

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

ASSOCIATIONS AND PREDICTORS OF ASSERTIVENESS AND NON-ASSERTIVENESS IN CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS. THE ROLE OF CHILD CHARACTERISTICS AND PARENTING PRACTICES.

DOCTOR OF PHILOSHOPHY DISSERTATION

ANGELIKI ANDREOU

2016



DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

ASSOCIATIONS AND PREDICTORS OF ASSERTIVENESS AND NON-ASSERTIVENESS IN CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS. THE ROLE OF CHILD CHARACTERISTICS AND PARENTING PRACTICES.

DOCTOR OF PHILOSHOPHY DISSERTATION

ANGELIKI ANDREOU

A dissertation submitted to the University of Cyprus in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

JULY/2016

VALIDATION PAGE

Doctoral Candidate: Angeliki Andreou

Dissertation Title: Associations and predictors of assertiveness and non-assertiveness in children and adolescents. The role of child characteristics and parenting practices.

Research Supervisor: Dr. Georgia Panayiotou, Associate Professor, Department of Psychology, University of Cyprus, Cyprus.

Committee Member: Dr. Kostas Fantis, Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, University of Cyprus, Cyprus.

Committee Member: Dr. George Spanoudis, Associate Professor, Department of Psychology, University of Cyprus, Cyprus.

Committee Member: Dr. Hadjicharalambous Xenia, Associate Professor, Department of Social sciences, University of Nicosia, Cyprus.

Committee Member: Dr. Luis Joaquin Garcia Lopez, Associate Professor, Department of Psychology, Universidad de Jaen, Spain.

DECLARATION OF DOCTORAL CANDIDATE

The present doctoral dissertation was submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the University of Cyprus. It is a product of original work of my own, unless otherwise mentioned through references, notes, or any other statements.

A	r	ı	g	e	1	i	k	i	P	١	J	n	(l	r	ϵ)(0)	J																				

ABSTRACT

Objectives: The present study aimed to examine and further develop the nomological network of assertiveness that is considered an important behavioral, social and interpersonal communication skill and a critical component for the individual's mental wellbeing, development and effective social functioning. This research study investigates how specific personal, social characteristics and parenting variables, and their interactions, can predict appearance or absence of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness in children and adolescent. This study was designed to test which personal and social characteristics of children can predict assertiveness and mediate the relation between the parenting practices and assertive behaviour of children. Previous research has indicated that social skills of children are associated with the constructs of social anxiety, psychopathy, callous-unemotional traits, emotion regulation, temperament characteristics, social acceptance, victimization and parenting practices and so in this study we will specifically examine their relation with the specific social skill of assertiveness and the related behaviours of aggressiveness and submissiveness.

Assertiveness is an important social skill for expressing ones opinion and needs through self-advocacy. Research has suggested that assertiveness in communication is a social skill, and attaining this skill is a critical component for mental wellbeing. It has also indicated that social skills are critical for the individual's adjustment and functioning and in general are considered an equal and maybe even better predictor of later academic achievement than intellectual ability of children. Because of the significance of assertiveness in many aspects of a person's development it is important to study what affects this vital communication skill.

Method: Nine hundred and sixteen (916) children (365 boys and 551 girls; age range: 10-17 years old) and one thousand and hundred and fifty five (1155) parents participated in this study. The sample was randomly chosen from public primary schools of Nicosia Larnaca, Pafos and Ammochostos districts. The data was collected through questionnaires and vignettes. All the children completed the Children's Assertiveness Inventory (CAI), the Children's Action Tendency Scale (CATS), the Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory-Brief form (SPAI-B), the Egna Minnen av Barndoms Uppfostran - My memories of upbringing - Child version (EMBU-C), the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM), the Self-Perception Profile for Children and Adolescents, Social Acceptance Subscale and the Student Survey of Bullying Behavior-Revised, while only 81 students completed the vignettes that were developed for the purposes of this study. Parents

completed a demographic questionnaire, the Junior Temperament and Character Inventory for parents (JTCI), the Inventory of Callous- Unemotional Traits (ICU) for parents and the Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire-short (CERQ-short).

Results: In order to analyze the data the SPSS program was used while the quantitative SEM analysis using the program AMOS followed. From the results of this study's hypotheses regarding the nomological network of assertiveness and the identification of the correlates and predictors of assertive and non-assertive behavior, results were mostly supported. As expected, assertiveness was overall related to mental health, positive socialization constructs and positive emotion regulation strategies, submissiveness was mostly related to anxiety constructs and poor socialization characteristics and aggressiveness was related to externalizing characteristics. Moreover regarding age and assertiveness relation it seems that age played an important role in the developmental course of assertiveness and aggressiveness with results showing that as children become older they tend to be more aggressive and less assertive. Furthermore gender also seems to play an important role in assertiveness, submissiveness and aggressiveness. According to the research findings of this study girls obtained higher scores in assertiveness and submissiveness and lower scores in aggressiveness. Regarding the relation of parenting practices and assertiveness this study's results revealed that assertiveness was positively related and significantly predicted by emotional warmth and emotional rewards and negatively related and significantly predicted by overprotection and related to rejection while aggressiveness on the contrary was negatively associated and significantly predicted by emotional warmth and positively related and significantly predicted by overprotection and positively related to rejection. Finally mediation models revealed that some internal characteristics of the children like callous unemotional traits have a mediating role in the relation of parenting practices and assertive behavior.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The achievement of any project as important as a dissertation entails the guidance and support of a human network and personal persistence. I have been blessed to have this network of colleagues, friends and family that supported me in order to achieve my goal. First, I would like to thank my "Teacher" Dr. Georgia Panayiotou, for providing constant support and guidance, reassurance and emotional support, in each step of the project. Dr. Panayiotou's patience and positive aura helped me develop as a person and as a researcher. I would also like to thank Dr. Spanoudis and Dr. Fantis for providing me with their expertise in different stages of this project. I would also like to express my appreciation to my research assistants. Additionally, I wish to thank my parents, Takis† and Mary for their endless and unconditional love and support. Finally, special thanks to my children, my husband my sister and brother and all my close friends for their limitless social support.

To my family

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS	X
CHAPTER1: INDRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW	1
1.1 Introduction	1
Assertiveness historical definitions and characteristics	1
Aggressiveness	3
Submissiveness	4
1.2. Statement of the problem	4
1.3. Significance of the study	5
1.4. Purpose of the study	7
1.5. Basic constructs identified as related to assertiveness	7
Social Anxiety	7
Temperament dimensions	9
Psychopathy traits	12
Callus Unemotional traits	14
Social and peer acceptance	15
Victimization	16
Emotion Regulation	16
Parenting	18
Assertiveness, Aggressiveness and Submissiveness in relation to Gender	19
and Age Group of children and adolescents	
CHAPTER 2: GENERAL METHODOLOGY	22
2.1. Participants	22
2.2. Procedure	23
2.3. Measures	23
2.3.1. Child completed measures	24
Assertiveness, Aggressiveness, Submissiveness	24
The Children's Action Tendency Scale (CATS)	24
The Children's Assertiveness Inventory (CAI)	25
Externalizing Behaviors	25
Psychopathy measured with TriPM	26
Anxiety	26

	Social Phobia and Anxiety	26
	Peer relations	27
	Social Acceptance	27
	Victimization	28
2	2.3.2. Parent completed measures	28
	Temperament and personality characteristics	28
	Callous- Unemotional Traits	29
	Emotion Regulation	30
2	2.3.3. Data analysis plan	32
СН	APTER 3: STUDIES ON ASSERTIVENESS	35
I	Study 1: The nomological network of childhood assertiveness: Examination of the assertiveness construct in Cyprus using two well established measures. Introduction	35
	Literature review	36
	Assertiveness	36
	Nonassertive behaviors	37
	Predictors and correlates of assertive and non-assertive behavior	37
	Psychometric assessment of assertiveness	44
	The Children's Action Tendency Scale (CATS)	44
	The Children's Assertiveness Inventory (CAI)	45
	Method	49
	Results	51
	Discussion	60
	Study 2: The use of vignettes for the study of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness	82 82
	Method	86
	Results	87
	Discussion	89
S	Study 3: Parenting practices and assertiveness, aggressiveness and	95
	submissiveness in children	95
	Parenting practices and the socialization of the child	95
	Parenting practices assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness	98
	Socioeconomic status of the family and the relation to assertiveness,	99

Method	101
Results	105
Discussion	109
Study 4: Parenting practices and children's assertiveness: mediation through social anxiety and psychopathy	119 119
Relations between parenting practices and children's psychopathy traits and assertiveness	122
Psychopathy as mediators of the relation between parenting practices and children's assertiveness	123
Method	125
Results	126
Discussion	128
CHAPTER 4: GENERAL DISCUSSION	136
REFERENCES	138
APPENDIX A: Informed consent form	183
APPENDIX B: Questionnaires for children	186
APPENDIX C: Questionnaires for parents	200
APPENDIX D: Vignettes	214

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. Introduction

"Everything in moderation, nothing in excess", was said by Socrates 2500 years ago. Ancient Greek philosophy seems to reflect the need for moderation in many different aspects of life. Applying this moderation to the construct of interpersonal relations and especially assertiveness in communication is crucial: While exceeding moderation in assertiveness may lead to aggression and hostility, extremely low levels of assertiveness may lead to submissiveness (Alberti & Emons, 1971). Moderation in interpersonal assertive communication would be the expression of personal opinion and standing up for ones' own needs and rights but with respect for the rights of others.

One way of conceptualizing the idea of assertiveness supports that in order to maintain an optimal balance between demands on the basis of one's personal needs and the respect of the needs of others, can be seen as falling between the two dysfunctional communication styles of submissiveness and aggressiveness (Schwartz & Caramoni, 1989) (Figure 1). The definitions of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness can give us a better insight into the nature of these three constructs and their associations.

Assertiveness historical definitions and characteristics

Assertiveness was initially studied by Chittenden (1942) who attempted to experimentally measure and modify assertive behavior in young children and later by Salter (1949) who described assertiveness as a personality trait that could be used to counter inhibitory personality traits in an early form of behavior therapy. Although there is not a clear and robust definition of assertiveness, most of the existing definitions and descriptions include common characteristics like the ability to express oneself without anxiety, anger or aggression, in various interpersonal situations and more specifically in situations with conflict of opinions, needs or rights (Gilbert & Allan, 1994).

One of the oldest and broadest definitions of assertiveness described this behavioral concept as "1) any overt attempt to influence the behavior of another and 2) any overt response to the above behavior so long as the child responding maintained his status in the situation" (Chittenden, 1942, p. 72). Wolpe (1958) and Lazarus (1966) redefined assertiveness as the expression of personal rights and feelings, supporting that nearly everybody can express assertively in some situations and not in others. Lazarus (1973) divided assertiveness into four different types: (a) the ability to say "no", (b) the ability to ask for favors or to make requests (c) the ability to express positive and negative feelings

and (d) the ability to initiate, continue and terminate general conversations. Assertiveness is usually described as the free expression of emotion (Wolpe, 1973) while standing up for one's rights (Lazarus, 1971) with a positive and nonanxious stance (Alberti & Emmons, 1974) or "standing up for one's rights, refusing to comply with seemingly unreasonable demands, asking for favors or making requests, initiating and terminating conversations, and expressing positive or negative feelings to others" (Lee, Hallberg, Slemon, Haase, 1985). Assertiveness is the ability to express thoughts and feelings in a non-hostile way without intervening in other people's rights (Alberti & Emmons, 1971) and at the same time being socially appropriate and taking into account the feelings and wellbeing of others (Rimm & Masters, 1979). Later definitions described assertiveness as the free expression of emotions and defending one's rights without anxiety and aggression (Herzberger, Chan & Katz, 1984) or "a person's general tendency to be interpersonally dominant, ascendant, and forceful" (Infante, 1987, p. 165) considering it a constructive communication trait (Infante, 1987; Infante & Gorden, 1989). Finally another definition describes "assertiveness as a dimension in everyday perceptions reflecting an individual's interpersonal willingness to stand up and speak out for their own interests and ideas, pursuing their objectives and resisting others' impositions" (Ames, 2009, p.113).

Assertiveness is considered a multidimensional construct and although it has been defined differently by researchers, there are basic elements of the definitions that are generally agreed upon. The majority of the research describes assertiveness as the ability of a person to 1) assert personal rights and 2) express opinions, beliefs and feelings appropriately through self-advocacy. Assertiveness definitions have also put an emphasis on individual rights describing assertiveness as a way to promote equality in human relationships, enabling individuals to stand up for themselves through honest expression of feelings (Alberti & Emmons, 1990) needs and wants without aggressive and forceful methods (Galassi & Galassi, 1978) and without violating the rights of others (Alberti & Emons, 1978).

Voltaire said "I do not agree with what you have to say, but I'll defend to the death your right to say it" wanting to advocate the freedom of expression. Freedom of expression is recognized as a human right under the Article 19 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Article 19 states that "everyone shall have the right to hold opinions without interference" and "everyone shall have the right to freedom of expression; with respect of the rights or reputation of others". The definition of the construct of assertiveness seems to be in absolute affinity with the definition for the right of free expression. Assertiveness is

defined as the behavior that enables the individual to stand up for their personal rights and express their thoughts, without undue anxiety and without denying the rights of others (Alberti & Emmons, 1970; Wolpe, 1969). It has also empirically been found that individuals who are high in assertiveness know their personal rights and can make a clear separation between assertive, submissive and aggressive communication (Herringer, 1998).

