similar study, children were three times more likely to respond to a teacher identified friend than other classmates (Howes & Farver,1987). In

the future, reciprocal friendships may be best identified by observing dyads

or triads of children who frequently engage in play. Reciprocal friends were

observed to respond to each other's distress in this study, for example:

> K, A, and R are playing together. K begins to cry and says to a teacher, "R won't be my friend or play with me." K walks over and sits on a big mat still crying. R then leaves her play and approaches K saying, "Peek a boo, I'm ready to play with you now K." K smiles. R lays on the mat and kicks up her feet while giggling, and K does the same.

> K is working hard to put all the magnets in a bowl. R and F approach and start taking the magnets out of the bowl. K cries and stomps her feet saying, "You are not my friend." K leaves. R says to F, "Lets put them back so she'll be our friend and so she won't be mad. We don't want her to be mad, do we?" Then R runs after K and says, "I won't mess up your magnets any more."

Reciprocal friendship pairs appear to be dynamic dyads in which empathic

behavior is exchanged, and should be the basis for further study on the

occurrence of empathic responses.

Teacher Proximity and Behavior

Teachers were very involved in the crying episodes of peers. Of 162

episodes of crying, a teacher was at the scene 93% of the time. In their

concern for children's safety and well being, teachers responded very quickly

to distress. Similarly, Caplan and Hay (1989) found that teachers usually

responded to children's distress in less than ten seconds. Teachers

responded quickly, and children indicated that they thought a teacher should take the action to comfort a crying peer, for example:

> S is standing on top of a structure crying, "Teacher, teacher." E comes to the observer and says, "S needs some help." Observer says, "You could help her." E responds, "No, only a teacher needs to help her."

> M and Mi are fighting over the wagon and M begins to get angry and cry. A teacher is standing near observing the situation. A yells to the teacher, "Don't just stand there, do something!"

> M calls F a "pooker" and F cries. A looks at the nearest teacher and says, "Teacher, she is hurt."

> S approaches a friend crying and says, "L hit me." The friend responds, "Did you tell the teacher?"

Children know how to respond to others in distress, but they may perceive the teacher to be responsible for comforting peers in distress. Howes and Farver (1987) suggest that teachers might, within reasonable safety limits, delay intervening into peers interactions and give children time to respond to the incident themselves. A teacher might monitor, but not stop a toy struggle that results in a child producing an emotional display for the partner to interpret and respond.

Teachers need to be more aware of how they are dealing with the distress of peers. In this study, teachers often insisted that children apologize and when that did not work, teachers would tell children what to say, for example:

J is running after L with her arm up ready to hit him. A teacher approaches and says, "What happened?" J says, "First he hit G and then G fell down." Teacher says, "What happened after that?" J says, "He pinched me and I pinched back." The teacher says to L, "Why did you pinch?" L ignores the teacher. Teacher replies, "If you don't tell people why you do things, it confuses people." Then the teacher says, "J tell him you are angry." J says to L, "I am angry." The teacher says, "Say, I don't like being pinched." J repeats what the teacher told him. The teacher then tries to get L to apologize, but he will not.

Children were forced to apologize when they clearly were not sorry. According to Kostelnik, Stein, Whiren, and Soderman (1988) young children may think that apologizing takes care of everything; therefore, they can behave however they want to as long as they are willing to apologize in the end. Instead of being forced to apologize, children should be encouraged to volunteer behavior which benefits others. Children can sooth the victim, get a wet paper towel for a bruised knee, or repair a broken object. According to Hendrick (1984), children can understand the physical acts of helping to heal a wrong before they understand the true significance of apology.

Summary and Conclusions

In summary, the present study demonstrated that young children do respond empathically to their peers in a naturalistic setting. Although results were not significant for predicting empathy from popularity, number

of reciprocal friends, or teacher proximity, the descriptive data provided support for the empathic responsiveness of young children.

Young children do respond to others in distress. Various types of responses were displayed in the present study. Children were observed watching an episode, reporting the facts of an incident, seeking a teacher for help, and putting their own comforting skills into action. Furthermore, many of these responses occurred between children who chose each other as friends on the sociometric assessment. Reciprocal friends were observed responding to each other's distress in unique ways and these dyads should be the basis of further study on children's emotional development.

