Development of an Indigenous Scale on Altruism in Urdu

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PAPER INFO

ABSTRACT

The present study focused on the development of an indigenous scale on altruism in Urdu language. With the help of literature, expert point of view and personal observation, the initial draft of items was prepared. Pilot study was conducted to see the effectiveness and length of the item pool. Then exploratory factor analysis was conducted through SPSS 22 and Principal Component Analysis was applied. The results of the analyses revealed a three-factor model with a 0.89 internal consistency. Overall, findings established the scale's usefulness in research and for practical purposes.

Introduction

Auguste Comte, a French sociologist, was the first to coin the term altruism (Rushton & Sorrentino, 1981), who claimed that humans had fundamental sympathetic drives. Altruism has piqued the interest of numerous disciplines since then. There were roughly 1,000 published reports on altruism by 1982 (Batson, 1998). As reported by Lee, Lee, and Kang (2003), the research on altruism included a wide range of topics, including (a) altruistic personality traits (Oliner & Oliner, 1988), (b) situational elements underlying altruistic behavior (Miller & McFarland, 1987), and (c) motivational and affective components of altruistic behavior (Grusec & Redler, 1980; Eisenberg, 1986). On the other hand, Altruism can also be seen as internal, external, or both in nature (Bierhoff, Klein & Kramp, 1991; Feigin, Owens & Goodyear-Smith (2014).
Theoretical understandings of human altruism as possessing underlying selfish drive were overshadowed by early evolutionary theories (Feigin, Owens & Goodyear-Smith, 2014). The concepts of group and kin selection (Hoffman, 1981) inclusive fitness (Rushton & Sorrentino, 1981; Hoffman, 1981; Hamilton, 1964) and reciprocal altruism (Trivers, 1971) were presented. Altruism, according to these beliefs, is ultimately selfish because it improves one's genetic fitness. The assumption that all human motivation is essentially selfish or egotistical encouraged the development of these biological and evolutionary theories, which in turn informed some early psychological theories, such as those based on psychoanalysis (Batson, 1991; Batson, 1987). As a result, human nature is hedonistic, intending to obtain pleasure while avoiding pain (Bar-Tal, 1985-1986). The notion that all human drive is essentially selfish has long held sway (Hoffman, 1981), but the opposite proposal that unselfish motivation aimed toward benefiting the 'other' rather than the 'self' was initially referred to as 'benevolence' (Hume, 1986). Auguste Comte distinguish this type of altruistic motivation from selfish motivation (Comte, 1851).

Thus, there are two primary approaches to study altruism in social psychology as reported in Bar-Tal, D (1985-1986): (1) the behavioral approach and (2) the motivational approach. The first method focuses on the consequences of the behaviors: the recipient's rewards and the helper's costs. The second approach to study altruism focuses on how and why the helping behavior is produced, rather than just the behavior or its outcomes (Rushton, 1980).

The behavioral approach is explained in the light of existing theories. According to the stage theoretic approach, people go through multiple phases of ethical development (Kohlberg, 1984) with cognitive-structural development (Krebs & Hesteren, 1994) serving as the primary source of change. A truly altruistic deed is a developmental success that can only be achieved at the end of a developmental stage or when maturity increases (Krebs & Hesteren, 1994; Bar-Tal, Sharabany & Raviv, 1982). Whereas from the standpoint of social learning, our moral reactions are acquired through the 'rules of learning,' (Rushton, 1982). Besides, observational learning aids in the internalization of values (Sorrentino & Rushton, 1981; Aronfreed, 1970; Grusec, 1981; Dovidio & Penner, 2004). Shared group expectations about ethical behavior and social rewards impact moral responsibilities or norms, which differ from person to person (Schwartz, 1977; Schwartz & Howard, 1982; Schwartz & Howard, 1981; Sorrentino & Rushton, 1981). In essence, people are socialized to adopt the social responsibility standard and to assist others (Berkowitz & Daniels, 1963; Berkowitz, 1972). Similarly, fairness and the drive to regard the world as 'just' are related to this. These are key notions in Lerner's proposed "just world theory" (Lerner, 1977, 1980). According to this hypothesis, everyone believes that the world is fair and that people get what they deserve. As a result, people assist those who have assisted them rather than those who have refused to assist (Gouldner, 1960). In addition, personal norms have a significant impact on both cognitive and affective functioning. People may, for example, have expectations of behavior based on personal standards and feel emotions (such as guilt) when they meet or fail to achieve these (Dovidio, 2004). In this regard, the bystander effect is a key factor to
study altruism (Latane & Darley, 1969). Bystanders justify their actions by determining which option (helping or not helping) will result in the best potential outcome for them. Bystanders are more inclined to help if they see it as a method to further their personal growth, feel good about themselves, or escape the guilt that comes with not helping. In addition, when there is a risk factor, others are believed to be able to help, and/or norms permit, responsibility is more likely to be diffused (Piliavin, Dovidio, Gaertner, & Clark, 1981; Dovidio, Piliavin, Gaertner, Schroeder & Clark, 1991). Audience inhibition can also occur, in which a bystander is prevented from participating due to fear of embarrassment or poor appraisal (Latane, Nida, & Wilson, 1981). Besides, altruism is driven by a reduction in unpleasant arousal or tension, according to the arousal-reduction and negative state relief models (Batson, 1991; Cialdini et al. 1987; Batson, 1987; Piliavin, Dovidio, Gaertner, & Clark, 1981; Schaller & Cialdini, 1988). Witnessing another’s suffering creates negative emotional arousal, which can be lessened by assisting the sufferer (Dovidio & Penner, 2004; Piliavin, Dovidio, Gaertner, & Clark, 1981; Batson, 1990). Similarly, cost-benefit analysis directs the observer’s activities to help. According to the cost-reward paradigm, watching another’s misery causes unpleasant empathic arousal in the observer, which motivates the observer to minimize it (Piliavin, Dovidio, Gaertner, & Clark, 1981, 1982). Thus, the bystander is motivated to respond by empathic arousal (Dovidio & Penner, 2004).