Moreover it was noticed that insufficiency in children's assertiveness skills may become an obstacle in communication and create adjustment problems in the school and home environment (Lee, Hallberg, Slemon, Haase, 1985). Aggressive and submissive behaviors, described in combination as non-assertive, are also considered less socially acceptable and seem to impede personal adjustment and development. Nonassertive behaviors have been associated with various forms of psychopathology like depression, anxiety and social anxiety, although one can lack assertiveness and still function within the normal range (Arrindell, Sanderman, Hageman, Pickersgill, Kwee, Van der Molen & Lingsma, 1990; Arrindell, Sanderman, Van der Molen, Van der Ende, & Mersch, 1988; Arrindell & Van der Ende, 1985; Man & Gilbert, 1997; Schwartz & Caramoni, 1989; St Lawrence, 1987)

Aggressiveness

If assertiveness falls in between forms of unassertive behavior, then the two poles of this continuum are represented by aggressiveness and submissiveness. One construct examined in this study in relation to assertiveness is the construct of aggressiveness in interpersonal relations which includes the intentional application of physical or psychological force in order to control, direct, hurt, injure, or harm another person's body, emotions, properties, or beliefs (Infante, 1987; Infante & Rancer, 1996; Webster, DeWall, Pond, Deckman, Jonason, Le, Nichols, Shember, Crysel, Crosier & Smith, 2014). Infante and Wigley (1986) described verbal aggression as the behavior of "attacking the self-concept of another person instead of, or in addition to, the person's position on a topic of communication" (p. 61).

The development of aggressive behavior can be explained by the social information-processing theory based on social problem-solving; the individual encounters a social problem, evaluates it, retrieves relative information and evaluates possible solutions to problem (Crick & Dodge, 1994; Huesman, 1988). Lack of social skills and previous maladaptive learning experiences of social problem solving may result in aggressiveness in children and adolescents (Slaby & Guerra, 1988; Crick & Dodge, 1994) especially in aggression-provocative situations (Keltikangas-Järvinen, 2001). The link

between childhood aggression and peer interactions has been extensively examined and peer acceptance was found to be negatively associated with aggressive behavior (Huesmann, 1988; Keltikangas-Järvinen, 2001; Newcomb et al., 1993).

Submissiveness

Another construct examined, in this study, in relation to assertiveness is submissiveness that is described as non-assertive and a non-hostile behavior that takes into account the feelings of others, their power, status or authority and is associated with avoidance of expressing feelings, opinions, or standing up for one's rights (Deluty, 1981c). Submissive behavior has been linked to avoidant personality (Lobel, 1981; Wiggins & Pincus, 1989) and personality traits of neuroticism and introversion (Gilbert, & Allan, 1994; Price et al., 1994; Sloman et al., 1994). Individuals with low assertiveness and high submissiveness are more concerned with other peoples' opinion about them than individuals with medium or high levels of assertiveness (Schwartz & Gottman, 1976).

1.2. Statement of the problem

Social competence in early years has important, long-term developmental consequences (Parker & Asher, 1987) and is considered an equal and maybe even a better predictor of later academic achievement than intellectual ability (Horn & Packard, 1985). Social adjustment and adaptiveness are associated with happiness, self-esteem, popularity and peer acceptance (Deluty, 1981). Assertiveness in interpersonal communication constitutes such an interpersonal skill.

Research consistently supports the relationship between the positive outcomes of communicating assertively and the negative outcomes in the absence of assertiveness in communication in adults and in many aspects of the developmental course of children. Assertive behavior can be a shield for children against peer pressure or sexual harassment. Assertive communication is considered a tool that adds to the development of a mentally healthy person and the development of healthy interpersonal relations (Cook & St. Lawrence, 1990; Henderson, & Furnham, 1982; Herringer, 1998; Richmond & McCroskey, 1992; Zakahi, 1985). The preventive and therapeutic significance of developing assertiveness skills in children is well-documented by the central role that training in assertiveness skills plays in most manuals and protocols that were developed to improve the communication abilities and emotional well-being of young people (Bornstein, Bellack& Hersen, 1977; Gresham, 1985; Ogilvy, C. M. (1994). As socially skilled interpersonal behavior, assertiveness has been proven to have an important long-

term influence on the psychological and adaptive functioning of children (Coie et al., 1995; Elliott, Malecki, & Demaray, 2001) and can be assumed that assertiveness is a mentally healthy way of communication. It is suggested that increasing assertiveness among school children can help in the prevention of later psychopathology and low wellbeing.

However, despite the acknowledgement of the significance of assertiveness in communication, a thorough understanding of the construct of assertive behavior in children and adolescence is lacking. Very few studies attempted to identify the elements that make up assertiveness and its course of development or have explored the correlates of assertiveness in children. Also, there is little prior research on the predictors of assertive communication and how some children develop into assertive individuals while others become aggressive or submissive. The relationship between assertiveness and aggressiveness and submissiveness are not clear and the lack of boundaries between these constructs hampers the effort of clear robust definitions of the constructs and their nomological network. Also other important constructs that are associated with other social skills, like personality characteristics, social characteristics and parenting, , have yet to be explored in relation to assertiveness.

The aim of the current study was to explore the construct of assertiveness in relation to aggressiveness and submissiveness and identify its predictors, among a wide range of child characteristics and family variables that conceptually could be related to it. Furthermore a new measure of assertiveness based on vignettes was created for the purposes of this study and was used in order to gather data on assertiveness with a method that goes beyond traditional self-report questionnaires and evaluate the relative validity of the new measure in relation to traditional ways of assessing assertiveness. Finally more complex relations between assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness and variables that appeared (on the basis of the first and third study in this dissertation) to be significantly related to assertiveness were examined using more advanced statistics of mediation in order to identify the more precise association between assertiveness/nonassertiveness and their predictors. The information generated in the context of this dissertation will allow us to add new knowledge to the description of the nomological network of assertiveness and define better ways to measure this construct in order to promote its development.

1.3. Significance of the study

Throughout the literature of clinical psychology, research has sought to identify the personal characteristics and social constructs that predict interpersonal social skills and mental health, including assertiveness. What is missing from the literature is a more

assiduous study of the concept of assertiveness in relation with the concepts of aggressiveness and submissiveness, which seem to be separable and maybe even mutually exclusive. Understanding the correlates and predictors of these three constructs would allow us to form a more concrete nomological network for assertiveness. When reviewing the literature, the potential associations between personality, family environment, psychopathology and assertiveness are directly and indirectly evident but a systematic study of what differentially predicts assertive and non-assertive styles of communication, so that these predictors can become the targets of intervention has not to date been accomplished.

Focusing on the importance of this study we point out that understanding how personal, social and parental characteristics of children can predict the child's assertiveness will be an important step in revealing the dynamics of this construct and the ways to promote acquisition of this skill. Therefore, the broader socialization mechanism that predicts assertiveness based on the personal, social and parental characteristics of children requires further investigation. Assertiveness is a part of social development, the broader concept that includes all the behavioral patterns, feelings, attitudes and ideas that children exhibit in their social interaction with other individuals and are susceptible to change over maturation. Social development is affected by a range of variables including temperamental and personality traits of the child and environmental factors including family and peer interactions. Applying this framework to assertiveness, the potential predictors of this skill examined in the present dissertation include the broad domains of social, behavioral and emotional adjustment that comprise social competence, peer acceptance and victimization, internalizing and externalizing behavior problems, anxiety, emotion regulation and parental rearing experiences.

A more comprehensive understanding of the communication tendencies of aggressiveness, assertiveness and submissiveness in the socialization process of children can help in the identification of children at risk to develop interpersonal problems with peers and adults, which can in turn lead to both internalizing and externalizing pathology. Further understanding the characteristics of assertive and non-assertive children can guide and support the planning of interventions to promote the development of assertiveness and will establish effective ways in identifying potential targets for intervention. The findings from this study can inform practitioners, educators and parents of the importance of assertiveness in children and how this construct develops in order to promote children's well-being and psychosocial development through modifications in parenting and educational practices.

1.4. Purpose of the study

The subject of assertiveness has been studied since the early forties (Chittenden, G. E., 1942) but despite the extended research on assertive behavior the majority of this research studied adults and very few studies examined assertive communication in young children or adolescents and the factors that influence the development of this skill. Most of the research done to date focused on measuring assertiveness and developing assertiveness training without first reaching a concrete definition of what this construct is and how it relates to potentially associated constructs.

Based on the need for investigating assertive communication in children and the factors that influence it's development, the purpose of this study was: A) to establish the nomological network of assertiveness by examining how it relates to other child characteristics that are or could be theoretically related to it, B) to examine what predicts children's assertive communication, and which variables may serve as moderators or mediators in the prediction of assertive behavior and C) which are the critical differential predictors between assertive, submissive and aggressive communication among a number of personality and social characteristic and parental practices (seen as predictors) that, based on theory, might be associated with these types of behaviors.

1.5. Basic constructs identified as related to assertiveness

Based on a review of the assertiveness literature and the characteristics of assertive and unassertive individuals the following variables were identified as potentially related to the construct of assertiveness:

Social anxiety

Social anxiety (termed social anxiety disorder in DSM-5; SAD) is a persistent, irrational and excessive fear of certain social or performance situations, in which the individuals fears that they will act in an embarrassing or humiliating way because of the inappropriate performance and consequently receive the disapproval of others (DSM-IV, APA 1994; DSM-IV-TR; APA, 2000). The most commonly feared situations are attending social gatherings, meeting new people, performing in front of others, speaking in public, dating, and behaving assertively, like dealing with authority figures or assertively saying no to unreasonable requests or asking others to change their behaviors (Rapee, 1995). Social anxiety disorder (SAD) is considered a chronic condition that has an enormous impact on the individual's functioning (Garcia-Lopez, Piqueras, Diaz-Castela, & Ingles, 2008).

Etiological models of SAD support the interaction of biological and psychological vulnerability factors that are intensified by the presence of negative thoughts, feelings and

avoidance behaviors (Kashdan & Herbert, 2001). Temperamental factors like behavioral inhibition to the unfamiliar, fearfulness and neuroticism (Beidel, Borden, Turner, & Jacob, 1989; Fox, Henderson, Marshall, Nichols, & Ghera, 2005; Knappe, et. al., 2009), conditioning events and cognitive factors are some of the vulnerability factors that have been studied in an attempt to discover the etiology of SAD.

A proposed mechanism, through which SAD is maintained, supports that the temperamental tendencies of behavioral inhibition and anxiety sensitivity are the main pillars of this disorder. Anxiety sensitivity is a temperamental trait, which refers to the fear of the sensations that are associated with fear, or feel like fear. Anxiety sensitivity is closely related to behavioral inhibition (Hagopian & Ollendick, 1996) and experiential avoidance (Karekla, Forsyth, & Kelly, 2004; Spira, Zvolensky, Eifert, & Feldner, 2004). Experiential avoidance is a learned coping strategy described by the tendency to give negative evaluations to feelings and thoughts which in turn take a great deal of effort to be avoided, changed or suppressed (Panayiotou, Karekla & Panayiotou, 2014). Behavior inhibition, described as the tendency to exhibit fear to novel situations or individuals, reservation and withdrawal, has been longitudinally and firmly linked to SAD as a direct predictor of the disorder (Essex, Klein, Slattery, Goldsmith, & Kalin, 2010; Panayiotou, Karekla & Panayiotou, 2014).

Literature on social anxiety disorder supporting the inhibition hypothesis states that social skills are acquired by individuals with SAD but not shown during states of high anxiety, like in feared situations of performance and social interaction. It is assumed that high anxiety inhibits the display of social skills because of difficulties in the processing of information, in cognitive-affective terms resulting in interpretative biases, negative self-meta-perceptions, and self-focused attention of individuals with SAD (Furmark, 2000). A model of vicious circle of social anxiety supports that insufficiently socially skilled behavior seems to lead to non-positive outcomes from social interactions and in turn results in negative expectancies and thoughts about future situations, in which there will be evaluation by others, thus leading to an avoidance behavior. This avoidance of social interaction repeats the circle and strengthens the inability to act in a socially skilled way since there are fewer opportunities for social skills learning and practice (Spence, Donovan, & Brechman-Toussaint, 1999).

Moreover examining the specific social skill of assertiveness it was found that assertiveness is negatively associated with social anxiety in adults (Chambless, Hunter & Jackson, 1982; Weber, Wiedig, Freyer, & Gralher, 2004). Patients with social anxiety report difficulties with expressing themselves assertively (Rapee, 1995) because they

worry about rejection or criticism. Considering that the population of this study is children and adolescents we will narrow our literature review and hypotheses about SAD to this developmental range.

Social phobia in children has a similar pattern, of negative cognitions, regarding social evaluation, as in adults, and results in withdrawal and avoidant behaviors (Beidel, Turner, & Moms, 1995; Ginsburg, La Greca, & Silverman, 1998). The vicious circle of negative social interaction and social anxiety seem to exist in children and adolescents as well. La Greca (1998) supported that negative peer interactions lead to social evaluation anxiety which then lead to avoidant and inhibition behaviors. Social inhibition and avoidance further restricts opportunities for social interaction and assertive behavior with peers that in the long run makes youths less socially capable and assertive thus for example being easily pushed around or not being able to initiate conversations with peers (La Greca, 1998). While the lack of social skills in adults in an issue of debate (Panayiotou et al., 2016), a greater consensus exists that children with social phobia are less competent in social skills performance than non-socially anxious ones, and less likely to expect or obtain a positive social outcome. Moreover another study that also supports the notion that social anxiety is related with social skills deficiency in adolescents, confirmed that treatments including social skills training had positive effects on social anxiety disorder (Garcia-Lopez, Olivares, Beidel, Albano, Turner & Rosa, 2006).