Popularity, or being chosen many times on the sociometric, was not related to the frequency of empathic behavior. Children had a hard time choosing which friends they liked the most and even children who were not chosen as popular by the group were observed responding with empathy to their individual friends. Popularity may not be related to frequency of empathic responses, or a sociometric assessment may not be the best way to measure popularity in preschoolers.

Teachers' behavior toward distress situations was equally interesting. Teachers responded very quickly to distress and took control of situations by asking a lot of questions, insisting on apologies, and comforting victims.

Out of 162 distress episodes, the teacher was only absent from the scene 12 times. In the future, teachers could be asked to delay their responses to see how frequently young children would initiate empathic behavior when a teacher was not present.

Future Research

Several factors should be considered in future studies examining empathy in young children. The frequency of crying varied in different settings; as such, settings should be selected to insure a large sampling of children from settings with relatively equal crying frequencies. Instead of a sociometric assessment, behavioral observations could be a more valid way to determine children's reciprocal friends. Peers who spend the most time playing together might reciprocate higher frequencies of empathic responses than children who spend less time playing together. Reciprocal dyadic friendships or small clusters of friends may excercise more empathy in order to maintain positive interactions during play.

Finally, individual differences in teacher responses to distress would be interesting to examine in future studies as would the various ways teachers try to mediate distress situations. Factors to consider in relation to teacher responses might be teaching experience, beliefs about handling

children's distress, and beliefs about young children's ability to show

empathy and help others in distress.

APPENDIX A

LITERATURE REVIEW

LITERATURE REVIEW

Interest in the Study of Empathy

The study of empathy in preschoolers has developed from some interesting roots. Borke (1971) contends that early interest in the study of empathy may have stemmed from the desire to challenge Piaget (1967). According to Piaget (1967), children are primarily focused on themselves and unable to take another's point of view until approximately seven years old; therefore, children should not be capable of empathy until a certain age. Borke reasoned that Piaget's findings concerning the egocentrism of young children may have resulted because the tasks used to measure perspective taking were too demanding for the cognitive ability of the young child. A picture-story test was then developed by Borke (1971) which was cognitively appropriate for a child as young as three years old. The results of Borke's study (1971) were that children as young as three showed an awareness of others' feelings and could identify certain situations which make people happy, sad, angry, or afraid. Consequently, most developmental

researchers now agree that preschoolers are capable of responding to the emotional cues of other people (Strayer, 1987).

Definition of Empathy

Historically, empathy has been defined either as a cognitive or as an emotional construct (Strayer, 1987). When empathy is defined by cognition, the emphasis is on taking the role of another person (ie,the general ability to understand others' thoughts and feelings, Caplan & Hay, 1989). Using a cognitive definition of empathy suggests that genuine empathy is unlikely to occur prior to the late preschool years because infants and toddlers are viewed as lacking the ability to take the role of another (Thompson,1987). However, infants as young as nine months have been found to show rudimentary forms of empathy, such as crying when other children cry or hurts themselves (Hoffman, 1975; Thompson, 1987).

Because the growing body of literature supports the notion that very young children are capable of expressing rudimentary forms of empathy, some researchers define empathy as the response to an emotional stimulus (Feshbach & Roe, 1968; Hoffman, 1984; Strayer, 1987). For example, a toddler may witness a peer crying and offer the child a teddy bear. According to an emotional definition of empathy, the above example would be

considered empathic because the toddler is aroused by the peer's crying to offer comfort. When empathy is defined from an affective perspective, emotion is the stimulus which evokes empathy, not the ability to take the role of another person. Instead of viewing empathy from strictly a cognitive or affective perspective, several models will be described which emphasize the importance of emotional arousal and cognitive development in empathy.