The second (altruistic) approach maintains the notion of 'genuine' altruism as Comte meant (Batson, 1987). Motivation is directed toward the end aim of boosting another's welfare, and any feelings of self-reward or reduction of personal distress are by-products of this (Batson, 1987). Thus, the presence of an 'altruistic personality' type and a 'trait' of altruism becomes possible (Staub, 1978; Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin & Schroeder, 2005; Rushton, 1981). Empathy, proper behavior norms, and a desire to experience cognitive and affective empathy are all reasons that underpin the 'altruistic personality' (Dovidio, Piliavin & Schroeder, 2005; Rushton, 1981). However, proponents of the 'altruistic personality' define an altruist as someone who has higher standards of justice, social responsibility, moral reasoning modes, and is more empathetic to others' feelings (Rushton, 1981). As a result, it is recognized that a variety of factors might influence altruistic behavior (Feigin, Owens & Goodyear-Smith, 2014). Regardless of the distinctions in altruism's nature and procedure, the result is the same: it facilitates helping behaviors and social responsibility (Rushton et al.,1981). Because there are no set parameters under which this conduct must be carried out in certain situations, it could be selfless, directed, situational, motivating, or a personality feature (Battool, Tariq, Akhtar & Elahi, 2019). Previously, researchers have explored the construct of altruism and reported its link with psychological characteristics like psychological well-being (Khadim & Shahid, 2017) and belief in a just world (Shah & Ali, 2012). Furthermore, the indigenous findings highlighted a number of elements that could influence pro-social behavior, including contextual and situational needs, morality/religious perspective, social norms, cultural practices, risk ratio, and relationship types (Asif, Munir, Muneeb, & Naeem, 2013; Tabassum & Khalid, 2016). Similarly, Nadeem and Haroon (2019) established that
individualistic cultures have more intercultural sensitivity and benevolence than collectivist societies.

The study of Hao and Du (2021) revealed that preschoolers are motivated to help others for both altruistic and egoistic reasons. The majority of the motivational effects were consistent across age groups; however, the motivational effect of empathetic concern grew noticeably at the age of five. Therefore, it is assumed that a truly altruistic act is a developing with mental achievement, possible only in the final developmental stage or with increasing maturity (Bar-Tal, Sharabany, & Raviv, 1982; Krebs & Hesteren, 1994). In addition to this, according to the researchers (Ottoni-Wilhelm, Estell, & Perdue, 2014), parents’ role modeling and dialogues about giving and volunteering were found to be associated with adolescent giving and volunteering.

Moreover, to measure altruism, some researchers developed self-report measures. For instance, Hussain (1999) developed the Altruistic Behavior Adaptation and Validation Scale for evaluating unselfish or altruistic conduct. The Altruism Instrument for Adults, developed by Lee et al. (2003), an 18-item self-report scale assess teachers’ altruistic behaviors, which included four elements (daily helping, social responsibility-sharing, emergency assistance, and donating). In addition, the 7-item Generative Altruism Scale (GALS) was designed by Bussing, Kerksieckb, Guntherc & Baumann (2013) to investigate the link between altruism and the development of ethical ideals and prosocial behavior. The Altruism Scale for Children (ASC) was created by Swank et al. (2019). A one-factor model with an internal consistency of 0.89 and test-retest reliability of 0.94 was discovered during the analysis. Within the Pakistani socio-cultural setting, Batool et al. (2019) created and validated a 24-item altruism scale. The results of the exploratory component analysis indicated four domains: emergency assistance, monetary/emotional assistance, social duty, and general assistance. As reported in the above literature most of the scales of altruism were developed by foreign authors and few available indigenous scales were also adapted from western altruism instruments. Batool et al. (2019) developed an indigenous self-report scale to measure altruism using the sample of students only. They recommended to develop a scale that can measure altruism in the general population with diverse age groups and different settings. Hence, the current study was designed to develop an indigenous scale that can measure altruism in the general population.