Despite these associations between social anxiety and social skills development little is known about the specific relation of assertive behavior in children and adolescents with SAD. To date very little research has been done concerning the association between social anxiety and assertive communication in children and how this is mediated by other temperamental, psychopathological or familial characteristics of the child. Also it is the first time that the relation of SAD is examined in relation to the constructs of assertiveness, submissiveness and aggressiveness at the same time, in order to differentiate how SAD relates specifically to each. Based on the above it is hypothesized that social anxiety traits will be negatively related to aggressiveness and positively related to submissiveness. Based on this literature, it can be additionally derived that submissiveness, like SAD, would be expected to be related to behavioral inhibition and other "phobic" temperamental characteristics, since the motive of SAD individuals in acting submissive is the avoidance of rejection and retaliation.

Temperamental dimensions

Children's personalities are different and unique; there are no specific descriptions that would fit more than one individual. Although this differentiation exists, some

personality and temperamental characteristics seem to group together and appear more often in combination with other behaviors. The specific combination of personality and temperamental characteristics of each child is what makes them more outgoing or withdrawn or what makes them aggressive or empathetic towards others. The definition of temperament refers to the individual differences in the emotional, motor and attentional reaction to stimulation and differences in behavioral and attentional self-regulation strategies that are evident from an early age in children's behavior (Sanson, Smart, & Hemphill, 2002). Temperamental styles predict later personality traits and reflect broad behavioral tendencies in the individual. Another definition describes temperament as individual differences in behavioral tendencies that are present and quite stable across the age span and different situations (Orth & Martin, 1994).

Temperament plays an important and twofold role in the child's social competence, since it affects children's and adolescent's adaptation at school (Carey, 1998) and their general social developmental course (Thomas, Chess, Birch, Hertzig, & Korn, 1963). More specifically temperamental differences in traits like responsiveness to stimulation and capacity to regulate emotions have an impact on the children's social development and can serve either as risk or protective factors in the social development course (Cicchetti & Cohen, 1995). Personality characteristics that have also been associated with assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness include some basic temperamental traits pertaining to fear tendencies and arousal levels.

Cloninger (1993) described personality, based on a psychobiological model, as the amalgam of temperament and character. This personality model consists of the following seven dimensions: four temperamental dimensions; Novelty Seeking (NS): tendency to respond to and explore novel stimuli and make impulsive decisions; Harm avoidance (HA): behavioral inhibition activated by threat or danger and a heritable bias promoting cautiousness, pessimism and anxiety; Reward Dependence (RD): tendency to respond to reward, social approval and sentiment and continue behaviors that were previously reinforced; Persistence (P): heritable tendency to be perseverant despite fatigue, frustration and lack of reward; and three character facets, Self-Directedness (SD): characteristic of an autonomous self-concept, feelings of hope and self-confidence, Cooperativeness (C): characteristic of acceptance of others, compassion and charity and self-transcendence (ST): characteristics of spirituality, patience and self-forgetfulness (Cloninger, Svrakic, & Przybeck, 1993).

For the purposes of this study, two temperamental dimensions, the "Novelty Seeking" and the "Harm avoidance", as described by Cloninger's (1993) personality

model, will be examined. Novelty seeking includes recurrent exploratory activity and excitement in response to novelty and it is suggested to be related to brain systems involving behavioral activation. Harm avoidance describes the tendency to respond with extreme withdrawal to aversive stimuli or their associated signals, and it is suggested to be related to brain systems involving behavioral inhibition.

These two have been chosen because the harm avoidance dimension of temperament is highly related to anxious/fearful traits and behavioral inhibition, is predictive of the development of anxiety disorders and is a more specific indicator of temperamental fearfulness rather than anxiety. It is related to brain systems involving the behavioral inhibition system, which responds to signals of fear, punishment and non-reward. Because of its associations with fear, which is similar but distinct from anxiety, it was included in the cluster of predictors called "anxiety traits" in this dissertation so that characteristics related to both fear and anxiety could be examined.

Harm avoidance is related to the behavioral tendency to withdraw from potential threats and is similar with avoidance in which the individual avoids dealing with a stressor. A study in an adult community sample in Cyprus regarding coping in anxiety disorders supported that the coping mechanisms used were similar across all anxiety disorders (Panayiotou, Karekla & Mete, 2014). Coping through avoidance and self-blame were the most widespread emotion regulation strategies amongst individuals with anxiety symptoms. Moreover avoidance was considered a vital coping style in the anxiety disorder spectrum and a possible maintenance mechanism of the disorder (Panayiotou, Karekla & Mete, 2014). Avoidance is considered a maladaptive response to stressors, and risk factor for distress (depression and anxiety) (Carver et al., 1989; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Karekla & Panayiotou, 2011; Panayiotou, Karekla & Mete, 2014; Panayiotou, Kokkinos & Kapsou, 2014) and internalizing psychopathology and is highly related to the harm avoidant temperament.

Novelty seeking was included in the group of predictors named "externalizing behaviors" based on the definition of this construct described as the tendency to behave in a repeatedly exploratory way with excitement in response to novel stimuli and is related with the behavioral activation system of the brain (Cloninger, 1987). In contrast to individuals who are high in novelty seeking and derive rewards from this exploration, other individuals experience intense stress created by novelty; such individuals are characterized by trait fearfulness, which is a similar construct to behavioral inhibition (Fanti et al., 2015) as described with regards to SAD above.

Based on the above we can assume that novelty seeking, linked with disinhibition, might have an association with aggressiveness in contrast to harm avoidance, which through its link to inhibition might be associated to submissiveness.

Psychopathy traits

Hare (1996) defined psychopathy as a personality disorder characterized by a major affective deficit, persistent antisocial and bold behavior, disinhibition and reduced empathy with disregard to social rules and the rights of others. Psychopathy also includes callousness, fearlessness, deceitfulness, grandiosity, impulsiveness, excitement seeking and aggression towards others (Hare & Neumann, 2008). Individuals with psychopathic personality exhibit interpersonal characteristics of egocentricity, manipulation, social dominance, superficial charm, irresponsibility, emotional characteristics of poor affect, shallow emotions, lack of nervousness and remorse, social characteristics of poor behavioral control and aggression (Fowles & Dindo, 2009; Hare, 1996; Hare & Neumann, 2008; Skeem, Polaschek, Patrick, & Lilienfeld, 2011) and behavioral characteristics of proneness to boredom and lack of realistic long-term goals (Roose, Bijttebier, Decoene, Claes, & Frick, 2009). CU traits are usually positively correlated with fearlessness and thrill seeking behaviors (Essau, Sasagawa & Frick, 2006; Frick, Lilienfeld, Ellis, Loney, & Silverthorn, 1999; Pardini, 2006; Fantis & Nilsson, 2016). Fearlessness is characterized by low behavioral inhibition and insensitivity to punishment (Blair, 1995; Pardini, Byrd, 2012) and is associated with externalizing behavior and psychopathic and CU traits (Frick & Morris, 2004; Frick & Viding, 2009).

The relation of CU traits and aggression was evident in the findings of a recent research, suggesting that adolescents with higher levels of CU traits revealed higher levels of combined proactive and reactive aggression (Fanti, Frick, & Georgiou; 2009). This can be explained based on the fearlessness and stimulation seeking theory. According to fearlessness theory, the lack of anxiety and fear together with low autonomic system activity, influence the appearance of antisocial, violent and aggressive behavior based on the fact that the absence of fear and arousal lead to boredom and lack of excitement concomitantly leading to sensation-seeking, risk-taking, or impulsivity (Scarpa & Raine, 1997). Lack of fear is not the only reason for exhibiting antisocial behavior in the first place, but it deprives the individual of the opportunity to learn from the consequences of aggressive social behavior (Raine, 1993, 2002).

Resent research proposed the use of the triarchic model to describe more accurately the multiple dimensions of psychopathy (Patrick, Fowles & Krueger, 2009). This model is based on previous well establish measurements of psychopathy, like the Psychopathic

Personality Inventory, which has been revised to more clearly separate aspects of this characteristic that are believed to be distinct namely disinhibition, meanness and boldness.

The component of "disinhibition" describes a general phenotypic tendency for impulsivity, impaired affect regulation and urgent need for immediate gratification. Disinhibition includes a behavioral control deficiency and a general tendency toward impulsivity, poor regulation of emotions and urges, difficulty in delaying gratification and an impulsive antisocial behavior (Patrick et al., 2009). Disinhibition in children, described as the deficient impulse control, has been associated with conduct disorder and other dimensions of psychopathy, aggressive and antisocial responses (Newman, & Wallace, 1993).

The component of "boldness" describes the phenotypic style in which the individual remains calm in anxious or threatening situations, has high self-assurance and social efficacy together with high acceptance of danger and of the unfamiliar. Boldness includes many of the characteristics of psychopathy like social dominance, emotional resiliency, and thrill-seeking (Cleckley, 1941/1988; Lykken, 1957) and characteristics like resilience to fear and anxiety, as well as a domineering interpersonal style (Benning et al., 2005).

The component of "meanness" describes the phenotypic attributes of lack of empathy and close attachments with others, disloyalty, excitement seeking cruelty, aggression, competitiveness and exploitativeness. Meanness also includes characteristics like callousness, aggressiveness, hostile, exploitative behavior, lack of honesty and cold-heartedness excitement seeking (Frick & Hare, 2001; McCord and McCord, 1964; Hare, 1986; Patrick, 2010).

A recent study was conducted in a non-clinical sample of Greek Cypriot university students validating the Greek Cypriot translation of the TriPM. This research examined the associations between differed phenotypic dimensions of psychopathy (boldness, meanness, and disinhibition) measured with TriPM with results confirming the correlations between the three phenotypic dimensions and the validity of the Greek translation version of the measure. This study confirmed previous research and also added new knowledge regarding the association between boldness and the adaptive characteristics of immunity to anxiety/distress while on the other hand it was also found to be associated with maladaptive characteristics like manipulative traits, desire for control and verbal aggression. Associations were evident between meanness and callous unemotional traits,

manipulation and distrust of others, physical aggression, and absence of positive parenting. Finally, disinhibition was associated with anxiety and distress, exposure to violence and abuse, together with impulsive, irresponsible and hostile tendencies (Fanti, Kyranides, Drislane, Colins & Andershed, 2015). Based on the theoretical framework guiding the TriPM's development, we hypothesized that the total score of TriPM will be positively related to aggressive behavior and negatively related to submissive and assertive behavior.

Callus Unemotional traits

One important component of psychopathy is CU traits. Given that personality disorders cannot be diagnosed in children, callus and unemotional (CU) traits in children including characteristics like lack of guilt, absence of empathy and callous use of others, lack of concern for the feelings of others, shallow or superficial expression of emotions and lack of concern regarding performance in important activities (Frick, 2009) - are considered a developmental precursor of psychopathy (Burke, Loeber & Lahey, 2007; Frick, 2009; Frick & Viding, 2009). CU traits are generally stable from childhood to adolescence (Barry, Barry, Deming & Lochman, 2008; Frick, Kimonis, Dandreaux, & Farrell, 2003; Dadds, Fraser, Frost, Hawes, 2005; Lynam, Charnigo, Moffitt, Raine, Loeber, & Stouthamer-Loeber, 2009; Munoz & Frick, 2007).

Psychopathic traits and especially callous-unemotionallity are associated with childhood aggression and severe and persistent antisocial behavior (Brandt, Kennedy, Patrick, & Curtin, 1997; Dadds et al., 2005; Dolan & Rennie, 2006; Edens, Campbell, and Weir, 2007; Frick & White, 2008; Fanti, Frick, & Georgiou, 2009; Kruh, Frick, & Clements, 2005; Marsee, Silverthorn, & Frick, 2005). A study in Greek Cypriot adolescents revealed that the adolescents with higher levels of CU traits had a higher tendency to display behaviors of combined proactive and reactive aggression (Fanti, Frick, & Georgiou, 2008), Similar results were also evident in other cultures, Germany and USA, linking CU traits with aggressive and antisocial behavior in youth (Essau, Sasagawa & Frick, 2006; Kimonis, Frick, Skeem, Marsee, Cruise, Munoz, & Morris, 2008).

CU traits were found to be highly correlated with sensation seeking and particularly the disinhibition dimension of sensation seeking (Barry et al., 2000; Essau, Sasagawa, , & Frick, 2006; Frick, Cornell, Barry, et al., 2003). CU traits are usually positively correlated with fearlessness and thrill seeking behaviors (Blair & Coles, 2000; Essau et al., 2006; Frick et al., 1999; Pardini, 2006, 2012) and negatively correlated with measures of trait anxiety or neuroticism (Andershed, Gustafson, Kerr, & Stattin, 2002; Barry, Frick,

DeShazo, McCoy, Ellis, & Loney, 2000; Frick, Lilienfeld, Ellis, Loney, & Silverthorn, 1999; Kimonis et al., 2006; Lynam et al., 2005; Pardini et al., 2007).

Children with CU traits experience social skills deficiencies (Frick & Dantagnan 2005). Although one would expect that social skills deficits would result in a negative correlation between CU traits and assertiveness none the less there are research findings supporting that there is a positive association between CU traits and assertiveness (Roose, Bijttebier, Claes, Lilienfeld, De Fruyt & Decuyper, 2012; Salekin, Debus & Barker, 2010). Apparently the association between CU traits and assertiveness may depend on how the latter is defined. Based on these controversial results one of our hypothesis is to examine the relation of CU traits with assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness. Based on the literature reviewed we hypothesized that CU traits will be positively associated with aggressiveness and negatively with assertiveness and submissiveness.

Social and peer acceptance

Good peer relationships and supportive friendships play an enormous role in the positive development of children and adolescents. Some children seem to have difficulties developing healthy relations with peers and experience exclusion and victimization. Poor peer relations have been associated with victimization (Karatzias, Power, & Swasnson, 2002) and anxiety (Bond, Carlin, Thomas, Rubin, & Patton, 2001). Peer-relation difficulties in childhood are associated with serious adjustment, academic, social, and behavioral problems. The concept of social and peer acceptance includes the perceived assessment of acceptance by peers and also whether children have friends, if others view them as popular and if they are desirable as friends.