Models of Empathy Development

There are three models of empathy development which will be reviewed briefly. In the first model, Strayer (1987) suggests that empathy is first initiated when attention is caught by a stimulus, such as crying or yelling. The empathy process continues as children project what is happening to the distressed victim into themselves, and try to imagine what the other person is feeling. At this point children try to relate what is happening to others to the experiences they have had before. Lastly, children create some type of psychological distance in order to clearly separate what is happening to the distressed victim and their own situation, and at this point empathic behavior may occur. In this model the process of empathy begins when children's attention is caught by a salient stimulus and continues as the child tries to imagine what the person in distress is feeling. The children

try to relate the distress witnessed to their own emotional past and finally create a distance from the distress in order to make a decision on how to react to the individual in need. Young children may be especially aroused by salient emotional cues from others in distress. Older children can also rely on role taking and past experience to relate to another's distress. Basically, in this model affect and cognition play different roles in the development of empathy according to the child's developmental level.

Hoffman (1984) has proposed another theory on empathic development which involves both cognitive and affective aspects. The central idea of Hoffman's theory is that empathy occurs as a reaction to the affective state of another person and also depends on children's cognitive sense of another being distinct from themselves. Thus, very young children can react to the distress of another such as when an infant cries upon hearing another child cry. Then, as children develop and gain a better sense of themselves, as separate from those around them, they can offer comfort to another in distress. Hoffman's (1982) theory is appealing because it is based on the emotional arousal of witnessing someone in distress, and his model views the process of empathy as changing with development and cognitive ability. For example, toddlers may cry when another child falls down, but an older child might offer assistance and help the child up.

Another model of empathy was developed by Feshbach and Kuchenbecker (1974). The first two components in the model are cognitive in nature. First, children must be able to discriminate between emotional states, such as happiness and sadness and must be able to label emotions in order for empathy to occur. Second, the child must be able to take the role of another person. Third, the child must have the emotional capacity and ability to respond to the person in distress. This model is fairly demanding because children must have the capacity to discriminate between emotions and label them before responding to them. Although these models are still fairly speculative, because of the nature of studying internal emotional processes, it is clear that both affect and cognition play a role in the development of empathy.

Measurement of Empathy

Picture-Story Indices

The most common form of empathy measurement in young children has been picture-story indices (Eisenberg & Mussen, 1989; Strayer, 1987). Picture indices of empathy present children with a series of story narratives. The characters are usually portrayed by drawings, photo slide, or

videotapes in contexts likely to evoke fear, sadness, or other emotions. For each narrative the child is asked to label the character's emotion (cognitive dimension). Children are then asked to report any emotion they may feel (affective dimension). Credit for empathy is given when the child reports that they feel the same (highest score) or similar (fewest points scored) to the character in the story (Strayer, 1987).

Feshbach and Roe (1968), Borke (1971), Deutch (1974), and Pearl (1985) all developed similar picture-story indices to use with young children and all came up with similar conclusions. When emotional cues were explicit, such as happy or sad, the children could depict the emotion felt by another easier than less explicit cues such as fear and anger. The blatancy of cues appears to be important for young children to depict emotional states, according to general results of picture-story indices.

This form of measurement taps on the dimensions of cognition (ability to label emotions as seen being experienced by a character in a picture) and affect (reporting the emotion the child feels while viewing the story character) in an experimental study, but gives little information about the occurrence of empathy in a naturalistic setting.

Moreover, there are several other drawbacks with using picture-story indices (Strayer, 1987). One limitation is the likelihood that children's

emotions cannot be shifted so quickly from one story to the next, which is required when using this type of measurement. Another limitation of picture-story indices is that the emphasis in scoring is on a direct match between the story characters emotion and the children's reported emotion. Children who see a slide depicting another's fear and report the slide is showing sadness may be just as empathic as children who report a direct match between emotion.

In conclusion, picture-story indices request children's emotions to be shifted too quickly from one story to the next, and they also demand a direct match between the story character's emotion and the children's reported emotion, in order for the children to be considered empathic. Picture-story indices give very little information concerning children's empathic behavior in a naturalistic setting. In order to better understand empathic behavior occurring in real-life situations, naturalistic studies need to be performed.

Naturalistic Observation

A few studies have observed children's spontaneous, naturally-occurring emotional behavior in preschool settings. For example, Phinney, Feshbach, and Farver (1986) examined preschooler's responses to peers who cried. Findings were that causes of crying were most often peer related and

peer responses to crying were usually comments, stares, approaches, or attempts to console the crying peer.