Material and Methods

Participants

This research aims to include different categories of people n=40 including educationist, doctors, businessmen, students from different government and private organizations to establish a tool by using a phenomenological approach for the construction of item pool. Data was collected from a sample of n=200 individuals. Another sample to established reliability and validity of the scale was included n=400 individuals. The age range criteria of the participants was above 18 years.
Item Generation and Procedure

The process of item generation was conducted in multiple phases. The first phase comprised of reviewing the literature related to the construct. The second step involved gathering information from literature, experts, doctors, psychologists, businessmen and students from different settings. Forty experts from different fields were given open-ended questions. In those questions, they were asked about altruistic behaviors and other questions to inquire how they have seen the altruistic behavior in their day-to-day practice and experience. Permission was taken from the head of departments or the concerned body via the proper channel. In the 3rd step, after collecting immense data related to altruism from literature and experts, a large number of item pool was created. The first item pool was reviewed by institutional experts and further categorized. After compilation and construction of the first draft of the scale, a pilot study was carried out to see the effectiveness of the items, difficulty level of the items and length of the items. In the initial draft 60 items were reduced to 32 items.

In the 4th step, this raw scale was administered to 200 participants for a tryout to see the effectiveness of the items. Subsequent changes were made and after finalizing the items statistical analysis was applied to finalize the item pool. Then exploratory factor analysis was conducted through SPSS 22 and Principal Component Analysis was applied. Items that were significantly correlated with each other were selected for the final scale; this process established the internal consistency as well. Eagan value, commonalities and rotated component matrices were also established in this regard. The EFA showed that this scale contains three subscales. The names of the subscales were selected through literature research. During factor analysis, the items reduced to 20 as final scale.

Results and Discussion

| Table 1 | KMO and Bartlett’s Test |
|---------|-------------------------|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy | .904 |
| Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 1258.947 |
| Df | 190 |
| Sig. | .000 |

A test of sphericity was conducted on 32 items, the result of KMO was reliable and its value was .90, which is above the required value of .59. Furthermore, the analysis of sphericity was also significant.
Table 2

| Item No. | Rotated Component Matrix | Item No. | Rotated Component Matrix | Item No. | Rotated Component Matrix |
|----------|--------------------------|----------|--------------------------|----------|--------------------------|
| 1        | .662                     | 8        | .489                     | 15       | .642                     |
| 2        | .576                     | 9        | .656                     | 16       | .633                     |
| 3        | .535                     | 10       | .469                     | 17       | .702                     |
| 4        | .659                     | 11       | .606                     | 18       | .735                     |
| 5        | .585                     | 12       | .482                     | 19       | .591                     |
| 6        | .706                     | 13       | .738                     | 20       | .684                     |
| 7        | .711                     | 14       | .696                     |          |                          |

Factor analysis was conducted to see the factors as well as the Eagan values of all these subscales. Principal Component Analysis was used for this purpose. Initially KMO and Bartlett's test was performed. Scree plot showed that three subscales. Communalities were also checked. Items were arranged into their subscale respectively by checking their rotated components matrix. The Cronbach alpha reliability of the items of altruistic measure was 0.89.
Discussion

The current study was carried out to construct an indigenous scale to measure altruism. The statistics showed promising results. Three subscales named concern, empathy and benefit to the recipient were emerged. This scale was supported by the altruistic personality inventory and the altruism scale developed by Rushton, Chrisjohn, and Fekken (1981). Items of the current scale have almost equal ability to measure the construct. Nickell (1998) developed the Helping Attitudes Scale (HAS) which consisted of 20 items with .86 alpha reliability. The alpha reliability of this newly developed altruism scale was .89. Hussain (1999) developed the Altruistic Behavior Adaptation and Validation Scale to build up an instrument or tool or measure for evaluating unselfish or altruistic conduct. The current scale was also supported by Hussain (1999) scale on altruism and consistent with the Generative Altruism Scale (GALS) developed by Bussing, Kerksieck, Gunther and Baumann (2013). To sum up, this scale is a strong tool for research and practical purposes.

Conclusion

In summary, the newly designed altruism scale, which can be applied in empirical studies involving individuals above 18 years old, is reliable and valid. The researcher has to face some methodological challenges during the development of the scale, which were resolved with the help of literature review. Forthcoming studies can address the association between altruism, empathy, need for justice, equity motive and moral judgment in adolescents. It is recommended that the education department should emphasize on the development of compassion as an intrinsic motivator through adequate programs.
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