Social and emotional skills have been associated with positive peer relations. Skills in communication and interaction (to be able to invite or be invited in groups and know how to positively express feelings), emotional understanding and self-regulation are essential for interpersonal wellbeing. Well-adjusted youngsters with higher peer acceptance tend to have positive emotion regulation strategies and exhibit positive social behaviors. On the contrary youngsters with low acceptance by peers tend to have negative and problematic emotion regulation strategies and exhibit aggressive, antisocial and impulsive or withdrawn and submissive behavior. Aggressive children have been found to be significantly less popular than both assertive and submissive youths (Deluty, 1981). While it has been demonstrated that highly, assertive boys are more popular, have a higher peer acceptance and higher self-esteem, aggressive boys and girls have lower popularity and self-esteem (Deluty, 1981; Alberti & Emmons, 1971). In a study of children's emotion regulation and social competence it was supported that social competence and popularity

were negatively related to the involvement in aggression and conflicts (Fabes & Eisenberg, 1992). Although the connection between social competence and aggression has been established, a gap seems to exist in knowledge regarding the relation of peer acceptance and the social behaviours of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness. Based on the above it is hypothesized that children with low peer acceptance will show less assertiveness and perhaps more aggressiveness or submissiveness.

Victimization

Victimization is the situation in which an individual is repeatedly and systematically bullied by another individual or a group of individuals who are more powerful. Bullying is described as the repeated physical, verbal or psychological violence (like social exclusion) or pressure that is intended to cause fear, distress or harm to the victim and happens in certain interpersonal relationships characterized by an imbalance of power (Olweus, 1993). The social behavior of children is strongly related with the possibility to be victimized by peers (Graham & Juvonen, 1998; Hawker & Boulton, 2000) while socially skilled and assertive children have fewer possibilities to be victimized (Egan & Perry, 1998; Schwartz & Cowie, 1993). Instead, victims are usually children who are characterized as vulnerable, submissive or different from others (Boivin, Hymel & Bukowski, 1995; Schwartz, Dodge & Cowie 1993; Tanaka, 2001). Victimization is associated with anxiety, withdrawal, and difficulties in peer relationships and social functioning; it contributes to higher levels of various aspects of social anxiety, including fear of negative evaluation, social avoidance and inhibition (Boivin, Hymel & Bukowski, 1995; Kingery, Erdley, Marshall, Whitaker, & Reuter, 2010; Rubin, Chen, & Hymel, 1993; Schwartz, Dodge & Cowie 1993). Moreover victimization was also associated by other authors with submissive-withdrawn and introvert behavior, aggression and low levels of assertive behavior (Olweus, 1994; Schwartz, Dodge, Coie, Hubbard, Cillessen, Lemerise, & Bateman, 1998; Schwartz, Chang, & Farver, 2001). Examples of these characteristics are making less persuasion attempts and social conversation initiatives, and higher degrees of nonassertive behaviors, such as submission to peers' social initiatives (Schwartz, Dodge, & Coie, 1993). Based on these, the hypothesis derived is that victimization will be positively related to submissiveness and aggressiveness and negatively related to assertiveness.

Emotion Regulation

Emotional competence, described as the ability to act efficaciously in emotionally arousing situations, has been considered a vital component in children's adaptive social

functioning and psychological adjustment (Cicchetti, Ackerman, & Izard, 1995; Gross & Munoz, 1995; Hubbard & Coie, 1994). This competence is considered fundamental for the children's ability to interact socially and form interpersonal relationships (Parke, 1994). Part of emotional competence is defined by the skill of emotion regulation (Campos, Mumme, Kermoian, & Campos, 1994).

The emotion regulation strategies children use in order to adapt to daily environmental demands are very important for their general adjustment and are related to several indicators of the quality of individuals' social interactions (Lopes, Salovey, Côté, Beers, & Petty, 2005). The concept of emotion regulation has its origins in the psychoanalytic, stress and emotion regulation traditions (Gross, 1999) firstly used in the developmental literature in the early 1980s (Gaensbauer, 1982). Emotion regulation is defined as the "extrinsic and intrinsic processes responsible for monitoring, evaluating and modifying emotional reactions especially their intensive and temporal features, to accomplish one's goals" (Thompson, 1994, pp. 27-28). It refers to the processes intended to influence the emotions we have, when we have them, and how we experience and express them (Gross, 1998). Difficulties in emotion regulation have been associated with social anxiety (Kashdan, & Breen, 2008) and other mental disorders psychopathologies (Amelia, Nolen-Hoeksema, & Schweizer, 2010; Cicchetti, Ackerman, & Izard, 1995). It was in fact supported that emotion regulation deficiencies are associated with more than half of the disorders of Axis I disorders and of Axis II disorders based on the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, fourth edition ([DSM-IV]; American Psychiatric Association [APA], 1994) (Gross & Levenson, 1997).

Moreover studies with children and adolescents reported that poor emotion regulation strategies used in peer interaction yielded more externalizing behaviors (Rubin, Coplan, Fox, & Calkins, 1995). The inability to use good emotion regulation strategies to manage and control emotions has been associated with externalizing behaviors while at the same time poor emotion regulation of over-controlling emotions has been associated with internalizing problem behaviors (Zeman, Cassano, Perry-Parrish, & Stegall, 2006).

Garnefski, et al. (2001) described nine conceptually separate cognitive emotion regulation strategies, some adaptive and some less adaptive, that were examined in this research study in relation with other constructs. The adaptive strategies are: "Acceptance", "Positive refocusing", "Refocus on planning", "Positive reappraisal", "Putting into perspective". The less adaptive strategies are: "Self- blame", "Rumination", "Catastrophizing" and "Blaming others".

Based on the above we hypothesized that adaptive responses (acceptance, positive refocusing, refocus on planning, positive reappraisal, putting into perspective) will be positively associated with assertiveness and maladaptive responses (self-blame, rumination, catastrophizing and blaming others) and negatively associated with assertiveness.

Parenting

Parents can have a great impact on their children (Georgiou, 2008a; 2008b; Bardly & Farrington, 2000). Parents' impact on children's assertiveness will thus be another area of investigation in this research. The construct of parenting practices was examined in Study 3 since it is considered a main parameter in the developmental course of social skills development of children (Patterson, 1982, 1986) in order to reveal its relation to the development of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness and how this relation might be mediated by other factors of the child's social and personal characteristics.

The term of parenting covers a vast amount of research literature with various theories and definitions. The definition of parenting includes an array of socialization processes that describe parental behaviors and the interaction taken place in a child-parent relation. Social learning theory is considered one of the most dominant models describing the parent-child relationships closely linked with Bandura's previous work (1977) suggesting that children's behaviors are formed from their daily experiences based on the principles of reinforcement and conditioning. According to this theory, children act aggressively towards others less powerful than themselves because they repeat the daily aggressive interactions of their family members towards them (Patterson 1982, 1986). Gardner (1989) in an attempt to improve the theory of parenting added the positive dimensions of parenting (e.g. warmth and acceptance) supporting that positive parenting can promote positive behavior in children. Also other studies have revealed that high levels of parental responsiveness is considered a positive parenting practice (Georgiou, 2005; Maccoby & Martin, 1983) opposite to authoritative parenting that does not exhibit the same beneficial outcomes in children at least in western societies. On the contrary overprotective parenting increases the risk for developing both internalizing and externalizing psychopathologies (depression, anxiety, phobic disorders and disruptive, aggressive, and antisocial behavior) (Achenbach, McConaughy, & Howell, 1987; Arrindell, Emmelkamp, Monsma, & Brilman, 1983; Burbach, Kashani, & Rosenberg, 1989; Gerlsma, Snijders, Van Duijn, & Emmelkamp, 1997). Negative parenting practices in general have been associated with poor social and aggressive behavior, high levels of CU traits and lack of empathy.

Based on the above we hypothesized that positive parenting practices (emotional warmth, emotional rewards, material rewards) will be related with assertiveness and negative parenting practices (rejection, overprotection, venting of parent, withdrawal of parent, punishment and corporal punishment) will be related with aggressiveness or submissiveness.

Assertiveness, Aggressiveness and Submissiveness in relation to Gender and Age Group of children and adolescents

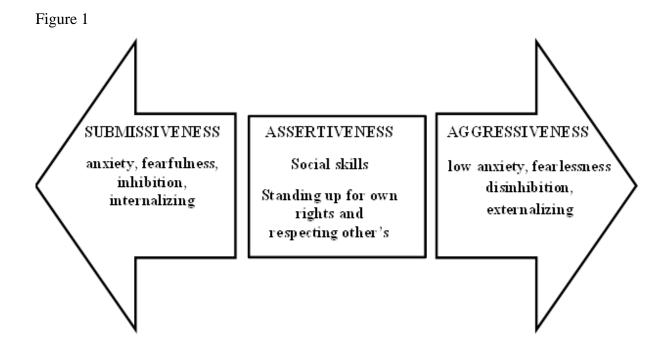
Cultural gender stereotypes influence communication according to whether the culture is predominantly masculine or whether there is equality between sex-roles (Gudykunst & Nishida, 1986). The construct of assertiveness is evidently influenced by factors like gender (Cook & St. Lawrence, 1990) and gender stereotypes. Assertiveness perceptions are influenced by gender and situational factors (Cook, & Lawrence, 1990). Previous research reported assertiveness to be perceived as a masculine (Galassi, et. al., 1974) and anti-feminine trait (Gervasio & Crawford, 1989). Recent cross-cultural findings of Costa, Terracciano & McCrae (2011) also support that assertiveness is reported in higher levels in men than in women.

Sex differences in assertive expression and reception are evident from an early age according to research evidence (Jakubowski & Spector, 1973; Lao et.al., 1975; Deluty, 1981). Nevertheless research evidence is contradicting since some studies support that boys are more in favor of aggressive alternatives than girls (Deluty, 1983) and usually boys get a higher score on aggressiveness and lower score on assertiveness in self-report measures (Deluty, 1979, 1981c). Contrary to the above, a different study on college students and adults from 26 cultures showed higher assertiveness in men than women (Costa, Terracciano & McCrae, 2001). Additional studies explained that the sex differences in assertive or aggressive behavior also varied depending on the situation, where for example male college students showed higher assertiveness in public situations and when questioning a person of high status, but showed less assertiveness in dating situations contrary to women who showed higher assertiveness in private interpersonal and in dating situations but showed less assertive in questioning a person of high status (Mathison & Tucker, 1982). Furthermore a study with US university students revealed that males where more assertive when displaying negative feelings and females where more assertive when expressing and dealing with personal limitations (Bridges,

Sanderman, Breukers, Ranchor & Arrindell, 1991). Based on the abovementioned literature boys were expected to be more assertive than girls as this hypothesis was examined in Study 1.

Age was another factor examined in Study 1 since assertiveness was also expected to be associated with age (Deluty, 1981; Ollendick, 1984) like many other social skills. Based on the different social, cognitive and emotional changes that happen during the transition period from childhood to adolescence together with previous research evidence suggesting that children are expected to be more assertive as they grow older (Deluty, 1981; Ollendick, 1984) it was hypothesized that age will be positively associated with assertiveness and negatively associated with aggressiveness.

In this research study we present four studies that examine the nomological network of assertiveness and its predictors. In all four studies the data were collected with questionnaires from children's and parents and also vignettes from children while the statistical analyses were conducted on these data. In Study 1, we examined the nomological network of assertiveness, as this was measured in children, using two wellestablished instruments, the Children's Action Tendency Scale (CATS; Deluty, 1979) and the Children's Assertiveness Inventory (CAI, Ollendick, 1983). In Study 2 we attempted to further examine the nomological network of assertiveness with the use of vignettes that were developed for the needs of the study and have not been previously used in the study of assertiveness. Study 3 aimed to add knowledge to the nomological network of assertiveness, by examining child assertiveness in relation to family factors and specifically parenting practices. In Study 4 we examined the mediation effects of psychopathic traits and social anxiety of children on the relation between parenting practices and assertiveness in order to examine the mechanisms that link parenting practices with assertiveness and how this relation is changed when specific internal characteristics of the child are evident.



CHAPTER 2: GENERAL METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research methodology used in this dissertation presenting the research techniques and the design implemented, which concern all the studies that are analytically presented in the following chapters.

2.1. Participants

For the implementation of the research an approval was granted, by the Ministry of Education and Culture (Department of Educational Research) and the National Bioethics Committee. The target population for the present research study was students and student's parents of junior, elementary and lyceum schools in Cyprus. Participating schools were randomly selected from the schools list found on the webpage of the Ministry of Education and Culture. After the schools were randomly selected for participation, the researcher contacted the head teacher of each school and explained the aims and methods of the research thus securing consent for the participation of the school. To all the schools that declared participation interest a letter was sent describing the research aims and procedure together with the letter of approval from the Ministry of Education and Culture. Following the consent of the schools to participate in the research all children from these schools above 10 years old were considered eligible to participate in the study. Then an envelope containing a cover letter, an informed consent form to be signed by the parents and the contact information of the researcher was given to each student.

Participants were selected from 19 junior high schools (5th the 6th grade), 3 lyceums (1st and 2nd grade) and 3 elementary schools (1st, 2nd and 3rd grade) (Table 1). The population of the study resided in the areas of Nicosia, Larnaca, Pafos and Ammochostos district. The total number of participants was 923 students of which 370 were boys (40.1%) and 553 were girls (59.9%). Their age ranged for 10 years old to 17 years old. The final criterion for student's participation in the research was the signing of the consent form by the parents. Regarding parents' participation in the research, 496 (43%) were fathers with a mean age of 44 years old and 659 mothers (57%) with a mean age of 41 years old. In terms of the socioeconomic status of the family (SES), information was gathered regarding the parents' education (Table 2), economic status of the family (Table 3) and family origin information (Table 4), showing that the sample was stratified and representative of the Cyprus population (www.cystat.gov.cy, 2015).