A naturalistic study done by Strayer (1980) noted that preschoolers responded to about forty percent of the observed emotional displays in the classroom with empathic responses. Happy and sad displays of emotion occurred most frequently and were responded to more frequently than other affect displays.

Another study of emotional behavior in preschoolers was done where the children were interviewed when someone in the class was displaying any type of outward emotion. Conclusions in this study were that children were very accurate in identifying the causes for another's emotions and also in suggesting intervention strategies which were consistent with the type of emotion expressed (Fabes, Eisenberg, McCormick, & Wilson, 1988). Although this study suggests that preschoolers can identify causes of distress and intervention strategies, it does not give information on the actual empathic behavior occurring in the classroom.

Furthermore, in a study done by Caplan and Hay (1989), three, four, and five year old children were shown a video tape of a child in distress. They found that the majority of children identified very appropriate ways to offer help a distressed peer (e.g. 'make him feel better'; 'put a band-aid on').

Responses to a final question concerning who was supposed to help a peer in

distress revealed that ninety-two percent of the children thought that a

teacher should be the one to offer assistance. The remaining eight percent

thought 'mom' should help a distressed peer. None of the preschoolers thought

that they themselves should aid the distressed peer. Also, when these

children were observed in a naturalistic setting, they seemed to pay

attention to a peer in distress, but rarely intervened to help the person.

Results of this study suggest that although preschoolers are capable of

coming up with appropriate ideas to help a distressed peer, they do not

always respond to the emotions of their peers in a naturalistic setting.

Caplan and Hay (1989) contend that children, like many adults, may not be

able to mobilize their care-giving skills in an emergency situation or are not

convinced it is their responsibility to do so. It may be that teachers respond

so quickly to emotional displays that peers don't have the opportunity to

express their empathy. Caplan and Hay (1989) found that teachers usually

reacted to distressed children in less than ten seconds. Consequently, when a

teacher is near a distress situation or any type of emotional display, a child

bystander may be less likely to feel impelled to react empathically. Thus,

the present research seeks to examine whether a teacher's proximity to the

emotional displays which happen in the room affects children's tendencies to show empathy.

Naturalistic methods of studying empathic behavior have provided some interesting data. The studies reviewed above demonstrate that young children are capable of suggesting intervention strategies to aid another in need, and can be observed carrying out these strategies in a naturalistic setting. What has not been examined is whether empathic behavior is more common between friends, who share an affective bond or by children considered popular by classmates. According to Feshbach (1982), little is known about the relationship of empathy to children's friendships.

Friendship in Young Children

The Occurrence of Friendship in Preschoolers

The ability of young children to develop friendships has been investigated through direct observation in a number of studies. In one study, Howes (1983) defined friendship as an affective tie between two children which involves mutual preference, mutual enjoyment, and the ability to engage in skillful behavior. Using the above definition, Howes (1983) did systematic observations of toddler and preschool groups of children. Results

suggest that young children formed friendships and were capable of maintaining these friendships over a year's time. Furthermore, Rizzo (1988) reported that out of a sample of fifty-two, three to five year-olds, forty-eight of them had at least one friend they played with more than other classmates. In addition to these findings, a recent two year longitudinal friendship study reported that two to four year-old children who maintained initial reciprocal friendships (both choosing each other as a friend on a sociomentric measure) over time also had greater ease entering groups, interacted in more social play, and showed more cooperative play patterns, according to teacher reports.

Interactions Among Preschool Friends

There also appears to be a definite difference between the way children interact with friends and non-friends. For example, Masters and Furman (1981) found that preschool friends, compared to non-friends, engaged in a higher rate of interactions and produced and received more positive, reinforcing, and neutral behaviors. In another study by Brachfeld-Child and Schiavo (1990), four to six year-olds were examined playing games with friends and then with acquaintances. Friends were rated by observers as

being more involved, more emotionally expressive, and more competitive than acquaintances.

In addition to distinct behavioral interactions occurring between friends, several studies also contend that preschoolers spend more time with their friends than other classmates. One study reported that by about three years old, eighty percent of the children had a specific person with whom they spent thirty percent of their preschool time (Hinde, Titmus, Easton, & Tamplin, 1985). In a similar study done by Hymel, Hayvren and Lollis, (1982), half of the preschoolers initiated play with one of their top three friends more frequently than with other classmates.

Recently two other studies have demonstrated a relationship between friendship status and time spent in social interaction. Vespo (1987) did sociometric interviews in eight preschool classrooms to identify friendships. Social interaction was then observed for six weeks Individual children were found to interact significantly more with those chosen as friends, than other children. In the second study, Hartup, Laurenson, Stewert, and Eastenson (1988) compared the average percentage of time children spent with their three most preferred friends with time spent with the other classmates. Results showed that children spent significantly more time with best friends than other children. As the research above demonstrated,

preschoolers spend more time with classmates designated as friends than other children.

Concepts of Friendships

Several studies have been done which focus on young children's conceptions of friendship. For example, Hayes, Gershman and Bolin (1988) asked preschoolers why they liked their best friends. The responses commonly given were mutual activity, propinquity, physical possessions and affection. Another study done by Furman and Bierman (1983) using open-ended interviews found preschoolers gave similar reasons to those listed above for choosing friends.

In addition to the reasons preschoolers can articulate for choosing their friends, Vespo (1989) contends that children's friendships serve as context in which complex social processes can be performed. For instance, four year-olds' interactions with friends have been found to play a special role in conflict management (Hartup & Moore, 1990). Conflicts between friends were found to be less heated, more likely to end in compromise, and friends were not as likely to end the current interaction. Furthermore, Ladd (1990) found that kindergartners who had friends they knew from preschool in their class had an easier time adjusting to school. Those who maintained

these relationships liked school better throughout the year. The evidence

implies that preschool friendships are a unique context for gaining skills in

conflict management and also for easing the transition to kindergarten.

Moreover, the present research will investigate empathic behavior as

another social construct which may occur between preschool friends.

Empathy, Friendship, and Social Status

Empathy and Reciprocal Friendships

Reciprocal friendships may be a unique dyad to study the occurrence of

empathy. Children who choose each other as "best friend" or second "best

friend" in the sociometric assessments (Asher et al, 1979) are considered

reciprocal friends. Feshbach (1982) suggests that the awareness of others'

feelings may be an important component in both empathy and the ability for

children to form reciprocal friendships. Consequently, reciprocal friendships

may be a dyad especially conducive to the occurrence of empathic behavior.

One study examined reciprocal friendships and empathy in older children.

Fourth graders who were rated as highly empathic on a picture-story

indice of empathy also had more reciprocal friendships (Cain &Clark, 1987).

Therefore, highly empathic children may also have more reciprocal friends.

Since Cain and Clark's (1987) study was done with older children, a purpose of the present research will be to examine the relationship between the number of reciprocal relationships that preschool children have and the frequency of empathic behavior.

Empathic Behavior in Popular and Less Popular Children

The social status of preschoolers may give insight into children's tendencies to behave empathically, although popularity has not been specifically examined in relation to naturally occurring empathic behavior. According to Berndt and Ladd (1989), popularity is being liked or accepted by one's peer group. The popular child is widely characterized as being friendly, and socially competent in initiating and maintaining social interaction with other children (Hartup, 1983; Eisenberg & Mussen, 1987). Popular children, or children others chose as "liking a lot" on sociometric assessments, were found to be children who classmates enjoy playing with, who showed affection, and who willingly adhered to their requests (Asher, Singleton, Tinsley, and Hymel, 1978). In addition to the above qualities of popular children, Guralnick and Groom (1988) found that preschoolers who were well-liked were more socially interactive with other peers in general, and also were more aware of how to approach someone in need (Hartup, 1983). In

addition to these findings, a study of social status done by Rizzo (1988) with three to five year-olds suggested that popular preschoolers assumed a more active role in their friendships, initiated more interactions, and suggested more activities. It is clear that popular children have certain qualities which help them interact successfully in their social world.