Due to the fact that only a few of the participating children had returned questionnaires from both their parents and also because fewer fathers than mothers

responded, the following analytic approach was taken. For the analyses of parental influences, it was deemed acceptable that one of the two parents or both parents answered the questionnaires. All cases were included for whom the mother responded. For missing cases of mothers, the father's data pertaining to the specific child were included, so that for all children that had data from only one parent were included in the research. In this way, the entire children sample was considered in the analyses.

2.2. Procedure

Parents' questionnaires were sent at home in a closed envelop, for all the parents that accepted to participate. Answered questionnaires were then sent back to school through the students and were given to the class teacher and then to the researcher. Student's questionnaires were administrated to students that agreed to participate according to research procedures, in class during school time. The aims and procedures of the study were explained to the students in detail before administrating the questionnaires. The students were informed that the research study aimed at studying behaviors and thoughts of children and adolescents. Students were also informed that their participation is voluntary and confidentiality will be kept. The importance of completing the questionnaires as accurately and honestly as possible was underlined along with the fact that there is no right or wrong answer. It was also made clear that the questionnaires will not be graded and nobody, except from the researchers, will have access to the answers. The questionnaires were administered by a group of undergraduate and graduate research assistants that were trained for this task.

The questionnaires instruments' administration order was randomized in order to avoid possible order effects. Each questionnaire package was given a unique code number corresponding with the parent's questionnaires. For the CATS questionnaire, which has a more complex response format, instructions were read out loud and explained to children. Researches were available in case of any questions during the whole completion session.

2.3. Measures

Information on the scales used in the present study is presented below. In cases where the instruments were already standardized and adapted into Greek, no further validation was undertaken in the present study and only current reliabilities are reported. Similarly, in cases were isolated single or two subscales of an instrument were used, reliability was based on the original items included in that subscale. For instruments that have not been validated into Greek previously, exploratory factor analysis was undertaken with a forced solution requesting the expected number of the original factors. Based on

this, fit and acceptability of items was examined, poor fitting items were removed and reliabilities were calculated on the basis of the final Greek subscales.

2.3.1. Child completed measures

Assertiveness, Aggressiveness, Submissiveness

Two well-known measures of assertive behavior were included in child the questionnaire package. The Children's Action Tendency Scale (CATS; Deluty, 1979) was used to measure assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness and the Children's Assertiveness Inventory (CAI, Ollendick, 1983) was also used to measure assertiveness. Both of these measures are described further down but more detailed psychometric analysis in done in Study 1 that follows.

The Children's Action Tendency Scale (CATS)

Deluty (1979) developed the Children's Action Tendency Questionnaire (CATS) in an effort to build a valid assessment tool, that would allow the identification of children that would benefit from a social skills training program and to be able to assess the efficacy of such programs (Deluty, 1984). The Children's Action Tendency Scale (CATS; Deluty, 1979) is a self-report instrument of children's tendency to display aggressiveness, assertiveness, and submissiveness in their social behavior. The design of the questionnaire aimed to unbind aggression from assertion by developing separate indices of aggressiveness, assertiveness and submissiveness. The questionnaire consists of 13 conflict situations of frustration, provocation, conflict or loss followed by three response alternatives presented in a paired-comparisons forced choice format (Deluty, 1983). Thus for each conflict situation there are three combinations of alternative answers: assertive vs aggressive answer, assertive vs submissive answer and aggressive vs submissive answer. One answer for every dichotomy must be circled resulting in 3 answers for each one of the 13 conflict situations. The number of aggressive, submissive and assertive answers circled constitutes the aggressive, submissive, assertive score respectively. The score on a particular dimension can range from 0 to 26 with the maximum sum total of the assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness score always corresponding to 39 (Deluty, 1979). The scale includes statements such as: "You're playing a game with your friends. You try your very best but you keep making mistakes. Your friends start teasing you and calling you names. What would you do?

a. Quit the game and come home or b. Punch the kid who's teasing me the most

- a. Tell them to stop because they wouldn't like it if I did it to them or b. Quit the game and come home
- a. Punch the kid who's teasing me the most or b. Tell them to stop because they wouldn't like it if I did it to them"

This format of answering was chosen in order to eliminate the cases of children always choosing the socially desirable assertive response. By opposing the three alternatives, the one against the other, the relative strength of each response could be assessed (Deluty, 1984).

The Children's Assertiveness Inventory (CAI)

Assertiveness of children was also measured in the present study using the Children's Assertiveness Inventory (CAI, Ollendick, 1983) for purposes of convergent validation of the construct. The CAI is a self-report instrument designed to assess children's assertive responses and can identify withdrawn/submissive children and assess children's social interaction skills (Ollendick, 1981). Unlike the CATS, it does not have subscales measuring submissiveness and aggressiveness, as the authors see the construct as a continuum from submissiveness to high assertiveness. The scale consists of 14 items describing social situations, 7 describing assertive responding in positive situations and 7 in negative situations. The answers to the questions are in a categorical "yes" or "no" format. The sum of the total score on the scale can range from 0-14 with higher scores reflecting higher levels of assertiveness and lower scores reflecting lower levels of assertiveness. The scale includes statements such as: "When you first meet someone your age, do you start talking with them?", "When someone your age tells you that you look nice, do you disagree with them?", and "When someone your age tells you they want to play a game but you don't feel like it, do you play with them anyway?"

Externalizing Behaviors

Externalizing Behaviors were measured by administrating the following questionnaires: Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM) with the subscales of Boldness, Meanness and Disinhibition, Inventory of Callous- Unemotional Traits (ICU) for parents and the Novelty Seeking Subscale from the Junior Temperament and Character Inventory for parents (JTCI) (JTCI and ICU are described further down in the parent completed measures). The main aim of this cluster of measures was to assess aggressive behavior and antisocial traits.

Psychopathy measured with TriPM

The Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM) is a 58-item self-report measure indexing psychopathology through the three phenotypic domains of boldness (19 items), meanness (19 items) and disinhibition (20 items) (Patrick, 2010). The answers of the inventory are rated on a 4-point Likert-type scale (mostly false, false, mostly true, true) representing the degree to which the personal characteristics described in each item characterize the individual. The scale includes statements such as: "I'm optimistic more often than not", "I often act on immediate needs" and "I have no strong desire to parachute out of an airplane".

Psychometric properties of the TriPM were established through the study of Patrick (2010) reporting high internal consistency reliability with a Cronbach alpha range of .77 to .88. Good convergent and discriminant validity was found between the three TriPM scales, Boldness, Meanness, and Disinhibition and other theoretically related measures of the constructs underlying each of the three triarchic domains. Validation has also been done for the Greek Cypriot Translation of the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure, which exhibited acceptable internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha range from .79 to .82 (Fanti, Kyranides, Drislane, Colins, & Andershed, 2015). The factor structure of the instrument was also well maintained in the Greek validation. Reliability analysis was conducted for the subscales used in this study based on this study's data (Table 5).

Anxiety

Aspects of anxiety that are potentially relevant to assertive behavior were measured through the constructs of social anxiety and harm avoidance by administrating the following questionnaires: Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory-Brief form (SPAI-B) and the subscale of Harm Avoidance from the Junior Temperament and Character Inventory for parents (JTCI, described further down in the parent completed measures).

Social Phobia and Anxiety

Social Anxiety of the children was measured with the Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory-Brief form (SPAI-B). The SPAI-B is a 16-item brief form derived from the original 45-item named Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory (SPAI; Turner, Beidel, Dancu, &Stanley, 1989). It is a self-report inventory consistent with the original scale and psychometric properties and can be used to assess cognitive, behavioral and somatic symptoms of social anxiety. It is specifically designed for screening for social anxiety, unlike the original SPAI that also screens for agoraphobia. SPAI-B items are answered on a 5 point Likert scale format (1=never, 2=infrequent, 3=sometimes, 4=frequent, 5=always). Items 15 and 16 are comprised of sub-items related to somatic symptoms and so they are

both scored as the average of each one's sub-items. The SPAI-B score is the sum of item ratings minus 16 resulting to a total score range 0-64. The scale includes statements such as: "I feel anxious when I am in a social situation and I become the center of attention", "I feel anxious when I am in a social situation and I am expected to engage in some activity", "I feel anxious when making a speech in front of an audience" and "I feel anxious when in a small gathering with other people".

Psychometric properties of the SPAI-B were established through the study of Garcia-Lopez et. al. (2008), reporting high internal consistency with a Cronbach alpha .92, moderate test-retest reliability .60 and concurrent validity range .61 and .88. Previous studies in adolescents have demonstrated a one factor solution for SPAI B where all items load on a single dimension of social anxiety (Garcia-Lopez et al., 2008, 2015).

The psychometric properties of the SPAI-B have not been examined in a Greek Cypriot population before. In the current study the measure of SPAI-B was examined using exploratory factor analysis with the total sample using SPSS. All variables appeared to load on a single factor which explained 41% of the total variance so a one-factor solution was adopted, suggesting that all items tap different aspects of a single higher-order dimension, social anxiety, similar to what was found in the original standardization. In this study, the scale, based on the original factor structure, has demonstrated excellent internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha coefficient = .90) (Table 5).

Peer relations

Peer relations were measured by administrating the following questionnaires: Self-Perception Profile for Children and Adolescents, Social Acceptance Subscale and the Student Survey of Bullying Behavior-Revised (SSBB-R), Victimization subscale.

Social Acceptance

Self-Perception Profile for Children and Adolescents, Social Acceptance/Competence Subscale is a self-report measure which is part of the General Self-worth Scale (Harter, 1985). The Self-perception profile, social acceptance subscale includes six items assessing acceptance by peers and also whether children have friends and view themselves as popular. Items are scored on a five point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3= neither agree nor disagree, 4= agree, 5=strongly agree) with higher scores indicating higher levels of perceived social acceptance. The subscale includes statements such as: "I would like to have a lot more friends", "I am popular with others my age", "I am always doing things with a lot of kids" and "I wish that more people my age liked me".

Psychometric properties of the Self-Perception Profile for Children and Adolescents were established by the author of the measure (Harter, 1985), reporting high internal consistency reliability with a Cronbach alpha range from .75 to .84 for the Social Acceptance/Competence subscale. Another study also provided evidence for the psychometric properties of the Social Acceptance/Competence subscale reporting a satisfactory reliability of α =.80 (Muris, Meesters, & Fijen, 2003). The General Self-worth Scale was also used in the Cyprus population where for the specific research the Cronbach α was .82 (Kokkinos & Panayiotou, 2004). A reliability analysis was conducted for this scale based on this study's data. Reliability for this subscale is low, but all item correlations were above .2 and there was no item that if deleted would give a higher Cronbach α (Table 5).

Victimization

The Student Survey of Bullying Behavior-Revised (SSBB-R; Varjas, Meyers, & Hunt, 2006) is a self-report questionnaire measuring school-bullying, school-victimization, cyberbullying and cybervictimization. For the purposes of this study only the victimization subscale was administered. The Victimization subscale consists of 12 items and measures how often different types of victimization happened to the individual reporting on an ordinal scale of: never, once or twice a year, monthly, weekly, or daily, in order to assess physical, verbal, and relational victimization (e.g., "How often do older, bigger, more popular, or more powerful kids pick on you by hitting or kicking you?") (Fanti & Kimonis, 2012).

Validation of the victimization subscale in previous studies, in Cyprus population, revealed high reliability with a Cronbach's alpha .90 (Fanti, Demetriou, & Hawa, 2012) and also an association between the SSBB-R and measures of aggression and coping (Fanti, & Kimonis, 2012; Fanti, Frick, & Georgiou, 2009). Reliability analysis was conducted for this scale based on this study's data (Table 5).

2.3.2. Parent completed measures

Temperament and personality characteristics

Temperament and personality characteristics of the children were measured using the Junior Temperament and Character Inventory for parents. The Junior Temperament and Character Inventory (JTCI; Luby, Svrakic, Mccallum, Przybeck, & Cloninger, 1999) is a parent-report measure of temperament and emerging personality characteristics of children, adapted from the Temperament and Character Inventory (TCI; Cloninger, Przybeck, & Svrakic, 1991) the original version of which was based on the psychobiological model of temperament and character traits (Cloninger, Przybeck,

Svrakic, & Wetzel, 1994). The JTCI consists of 108 items and seven subscales and has a version for children and for parents. For the purposes of this study two temperament subscales were included: novelty seeking with 18 items: e.g., "Even when my child is aware of potential danger, he/she will still take risks" and harm avoidance with 22 items: e.g., "When my child attempts something new, he/she usually feels very nervous".

Studies using the JTCI have revealed a very good reliability and validity in a number of large-scale and cross-cultural studies (Svrakic, Przybeck, & Cloninger, 1991; Bayon, Hill, Svrakic, Przybeck, & Cloninger, 1996). One of the first studies that measured the psychometric properties of the JTCI supported the internal validity of the scale with an acceptable Cronbach a above .50 for all scales except the reward dependence and selftranscendence (Luby, Svrakic, Mccallum, Przybeck, & Cloninger, 1999). Other studies evaluating the psychometric properties of the JTCI followed where in a community French sample of children both internal consistency and external validity were adequate and higher for the parent rated JTCI than the child rated version of the scale. Specifically for the French sample validation Cronbach α were above 0.70 for all subscales except for reward dependence and self-transcendence except for RD and ST in the parent rated version (Asch, Cortese, Diaz, Pelissolo, Aubron, Orejarena, Acquaviva, Mouren, Michel, Gorwood, & Purper-Ouakil, 2009). Finally the Norwegian JTCI also revealed good psychometric properties for the scale with Cronbach α range .78 -.84 (Vangberg, Eisemann, Waterloo, Richter, Rozsa, & Cloninger, 2013). Reliability analysis was conducted for the two subscales used in this study based on this study's data. Based in the item total correlation the items with a correlation below .20 were removed (Table 5).