Children who are less popular have been found to spend more time with the teacher or in solitary play are also known to display more antisocial, disruptive, and inappropriate behavior than other children (Hartup, 1983). Furthermore, Ladd (1990) suggests that young children who are less popular with their classmates have difficulty finding play partners, and spend more time going from activity to activity in search of a playmate. In addition to these findings, Howes (1988) reports that less popular children are more often rebuffed when trying to enter play groups. Consequently, preschoolers who are less popular may not have the appropriate social skills to engage in positive interactions with their peers. Although frequencies of several prosocial behaviors in less popular children have been addressed, the frequency of empathic behavior from less popular children has not been specifically addressed.

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APPENDIX B

LETTERS TO PARENTS

AND IRB APPROVAL

OSU

Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF FAMILY RELATIONS
AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT
COLLEGE OF HOME ECONOMICS

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

Dear Parents,

I am a graduate student in the Department of Family
Relations and Child Development at Oklahoma State University. I
will be conducting an investigation on: Empathy in the context
of preschool friendships. I am working on this project under the
direction of JoAnn Farver, Ph.D., my graduate advisor.

The purpose of this letter is to request permission for your
child to participate in this research.

(1)   During this research I will be <u>observing each child
      during</u> naturally-occuring freeplay in the classroom.

(2)   Each child will be asked to divide photographs of their
      classmates into four groups: ones they (1) want as a
      friend alot; (2) want as a friend pretty much; (3) want
      as a friend only a little bit; and (4) don't want this
      person as a friend at all.
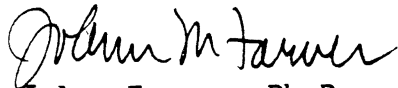
Black and white head shot photographs will be taken of each
child in the class. They will be kept in a locked filing cabinet
during the study and removed only during the research procedure
by the principle investigator or the graduate assistant. At the
completion of the study the photographs will be completely
destroyed.

If you have any questions concerning this research project
please contact Dr. JoAnn Farver, HE 226C, Family Relations and
Child Development. For information regarding the legal rights of
research subjects you may contact Terry Macuila in the Office of
University Research Services, 001 Life Sciences East, Oklahoma
State University, (405) 744-5700.

CENTENNIAL
1890 · 1990

Celebrating the Past   Preparing for the Future

Please return the attached consent form to the preschool and in a box labeled "OSU research" by October 1st. The study will begin during mid-October. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

JoAnn M Farver

JoAnn Farver, Ph.D.
Project Investigator
Assistant Professor
Department of Family Relations
    and Child Development

Wendy Branstetter

Wendy Branstetter
Graduate Student
Department of Family Relations
    and Child Development

jj

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I, _____ , hereby authorize
my child _____ to participate in the
research project conducted by JoAnn Farver, Ph.D. in the Child
Development Labs.

I understand that my child will be:

1)   observed in the lab in naturally occurring
     freeplay six separate times during the school
     year,

2)   videotaped playing with a same age friend in the
     CDL labs for about twenty minutes,

3)   asked to complete a creativity task (which will
     take about 10 minutes),

4)   asked to group photographs of children he/she
     prefers to play with and those he/she prefers not
     to play with.

I understand that I will be asked to complete a
questionnaire about my child's temperament and a questionnaire
about my understanding of children's play activities (completion
will take about 30 minutes).

I understand that all of the information gathered on my
child will remain confidential and my child will not be
personally identified in this study. A code number will be
assigned to my child and this code number will not be used for
identification purposes. I understand that the findings of this
study will be reported for the group and not for the individual.

I understand that the purpose of this procedure is to
collect information for an investigation entitled "Individual
differences in young children's social pretend play with same age
peers." The purpose of the study is to understand how children
express pretend play in different ways.

I understand that participation is voluntary, that there is no penalty for refusal to participate, and that I am free to withdraw my consent and participation in this project at any time without penalty after notifying the project director. I may contact JoAnn Farver for further information about this research project at (405) 744-5057. I may also contact Terry Macuila, University Research Services, 001 Life Sciences East, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078: Telephone: (405) 744-5700.

I have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. I understand that I will be given a copy of this consent form.

Signed: _____
            (signature of subject's parent)

Child's name: _____

Date: _____

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
FOR HUMAN SUBJECTS RESEARCH

Proposal Title: Individual Differences in Young Children's Social

Pretend Play with Peers

Principal Investigator: JoAnn Farver

Date: July 24, 1990   IRB # HE-91-001

This application has been reviewed by the IRB and

Processed as: Exempt [ ] Expedite [X] Full Board Review [ ]

              Renewal or Continuation [ ]

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s):

        Approved [X]   Deferred for Revision [ ]

        Approved with Provision [ ]   Disapproved [ ]

Approval status subject to review by full Institutional Review Board at
next meeting, 2nd and 4th Thursday of each month.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Reason for Deferral or
Disapproval:

Note the typos on the Informed Consent Letter!

Signature: _____ Date: August 28, 1990
           Chair of Institutional Review Board

APPENDIX C

CODE BOOK

CODE BOOK

1	Child	1-3
2	Sex	4
	1 male	
	2 female	
4	School	5
	1 lab	
	2 Meth	
	3 Presb	
5	Totcry	6-7
6	Causeobj	8
7	Causeagg	9
8	Causeacc	10
9	Empathy	11-12
10	Emob	13-14
11	Emcom	15-16
12	Emnews	17-18
13	Teachnon	19
14	Teachobs	20
15	Teachque	21

CODE BOOK (continued)

16 Teachmed 22

17 Teachcon 23

18 Friend 24

19 Nofriend 25

20 Status 26
   (F-NF)

APPENDIX D

CHILD SUMMARY SHEET

CHILD SUMMARY SHEET

Child ID Number_____

1. Total frequency of crying_____

2. Causes of distress

   1.
   2.
   3.
   4.
   5.

5. Number of times target child responds to others in distress (empathy score)_____

6. Frequency of empathic responses:

Observer:

News Reporter:

Comforter:

7. Specific teacher responses to target child in distress

APPENDIX E

RAW DATA

RAW DATA

Subject	Gender	School	Totcry	Causeobj	Causeagg	Causeacc	Totemp	Emob	Emcom	Emnews
43	1	1	3	1	1	1	9	6	2	0
44	1	1	4	1	2	1	14	4	2	8
45	1	1	4	0	1	3	5	1	3	1
46	2	1	0	0	0	0	11	6	3	2
49	2	1	10	3	5	2	10	7	2	1
52	2	1	1	1	0	0	10	6	4	0
53	1	1	10	5	3	2	9	4	3	2
54	1	1	10	2	4	4	5	4	0	1
56	2	1	11	2	6	3	5	1	3	1
57	2	1	3	0	2	1	11	8	2	0
86	2	2	0	0	0	0	21	19	1	1
96	1	2	7	1	1	5	1	2	0	0
90	2	2	2	0	1	1	9	3	3	4
95	2	2	9	1	4	4	3	3	0	0
88	1	2	7	0	5	2	7	3	0	0
93	1	2	8	2	3	3	8	0	2	3
84	2	2	0	0	0	0	14	6	5	3
85	1	2	14	7	3	4	14	1	0	1
94	2	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
87	2	2	6	2	1	2	7	4	1	2
89	2	2	8	1	3	4	8	7	1	0
91	1	2	8	0	7	1	8	0	7	1
92	1	2	2	0	1	1	10	4	2	4
70	1	3	3	0	2	1	1	0	0	1
71	1	3	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	0
72	1	3	2	0	1	1	1	0	1	0
73	1	3	0	0	0	0	4	3	0	1
74	1	3	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
75	1	3	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
76	2	3	1	0	0	1	5	5	0	0
77	1	3	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	2
78	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
79	1	3	10	3	3	4	1	1	0	0
81	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
82	2	3	2	1	0	1	4	3	0	1

RAW DATA (Continued)