Callous- Unemotional Traits

Callous-unemotional (CU) traits were measured with the Inventory of Callous-Unemotional Traits (ICU) for parents (ICU; Frick, 2004). The ICU is composed of a total of 24 items, 12 positively worded and 12 negatively worded. The ICU items result in three factors namely callus unremorseful ("I feel bad or guilty when I do something wrong", reverse scored), unconcerned ("I am concerned about the feelings of others", reverse scored) and unemotional ("I do not show my emotions to others"). Items are scored on a five-point, Likert-type scale (5 = absolutely true, 4 = somewhat true, 3 = ambivalent, 2 = slightly true, 1 = not true at all). All items also load on a total single high order Callous Unemotional factor (Essau, Sasagawa &Frick, 2006; Fanti et. al. 2008).

Psychometric properties of the ICU have been established through some recent studies. The study of Fanti, et al. (2009) in a Greek Cypriot population reported satisfactory psychometric properties of the self-report ICU with Cronbach's alpha range

from .68 to .79. Furthermore the study of Roose, Bijttebier, Decoene, Claes, and Frick (2009) reported acceptable to good internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha range for .73 to .89 on all three subscales and the total scale. The same research also showed a higher validity for the combined version (self-report, teacher and parents) of the ICU than for the self-report version, suggesting that validity confirmation can be generalized on all ICU versions (Roose et. al., 2009). The validity of the self-reported versions of the ICU in community and high-risk samples in Cyprus is sustained as demonstrated by previous research (Fanti et al., 2009). The study of Fanti and Hawa (2012) also showed a high validity of the scale with Cronbach's alpha .90 but 2 items (2 and 10) where deleted from the total score due to low corrected item correlation. Finally the study of Fantis, Demetriou and Kimonis (2013) in a Greek Cypriot population also demonstrated adequate internal consistency Cronbach's alpha .80. Reliability analysis was conducted for the subscales of the measure based on this study's data (Table 5).

Emotion Regulation

Cognitive Emotion Regulation of the children was measured using the Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire-short, CERQ-short (Garnefski & Kraaij, 2006). This questionnaire is a self-report measure that was adapted for the needs of this study and it was completed by parents to report for their children. The CERQ-short is an 18 item scale adapted from the original CERQ (Garnefski, Kraaij and Spinhoven, 2001). The short version of CERQ reduced the number of items in each scale from four to two and kept all nine conceptual scales as in the original questionnaire, in order to retain validity. The scale includes statements such as: when my child experiences a negative or an unpleasant event, generally "thinks that he/she has to accept that this has happened", "often thinks about how he/she feels about what he/she has experienced", "thinks that he/she can learn something from the situation", "feels that he/she is the one who is responsible for what has happened".

Garnefski, et al. (2001) described in the CERQ questionaire nine conceptually separate emotion regulation strategies: self-blame, other-blame, rumination, catastrophizing, positive refocusing, planning, positive reappraisal, putting into perspective, acceptance. The adaptive strategies are: "Acceptance" is the strategy of having thoughts of acceptance and resignation in regard to an experience, "Positive refocusing" is the strategy of having positive, happy and pleasant thoughts instead of thinking about threatening and stressful events, "Refocus on planning" is the strategy of having thoughts about what to do and how to handle an experience, "Positive reappraisal" is the strategy of having thoughts the goal of which is to give a positive meaning to the

negative events in terms of personal growth, "Putting into perspective" is the strategy of having thoughts that relativize the negative event compared to other events. The less adaptive strategies are: "Self- blame" that refers to the strategy of having thoughts that blame oneself for what one has experienced, "Rumination" is the strategy of having thoughts about the feelings and thoughts that are associated with negative events, "Catastrophizing" is the strategy of having thoughts that emphasize the negativity of the experience and "Blaming others" is the strategy of having thoughts that blame others for what one has experienced.

Psychometric properties of the CERQ-short were established in the study of Garnefski & Kraaij (2006) where each strategy's internal reliability score was acceptably high with Cronbach's alpha range from .73 to .81 and the lowest alpha, .67, for the self-blame scale. For the purposes of this study the original scales of the short version were used and reliability analysis was conducted for each of the two item subscale. Reliability analysis was conducted for this scale based on this study's data (Table 5). Although the measure has not been previously validated in Greek, it was deemed inappropriate to use factor analyses for validation of the sub-scale structure because the sub-scales are derived conceptually from items of a longer scale and not from factor analytic results. Also, no factor analytic results exist regarding the brief version to provide a standard of comparison.

2.3.3. Data analysis plan

Statistical screening of the data on the univariate and multivariate levels (Kline, 1998; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2000) was first conducted in order to ensure that there was no multicollinearity in the data, since multivariate tests are sensitive to extremely high correlations among predictor variables. Data screening analysis comprised of the descriptive statistics for all the variables, linearity and homoscedasticity, normality, multivariate outliers, multicollinearity and singularity. Frequencies analysis was also conducted to ascertain valid percent for responses from the participants to all the questions in the survey and corrections were made if incorrect entries were found.

Table 1

Number of participants as a function of gender and school grade level

		<u>Grade</u>	
Gender	Junior School	Elementary School	Lyceum
	Grades 5 th and 6 th	Grades 1 st , 2 nd & 3 rd	Grades 1 st & 2 nd
Females	215	209	129
Males	157	151	62
Total	372	360	191

Table 2

Parent's educational level

Educational Level	<u>Mother</u>	<u>Father</u>
Not completed primary school	0,6%	0,6%
Primary school	2,4%	4,7%
Elementary school	11,6%	14,2%
High school	47,2%	46,7%
University degree	27,8%	20,5%
Master's degree	9,8%	11%
PhD degree	6%	2,2%

Table 3
Family financial situation

Family financial situation	% reported by mothers	% reported by fathers	% mean
Very bad	1.7	1.2	1.4
Quite bad	3.8	3.5	3.6
Bad	6.9	8.1	8.8
Medium	38.6	39.2	38.9
Good	28.9	31.5	30.2
Quite good	16.5	13.8	15.0
Very good	3.5	2.6	3.0

Table 4
Sample Demographic Characteristics as a Function of Parents and Maternal Nationality

Nationality	<u>Fathers</u> (%)	Mothers (%)
Greek Cypriot	92.3	87
Other nationality	6.3	12.5

Cronbach's alpha of the scales of Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory-Brief form (SPAI-B), Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM), Self-Perception Profile for Children and Adolescents, Social Acceptance Subscale, Student Survey of Bullying Behaviour-Revised (SSBB-R), Victimization Subscale, Junior Temperament and Character Inventory for parents (JTCI), Inventory of Callous- Unemotional Traits (ICU) for parents, Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (CERQ)

Table 5

Construct	Cronbach's	<u>Items removed</u>
	<u>alpha</u>	
Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory-Brief	.90	
My memories of upbringing -		
Rejection	.66	
Emotional Warmth	.77	
Overprotection	.72	
Triarchic Psychopathy Measure		
Boldness	.66	
Meanness	.83	
Disinhibition	.80	
Self-Perception Profile		
Social Acceptance	.56	
Student Survey of Bullying Behavior-Revised		
Victimization Subscale	.91	
Junior Temperament and Character Inventory		
Harm Avoidance	.82	34,49,66,88,91,106
Novelty Seeking	.71	47,65,92
Inventory of Callous-Unemotional Traits		
Callus Unemotional total	.84	17
Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire		
Self-blame	.66	
Other blame	.71	
Focus on thought – rumination	.62	
Catastrophizing	.63	
Positive refocusing	.52	
Refocus on planning	.63	
Positive reappraisal	.60	
Putting into perspective	.53	
Acceptance	.71	

CHAPTER 3: STUDIES ON ASSERTIVENESS

Study 1

The nomological network of childhood assertiveness: Examination of the assertiveness construct in Cyprus using two well established measures.

Introduction

The aim of the present investigation was to examine the nomological network of assertiveness, as this was measured in children and adolescents, using two well-established instruments, the Children's Action Tendency Scale (CATS; Deluty, 1979) and the Children's Assertiveness Inventory (CAI; Ollendick, 1983). The necessity of the current study resides in the fact that, besides the research on assertiveness interventions and training, there is still a need for a better understanding of the nature of assertiveness, how it can be operationalized and what its boundaries are. Moreover, there is little prior research on delineating if assertiveness, submissiveness and aggressiveness in communication are poles of the same continuum or if they are independent constructs.

The correlates of assertiveness, submissiveness and aggressiveness with other relevant constructs is a research area that has been markedly limited over the last few decades and was examined in the present study. Specifically the present study aimed at examining what assertiveness is and how it relates a) to non-assertive styles of communication such as aggressiveness and submissiveness and b) to other constructs that phenomenologically should be related to increased or decreased assertiveness, such as anxiety, socialization characteristics, externalizing behaviors and emotion regulation strategies. Therefore, it was deemed necessary to establish the nomological network of the construct, in two ways. Firstly, the psychometric properties and factor structure for the two assertiveness instruments used in this study were examined. This was especially important for the CATS since there were no previous factor analytic studies examining its content validity. Secondly the association between assertive and non-assertive behavior in relation to other traits and behaviors of the child was addressed through correlation analyses that investigated the relations between the constructs and regression models examining the predictive role of external variables on assertive and non-assertive behavior.

The construct of assertiveness was examined mostly in the 1970s and following the great interest that this topic provoked, training in assertiveness has become a dominant and mainstream component of most communication skills interventions and most cognitive

behavioral treatment protocols (Bredemeier, 1994; Kenny, Capri, Ryan, & Runyon, 2008; Nezu, Nezu & Arean, 1991; Weitlauf, Smith & Cervone, 2000). However since then, little empirical research has been conducted to fully explicate the construct of assertiveness and its correlates and predictors in order to find ways to promote the acquisition of assertiveness skills and the effectiveness of assertiveness protocols and training.

Literature review

Assertiveness

Assertiveness is considered a multidimensional construct and although it has been defined differently, by different researchers, there are basic elements of the definition that are generally agreed upon. The majority of the research describes assertiveness as the ability of a person to 1) assert personal rights and 2) express opinions, beliefs and feelings appropriately through self-advocacy. Assertiveness definitions have also put an emphasis on individual rights describing assertiveness as a way to promote equality in human relationships, enabling individuals to stand up for themselves through honest expression of feelings (Alberti & Emmons, 1990) needs and wants without aggressive and forceful methods (Galassi & Galassi, 1978) and without violating the rights of others (Alberti & Emons, 1978). Assertiveness is undoubtedly an important behavioral, social and interpersonal communication skill related to communication competence (Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984; Zakahi, 1985). Social skills have been described as groups of social behaviors - verbal and non-verbal - used by the individual in interpersonal situations. Attaining the skill of assertiveness is a critical component for mental wellbeing and social development in children and adolescents (Gresham & Elliot, 1990).

Assertiveness is therefore generally acknowledged as an interpersonal communication competence (Richmond & McCroskey, 1992; Zakahi, 1985) and is perceived as a more socially accepted competent and attractive behavior than unassertiveness (Cook & St. Lawrence, 1990; Henderson, & Furnham, 1982). Assertive people exhibit high levels of verbal and nonverbal skills that enable them to refuse unreasonable requests from others, express requests and feelings according to their personal needs (Herringer, 1998) and initiate and end interactions with others appropriately (Richmond & McCroskey, 1992). They are also able to express and receive appropriate credit for their accomplishments. All of these characteristics are conducive to improved relationships, higher self-esteem and better socio-emotional health.

Nonassertive behaviors

Submissiveness

Submissiveness has been described as a behavior that involves anxiety, inhibition and withdrawal in conflict situations (Gilbert, 1992). Submissiveness is associated with avoidant behavior because of the stress created in a situation demanding assertive behavior (Plax, Kearney, & Beatty, 1985) and can be expressed as submissiveness where someone is not standing up for their own rights (Alberti & Emmons, 1971). Submissive behavior is associated with psychopathology and typically involves characteristics of low social confidence (Davidson, Zisook, Giller & Helms, 1989), passivity, inhibition and experiences of defeat (Gilbert, 1992). Being submissive is usually involuntary and thus leads to suppression and distress. Involuntarily complying with the demands of others is usually accompanied by inhibition, escape, avoidance and passivity in conflict situations with others, all behaviors closely linked with different forms of psychopathology (Gilbert, 1992; Sloman, Price, Gilbert & Gardner, 1994). Submissive behavior is associated with victimization and anxiety (Panayiotou, Lazarou & Fanti, 2014) in children as well as depression (Arrindell et al., 1990) fear and avoidance, anxiety, inhibition and withdrawal in conflict situations (Allan & Gilbert, 1997; Gilbert, 1992 Trower & Gilbert 1989).

Aggressiveness

Aggressiveness has been described as "a hostile act involving self-expression at the expense of others, in contrast to a submissive response which is a non-hostile act that involves considering the feelings, power, or authority of others while denying (or not standing up) one's own rights and feelings" (Deluty, 1979, 1981c). Aggressiveness in adults can be regarded as a group of mechanisms used to assert one self, to gain or to defend resources from others by harmful damaging means that are often motivated by emotions like lack of fear, frustration, anger, feelings of stress, dominance or pleasure (Wahl & Metzner, 2012). Aggressiveness, impulsivity and overconfidence on adults have positive correlations with psychopathological symptoms like hostility, paranoid ideation, and psychoticism (Landazabal, 2006). Aggressive children have an externalizing profile and are characterized as less agreeable, less conscientious, more neurotic and impulsive (Asendorpf, Denissen, & van Aken, 2008).