Subject	Teachnon	Teachobs	Teachque	Teachmed	Teachcon	Friend	Nofriend	Recip	Status
43	0	1	0	1	0	3	1	0	2
44	0	0	0	2	2	5	0	3	2
45	0	1	1	1	3	3	4	2	2
46	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	2	2
49	1	2	2	2	1	5	1	2	2
52	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1
53	2	0	6	6	3	6	3	0	2
54	2	1	3	3	2	2	2	-1	1
56	0	1	4	4	4	4	1	1	2
57	0	0	1	1	3	3	0	1	2
86	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	2	2
96	0	0	4	4	1	1	4	0	1
90	0	0	1	1	2	1	1	1	2
95	0	0	2	2	5	5	0	1	2
88	0	0	3	3	3	3	3	2	2
93	0	0	6	6	5	2	6	0	1
84	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2
85	0	1	9	9	5	1	1	1	2
94	0	0	0	0	0	5	1	3	2
87	3	0	1	1	1	2	0	1	2
89	1	0	3	3	2	1	5	0	1
91	2	1	1	1	3	4	2	3	2
92	1	0	1	1	0	5	1	1	2
70	1	0	1	1	2	3	3	2	1
71	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	2	2
72	1	1	0	0	0	2	4	2	1
73	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	2	2
74	2	0	0	0	0	3	0	3	2
75	0	0	1	1	0	4	0	2	2
76	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2
77	0	0	0	0	1	1	3	1	1
78	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	2
79	2	1	6	6	1	1	2	0	1
81	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2
82	1	0	0	0	0	6	1	3	2

APPENDIX F

FREQUENCIES

FREQUENCIES
(N=23)

Source	Frequency	Percent
Total cry	126	–
Cause object	29	23
Cause aggression	53	42
Cause accident	44	35
Total empathy	184	–
Empathy observe	103	56
Empathy comfort	46	25
Empaty reporter	35	19
Total teacher responses	162	–
Teacher absent	12	7
Teacher observe	8	5
Teacher question	40	5
Teacher mediate	57	5
Teachcon	45	8

TABLES

TABLE I

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TOTAL

EMPATHY BY GENDER
(N=35)

Gender	Total Empathy Score				
	X	SD	df	F	P
Girls	9.16	5.21	1	1.50	0.23
Boys	8.18	3.81			

TABLE II

FREQUENCY OF TOTAL EMPATHY BY SETTING
(N=35)

Setting	Total Empathy Score				
	X	SD	df	F	P
I	8.91	3.03	2	12.64	0.0001
II	8.54	5.53			
III	1.75	1.71			

TABLE III

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR EMPATHY,

FRIENDSHIP AND TEACHER ABSENCE

Setting	Total Empathy		Teacher Absent		Friends		Reciprocal Friends		Status	
	X	SD	X	SD	X	SD	X	SD	X	SD
I	8.91	3.03	0.50	0.85	3.50	1.51	1.30	0.95	1.80	0.42
II	8.54	5.53	0.54	0.97	2.54	1.66	1.15	1.70	1.77	0.44
III	1.75	1.71	0.67	0.78	2.58	1.50	1.59	1.00	1.67	0.49

CDL (N=10), Meth (N=13), Presb (N=12)

TABLE IV

LINEAR REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR

TOTAL EMPATHY SCORES
(N=23)

Source	df	F Value	Prob.	R^2
Popularity	1	2.32	0.14	0.10
Status	1	1.69	0.21	0.07
Reciprocal Friends	1	0.12	0.73	0.01
Teacher Absence	1	0.34	0.56	0.02

VITA

Wendy Sue Husby

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: EMPATHY IN THE CONTEXT OF PRESCHOOL FRIENDSHIPS

Major Field: Family Relations and Child Development

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Menomonie, Wisconsin, July 5, 1967, the daughter of Paul and Patty Husby.

Education: Graduated from Weatherford High School, Weatherford, Oklahoma, in June, 1985; received Bachelor of Science Degree from Oklahoma State University, in May, 1989; completed requirements for the Master of Science degree at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, in May, 1991.

Professional Experience: Lead teacher, OSU Child Development Laboratory, Stillwater, Oklahoma, 1989 to present; Early Childhood Ecology Institute Instructor, University of Houston at Victoria Center for Children, Victoria, Texas, Summer 1990; Hands-On Science for Young Children Seminar Leader, OSU Child Development Laboratory Annual Mini-Conference, 1990; Member of National Association for the Education of Young Children, Oklahoma Association of Children Under Six, Phi Kappa Phi.