Predictors and correlates of assertive and non-assertive behavior

A literature review has yielded some viable hypotheses about specific constructs of childhood personality traits and behavior, like anxiety traits, externalizing behaviors, socialization characteristics and emotion regulation strategies that could be associated with assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness and were examined in this study in order to explicate the nomological network of assertiveness.

Anxiety traits: Regarding anxiety traits the constructs of social anxiety and harm avoidance were examined in this study. Social anxiety appears to be particularly related to assertiveness (or its absence) as by definition it is described as a condition in which the most commonly feared situations include attending social gatherings, meeting new people, performing in front of others and in assertiveness situations, dealing with authority figures and assertively saying no to unreasonable requests or asking others to change their behaviors (Rapee, 1995). Social anxiety in children has a similar pattern of negative cognitions, regarding social evaluation, as in adults. Children with social phobia are characterized by behavioral inhibition, introversion, shyness, avoidance, anxiety sensitivity and social skills inadequacy (Beidel, Turner & Morris, 1999) and thus are less likely to be assertive in their behavior.

Social skills impairment has been assumed to be one of the dominant aspects of social anxiety disorder (SAD) (Angélico, Crippa, & Loureiro, 2013) in children. In non-clinical populations, submissiveness is associated with the personality traits of neuroticism and introversion (Gilbert, & Allan, 1994; Price et al., 1994; Sloman et al., 1994), both of which are critical components of social anxiety. Based on the above it is hypothesized that children with higher SAD symptoms will display low assertive behavior and greater submissive behavior, as assertiveness is considered a core social skill.

For the purposes of this study, the temperamental dimension of "Harm avoidance", as described by Cloninger's (1993) personality model, will also be examined in the group variables under the title of anxiety traits. Individuals with high harm avoidance are anxious, worried, pessimistic, fearful, shy and avoidant (Cloninger, 2000; Richter, Krecklow & Eisemann, 2002). Harm avoidance is the individual's predisposition to respond with extreme withdrawal and inhibition to aversive stimuli or their associated signals. The harm avoidance scale includes statements like "I often feel tense and worried in unfamiliar situations, even when others feel there is no danger at all" (Cloninger et. al., 1994). Harm avoidance is prognostic for the development of anxiety disorders and is highly related to temperamental fearfulness. As a trait, it is negatively related to novelty seeking (Cloninger, 1986) and these two temperamental traits might distinguish between two broad categories of psychopathology, of internalizing and externalizing problems respectively, with novelty seeking being positively related to externalizing problems and harm avoidance related to internalizing problems (Asch, et. al., 2009; Copeland, Landry, Stanger & Hudziak, 2004). In an effort to examine the relation of the main variables of this

research and based on the evidence that low assertiveness is a characteristic of avoidant personality and avoidant behaviors, and that high assertiveness is a characteristic of extraversion (Wiggins & Pincus, 1989) it was hypothesized that harm avoidance, as a temperamental dimension characterized by inhibition and anxiety, would be positively associated with submissiveness and negatively associated with assertiveness.

Socialization characteristics: Regarding socialization characteristics the constructs of peer acceptance and victimization were examined in this study. Peer acceptance is a part of interpersonal functioning and includes the perceived assessment of acceptance by peers and also whether children have friends and view themselves as popular. Interpersonal functioning, secure and close relationships with others is vital for mental wellbeing and happiness. Research on peer relations has pointed out some social and emotional skills, like cooperative play, communication and interaction, emotional understanding and self-regulation, social problem-solving and conflict resolution skills, which are associated with positive peer relations (Bandy & Moore, 2010; Bierman, & Erath, 2004; Rubin, Bukowski & Parker, 1998). Previous studies using the CATS have demonstrated that submissiveness and assertiveness are positively correlated with social desirability and popularity while aggressiveness is negatively correlated with social desirability and popularity (Deluty, 1979, 1981; Ollendick 1981; Weist & Ollendick, 1991). Along the same lines, Alberti and Emmons (1971) posited that the ability to express one-self assertively is likely to result in greater self-acceptance and social adjustment. Based on the above it was expected that low peer acceptance would be associated with aggressive behavior whereas high peer acceptance would be associated with assertive behavior.

Another construct included in the category of variables termed socialization characteristics of the child, which has been found to be related to assertiveness, is victimization which is described as the situation in which an individual is repeatedly and systematically being bullied by another individual or a group of individuals who are more powerful. Bullying is described as the repeated physical, verbal or psychological violence (including social exclusion) or pressure that is intended to cause fear, distress or harm to the victim and happens in certain interpersonal relationships characterized by an imbalance of power (Olweus, 1993). Children experiencing victimization tend to show low self-esteem (Austin & Joseph, 1996) and low self-confidence (Khatri, Kupersmidt, & Patterson, 2000; Slee, 1995) together with characteristics of insecurity, shyness, submissiveness and introversion (Schwartz, Proctor, & Chien, 2001). Victims are usually children who are

characterized as vulnerable, submissive or different from others (Tanaka, 2001). They are typically characterized by loneliness, and poor peer relationships (Bond, Carlin, Thomas, Rubin, & Patton, 2001; Crick & Grotpeter, 1995) since they are seen as deviating from the norm (Eslea & Mukhtar, 2000) and so are not popular with peers (Olweus, 1993).

Victimization in children has been linked with psychosocial difficulties from several empirical and sociometric studies that have repeatedly revealed that victimized students exhibit serious psychosomatic symptoms and poor psychological and social adjustment (Juvonen, Nishina, & Graham, 2000; Kupersmidt, Coie, & Dodge, 1990; Paul & Cillessen, 2003) as well as the tendency to exhibit high levels of depression and psychological distress (Hawker & Boulton, 2000; Juvonen, Graham, & Schuster, 2003; Kaltiala-Heino, Rimpela, Marttunen, Rimpela & Rantanen, 1999) anxiety and sometimes aggressive behavior (Coie, Dodge, & Coppotelli, 1982; Paul & Cillessen, 2003; Panayiotou, Lazarou & Fanti, 2014). A number of children who are victimized later also begin to bully other children, in a way that is conceptualized as reactive to their own victimization. Among these children labeled as "bully-victims", victimization has also been associated with oppositional defiant disorder (ODD) which includes behaviors of anger, irritability, arguing, boldness or meanness toward parents and other authority figures (Juvonen, Graham, & Schuster, 2003; Coolidge, DenBoer, & Segal, 2004; Kokkinos & Panayiotou, 2004; Arseneault, Bowes, & Shakoor, 2009). Associations between victimization and proactive and reactive aggression (Fanti et al., 2009; Salmivalli & Nieminen, 2002) and CU traits (Fanti et al., 2009; Viding et al., 2009) have been reported in previous research in Cyprus and in other countries. Based on the above it was expected that victimization would be positively associated with submissive and potentially also with aggressive behavior and negatively associated with assertive behavior.

Externalizing behaviors: Regarding the broad category of externalizing behaviors the constructs of psychopathy (measured with TriPM), callous unemotional traits and novelty seeking were examined in this study. Externalizing behaviors describe the problematic and negative behaviors of children on the external environment (Eisenberg, Cumberland, Spinrad, Fabes, Shepard, Reiser, et al., 2001) including activities labeled as disruptive, hyperactive, aggressive, delinquent and antisocial (Hinshaw, 1987). Externalizing behaviors in children and adolescents are positively related to high levels of novelty seeking (Copeland, Landry, Stanger & Hudziak 2004). Novelty seeking (Cloninger, 1987) is a personality trait reflecting excitement to novel stimuli and associated with more exploratory, impulsive, enthusiastic, and disorderly behavior

(Zuckerman & Cloninger, 1996) and a precursor for risk-taking behaviors. Individuals with high novelty seeking behaviors are usually impulsive, easily roused and antisocial (Cloninger, 2000), delinquent (Ruchkin, Eisemann, Hägglöf & Cloninger, 1998), socially disadvantaged (Richter, Krecklow & Eisemann, 2002) and aggressive (Cloninger, & Svrakic, 2008).

Moreover psychopathy was included among the variables in the category of externalizing behaviors, which is described in the literature as a pathological syndrome characterized by obvious behavioral deviancy and distinct emotional and interpersonal features. Hare (1996) defined psychopathy as a personality disorder characterized by a major affective deficit, persistent antisocial and bold behavior, disinhibition and reduced empathy with disregard to social rules and the rights of others. Individuals with psychopathic personality exhibit interpersonal characteristics of egocentricity, manipulation of others, callousness, impulsivity and irresponsibility, emotional characteristics of poor affect, lack of anxiety and remorse, lack of social characteristics of inhibition (Fowles & Dindo, 2009; Hare, 1996) and behavioral characteristics of proneness to boredom (Roose, Bijttebier, Decoene, Claes, & Frick, 2009).

Callous and unemotional (CU) traits were also included as they are particularly relevant to children and are considered a precursor of adult psychopathy. Callous and unemotional traits are described by an interpersonal style that includes characteristics like lack of guilt, need for stimulation, fearlessness, absence of remorse, arrogance and deceitfulness with impulsive, irresponsible lifestyle and severe antisocial and aggressive behavior (Cooke & Michie, 2001; Frick & White, 2008; Hare, 1991; Klingzell, Fanti, Colins, Frogner, Andershed, & Andershed, 2015). CU traits are negatively correlated with measures of trait anxiety or neuroticism, behavioral inhibition and fearfulness (Andershed, Gustafson, Kerr, & Stattin, 2002; Frick et. al., 1999; Pardini, Lochman, & Powell, 2007). CU traits have also been associated with reduced affective responses to both positive and negative emotional information (Fanti, Panayiotou, Lombardo & Kyranides, 2016). Being able to show affective responses to others is an indispensable ingredient for successful socialization and social interactions. Reduced affective responses might result, as proposed by Fanti, Panayiotou, Lombardo & Kyranides (2016), "in inappropriate decision-making, low concern or low aversion for the suffering of victims, and higher engagement in behaviors that may harm others". Based on the above, it was therefore hypothesized that externalizing behaviors, as defined here, would be positively associated with aggressiveness and negatively associated with assertiveness and submissiveness.

Emotion regulation: A review on the emotional regulation research and the mechanisms of emotion regulation demonstrates that this construct has also been linked with assertiveness, submissiveness and aggressiveness. The construct of emotion regulation includes all the conscious and unconscious physiological, behavioral, and cognitive strategies individuals use in order to regulate, increase, decrease or maintain an emotion (Gross, 2001) and is associated with personality, emotional, cognitive and social development. Garnefski, et al. (2001) described nine conceptually separate cognitive emotion regulation strategies some adaptive and some less adaptive. The adaptive strategies are: "Acceptance", "Positive refocusing", "Planning", "Positive reappraisal", "Putting into perspective". The less adaptive strategies are: "Self-blame", "Rumination", "Catastrophizing" and "Blaming others". More specifically "Self-blame" is the situation where one blames and accuses oneself for what has happened when faced with difficulties or obstacles. "Blaming others" is when one considers others the main reason for what has happened when facing difficulties or obstacles. "Rumination" is when somebody repetitively thinks of thoughts and feelings associated with negative events. "Catastrophizing" refers to thoughts of explicitly describing the terror of an experience and perceiving a condition as more severe and terrifying than it really is. The positive strategies include "Acceptance", which refers to the thoughts of somebody accepting what happened and resigning to the situation. "Positive Refocusing" and "Planning" refer to when confronted with difficulties and obstacles, one focuses on positive experiences and applies planning to decrease the negative complications of that stressful event. "Positive reappraisal" refers to thoughts of attaching a positive meaning to an event in terms of personal growth. "Putting into perspective" refers to thoughts of down grading the seriousness of an event and giving emphasis to its relativity compared with other events (Garnefski, Kraaij & Spinhoven, 2001).

Research with young children indicates an association between poor emotion regulation and aggressive outcomes and externalizing problems (Eisenberg, Fabes, Guthrie & Reiser, 2000 Eisenberg, Fabes & Guthrie, 1997; Eisenberg, Fabes, Guthrie & Reiser, 2000) and problems in managing interpersonal interactions with peers (Denham, 2001). Furthermore, suppression, avoidance and rumination are considered as maladaptive responses to stressors, and constitute risk factors for distress including depression, anxiety and other maladaptive behaviors (Carver, Scheier & Weintraub, 1989; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Recent research among female high school students indicated that cognitive emotion-regulation and more specifically positive refocusing, positive reappraisal, and putting into perspective were significantly correlated with assertiveness

(Allahyari & Jenaabadi, 2015). It was hypothesized, based on these findings that adaptive emotion regulation strategies will be positively associated with assertiveness and maladaptive emotion regulation strategies will be negatively related to assertiveness and positively related to nonassertive behaviors.

Sociodemographic characteristics: Moreover sociodemographic characteristics of the sample were examined in relation to assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness. Gender differences in assertive behavior might in part be explained by social stereotypes. Assertiveness is generally perceived as more consistent with the male gender stereotype and a socially desired male gender-role feature (Cheng, Bond & Chan, 1995; Gervasio & Crawford, 1989; Galassi, Delo, Galassi, & Bastien, 1974) such as social dominance (competitiveness, aggressiveness) (Rudman, & Glick, 2001), independence, self-assertiveness and rationality (Eckes & Trauntner, 2000). This is opposite to the female stereotypic gender-role according to which women are expected to behave non-assertively (Alberti and Emmons, 1970; Lao et al., 1975) with the attributes of dependence, selflessness, submissiveness and gentleness (Eckes & Trauntner, 2000). The social stereotypes thus may influence the expression of assertiveness in men and women as a social expectation and as a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Deluty's research (1981) documented these gender differences with findings of positive associations between assertiveness levels and self-esteem, popularity, and peer-ratings of behavioral adjustment in boys, but not in girls. To the contrary Deluty's (1981) research findings supported also that there were no gender differences in the associations between levels of aggressiveness and peer-ratings of popularity for boys and girls. Based on the above, gender differences in assertive and nonassertive behavior are examined in the present investigation, with the hypothesis that boys will be more assertive and aggressive than girls while girls will be more submissive than boys.

Age is another sociodemographic characteristic that seems to play an important role in the developmental course of assertiveness (Deluty, 1981; Ollendick, 1984). Moreover adolescents are thought to have higher cognitive abilities than children with which they filter their experiences (Deater-Deckard & Dodge, 1997) and it would be expected that the same experiences will result in a different impact in different developmental stages. Regarding the more specific social skill of assertiveness examined in the present study previous literature suggested that children are expected to be more assertive as they grow older (Deluty, 1981; Ollendick, 1984). Based on the above literature we can assume that since older children have higher cognitive abilities and greater motives to act assertively

that assertiveness will increase with age. It was hypothesized that age will be positively associated with assertiveness and negatively associated with aggressiveness.

Psychometric assessment of assertiveness

This investigation, into the nomological network of assertiveness, firstly started with the psychometric evaluation of measures of assertiveness in children used in this study, the Children's Action Tendency Scale (CATS) and the Children's Assertiveness Inventory (CAI). Understanding the way assertiveness and non-assertiveness are measured and the possible relations between these constructs can contribute to the construct validation of assertiveness.

The Children's Action Tendency Scale (CATS)

Psychometric properties for the CATS instrument had been evaluated in the study of Deluty (1979). Specifically, aggressiveness scores had been shown to correlate negatively with CATS assertiveness scores (r = -.69) and with CATS submissiveness scores (r = -.75), but no significant relationship was found between CATS assertiveness and submissiveness scores (Deluty, 1979). The three subscales of the instrument have been shown to be highly correlated with peer and teacher reports of children's interpersonal behavior and to have moderate split-half (r = .63 to .77) and test-retest (r = .44 to .70) reliability. More specifically the internal consistency of each of the three subscales was Spearman-Brown reliability coefficients for computed using Assertiveness, Aggressiveness and Submissiveness that were .77, .63, .72 respectively. Although these reliability coefficients were modest, Deluty (1979) noted that they are acceptable since CATS is not a trait scale but an assessment measure that assesses the tendency of how children would react in certain conflict situations. Its medium level reliability coefficients can also be explained by the fact that the CATS includes a variety of conflict situations and several different types of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness options that add to its external validity but also lowers its homogeneity.

Although the CATS is one of the few questionnaires measuring assertiveness and has encouraging psychometric properties there is a need for further validation of this measure in larger samples based on the fact that the validation by Deluty (1979) was done on a small sample of N=44 (Deluty, 1979, 1984). Also Deluty (1984) pointed out that developmental differences in assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness could not be reflected in the initial validation studies of the CATS because of the small age range of the sample and so further research on a bigger age range is suggested. Furthermore, the

instrument was never subjected to factor analytic research while the questions about the independence or dependence of the three subscales still remain. Other self-report measures, measuring the same constructs, like the Self-Report Assertiveness Test for Boys (Reardon et. al., 1979), Children's Assertiveness Behavior Scale (Wood & Michelson, 1978) and Children's Assertiveness Inventory (Ollendick, 1983) suffer from similar limitations concerning their validation, leading to the conclusion that further research on the validation of such measures is essential in order to establish the construct validity and the nomological network of assertiveness.

An additional limitation of the CATS, as described by previous researches, is that it does not investigate the children's tendency to react in "positive" situations like in expressing positive feelings, giving and receiving compliments, or initiating, maintaining and terminating social exchanges (Lazarus, 1973; Phillips and Groves, 1979). Other instruments cover this limitations for example the Children's Assertiveness Inventory (CAI) (Ollendick, 1983), which was added to the present study in order to address this limitation of the CATS measure. Another limitation of the CATS was that although it had the ability to discriminate and unbind aggressive from assertive response styles it was not able to clearly differentiate a submissive response style from an assertive response style. Based on the prior research of Deluty (1984), assertiveness measured with the CATS was correlated with the total assertiveness score and also with the total submissiveness score. Deluty (1984) attributed this to the gender stereotype about assertiveness which is not in favor of the girls.

The Children's Assertiveness Inventory (CAI)

Regarding the psychometric characteristics of the CAI these were considered good and have been examined through its internal consistency, test-retest reliability and stability over time (Ollendick, 1984). The CAI yielded a negative and a positive assertiveness score as well as a total score. Internal consistency was found to be for the positive and negative subscales and total score, .64, .64, and .44, respectively (Scanlon & Ollendick, 1986) results similar to Ollendick's (1984) where they ranged from .20 to .31. These moderate to low internal consistency indices were attributed to the fact that the scale was designed to examine a heterogeneous sample of specific situations involving assertive behavior with peers and thus were considered acceptable (Scanlon & Ollendick, 1986). Test-retest reliability has been shown to be .87 for a one-month interval and .76 for a six-month interval showing stability over time. The validity of the scale was determined in study, by

examining its relationship to other self-report measures, role play, and behavioral measures of social interaction, and by contrasting the scores of a group of socially withdrawn children with a matched group of normal children (Ollendick, 1983). Factor analysis was also performed. The CAI scale has been found to discriminate between children nominated by their teachers as "assertive" and children nominated as unassertive but it cannot differentiate very well between aggression and assertion (Giovanni & Epstein, 1978; Deluty, 1979) since aggressive answers are scored as highly assertive. Factor analysis in the initial standardization study of the CAI revealed two factors of assertive responding in positive and negative situations, Factor one namely "Initiating interaction/giving and receiving compliments" composed of questions 1,2,3,7,9,13 and 14 and Factor two namely "Standing up for own rights/refusing unreasonable request" composed of questions 4,5,6,8,10,11, and 12 (Ollendick, 1983, 1981).

Ollendick (1984, 1986) supported that the CAI subscale measuring assertiveness in negative situations may be measuring something different than assertiveness. This assumption was based on a response time experiment in which the response time for assertiveness in negative situations was shorter than the response time for assertiveness in positive situations (Ollendick, 1986). Ollendick (1986) explained the results of his research based on a previous experimental research in which assertive behaviors had comparably longer response times than aggressive behaviors (Eisler, Miller & Hersen, 1973). It was thus supported by Ollendick et. al. (1984, 1986) that assertiveness in negative situations might be measuring aggressiveness as much as assertiveness such as in the case when someone stands up for their rights in an aggressive way. Based on these findings selfreport of assertiveness on the CAI, on the subscale measuring positive situations was eventually described as measuring actual assertiveness tendencies while the subscale measuring assertiveness in negative situations was acknowledged to not be a clear measure of assertiveness (Bellack, Hersen, & Turner, 1978; Ollendick, 1986; Ollendick, Francis, & Hart, 1985). The inability of the CAI to unbind aggressiveness from assertiveness was therefore acknowledged as one of its limitations (Ollendick, 1983, 1984, 1986). In a comparison of the CAI and the CATS measure Ollendick (1984) noticed that both measures had a limitation, in which CATS was unable to differentiate submissiveness from assertiveness but had the ability to discriminate aggressiveness from assertiveness while the CAI had the ability to separate assertiveness from submissiveness but was unable to clearly unbind assertiveness from aggressiveness (Ollendick, 1983, 1984, 1986).

Further research needs to be done in order to delineate the differences in the meaning of assertiveness as described in the CATS and the CAI and to compare the results from the CATS on the three subscales of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness scales with the results from the CAI on the two subscales of positive and negative assertiveness. The present study aims to accomplish this with the hypothesis that aggressive responses on the CATS will be positively correlated with assertiveness in negative situations (stand up for rights, refuse unfair requests) while assertive responses on the CATS will be positively correlated with assertiveness in positive situations measured with the CAI.

The current study

The present study had two main aims: a) to evaluate the psychometric properties of the Greek translation of the CATS and the CAI with a larger sample and a bigger age range than in previous studies and for the first time with Greek Cypriot children and adolescents and b) to examine the degree to which levels of anxiety, externalizing behaviors, socialization characteristics and emotion regulation strategies, as measured through parent and self-rated questionnaires, predict assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness measured with the CATS and the CAI.

The hypotheses of the study were as follows:

- 1. Regarding the psychometric evaluation of the CATS and the CAI it is hypothesized that:
 - both instruments would show good psychometric properties
 - the factor structure for the CATS would reveal the 3 factors of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness. The association of the three subscales will be explored, but given the limited nature of previous findings no a priori hypotheses can be made
 - positive assertiveness on the CAI would be related to assertiveness on the CATS, while negative assertiveness on the CAI would be correlated to the CATS submissiveness
- Assertiveness will be positively related and significantly predicted by traits related
 to positive socialization characteristics and positive emotion regulation strategies
 and negatively related and significantly predicted by traits related to poor
 socialization, externalizing behaviors, negative emotion regulation strategies and
 anxiety traits.

- 3. Aggressiveness will be positively related and significantly predicted by traits related to poor socialization, externalizing behaviors and negative emotion regulation strategies and negatively related and significantly predicted by anxiety traits and traits of positive socialization characteristics.
- 4. Submissiveness will be positively related and significantly predicted by traits related to poor socialization, internalizing behaviors, negative emotion regulation strategies and anxiety traits.
- 5. Male gender would be associated with higher assertiveness.
- 6. Age would be positively related and significantly predict assertiveness and negatively related and significantly predict aggressiveness.

Method

Participants

The participants of this study were children and parents as described in the methodology chapter that preceded this section.

Measures

The construct validity of assertiveness was examined in relation to other measures of the child characteristics as completed by either the parents or the children themselves. These measures are briefly described and presented in the table below. Note that a more detailed description is presented in the methodology chapter.

Construct Examined	Measures completed by children	Measures completed by parents
Externalizing	Triarchic Psychopathy	Inventory of Callous-
behaviors	Measure	Unemotional Traits
		Novelty Seeking subscale from
		the Junior Temperament and
		Character Inventory
Anxiety traits	Social Phobia and Anxiety	Harm Avoidance subscale from
	Inventory-Brief form	the Junior Temperament and
		Character Inventory
Socialization	Social Acceptance Subscale	
characteristics	from the Self-Perception	
	Profile for Children	
	Victimization subscale from	
	the Adolescents, and the	
	Student Survey of Bullying	
	Behavior-	
Emotion regulation		Cognitive Emotion Regulation
		Questionnaire-short

Externalizing Behaviors

Externalizing Behaviors were measured by the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM) completed by children, the Inventory of Callous- Unemotional Traits (ICU) for parents (who replied regarding their child who took part in the study) and the Novelty Seeking Subscale from the Junior Temperament and Character Inventory again completed by the parents (JTCI).

Anxiety traits

The Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory-Brief form (SPAI-B) completed by children and the subscale of Harm Avoidance from the Junior Temperament and Character Inventory for parents were used to measure aspects of anxiety that are potentially relevant to assertive behavior.

Socialization characteristics

Socialization characteristics were measured by administrating the following questionnaires: Social Acceptance Subscale from the Self-Perception Profile for Children and Victimization subscale from the Adolescents, and the Student Survey of Bullying Behavior-Revised (SSBB-R), both completed by children.

Emotion Regulation

Cognitive Emotion Regulation of the children was measured using the Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire-short, CERQ-short completed by the parents.

Plan for analysis

To assess the psychometric properties of the CATS and the CAI, and address the first aim of the study, several sets of analyses were conducted. An exploratory principal-components factor analysis was performed for the CATS and for the CAI instruments to test the instruments' factor structure. Next, the internal consistency of the scale scores, as derived from the Factor Analysis, was calculated via Cronbach's coefficient alpha. For the second aim, in order to assess the instruments' construct validity, and the nomological network of assertiveness, the CATS and the CAI scores were correlated with all scale scores of the other personality and behavior measures to identify how age, gender, anxiety traits, externalizing behaviors, socialization characteristics and emotion regulation strategies can predict assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness in children. To further identify the best predictors of these communication behaviors, linear regressions were conducted, with a) anxiety traits, b) externalizing traits, c) socialization characteristics, and d) emotion regulation skills as predictors of assertiveness (measured by

both the CAI and the CATS), submissiveness and aggressiveness (measured with the CATS) respectively in separate regression models.

A one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed in order to identify the differences in the dependent measures (assertiveness, aggressiveness, submissiveness) between male and female children and with regards to age between primary and secondary school children. Moreover an ANOVA was computed in order to identify the differences in the predictor variables used previously (social anxiety, psychopathy measured with callous unemotional and TriPM, novelty seeking, harm avoidance, victimization and peer acceptance) between extreme groups of high assertive, high aggressive and high submissive scores.

RESULTS

Exploratory Factor Analysis for Children's Action Tendency Scale

Initially, the factorability of the 39 the CATS items of assertiveness, submissiveness and aggressiveness were examined using SPSS 22. Several well recognized criteria for the factorability of the data were used prior to performing Exploratory Factor Analysis. Firstly, it was observed that all items had a low but statistically significant correlation with at least one other item, suggesting reasonable factorability. Secondly, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .54, a number that is considered low but just above the recommended minimum .5. Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (χ^2 (741) = 25542, p < .01). Finally another confirmation that each item shared some common variance with other items, are the communalities all of which were above .4. Given these overall indicators, factor analysis was deemed to be suitable with all 39 items.

Exploratory Factor Analysis was conducted on the items of the CATS to verify the integrity of its 3 subscales, especially since exploratory factor analysis has not been previously reported in the literature for this questionnaire. The only a-priori hypothesis that the analysis would verify its 3 underlying dimensions, each corresponding to each of the three subscales.

A forced three factor analysis was computed with initial Eigen values indicating that the three factors explained 16%, 14% and 6% of the variance respectively and a total of 26% of variance. Aggressiveness loaded clearly on one factor, having a primary factor loading of .4 or above and no cross-loading of .4 or above. However aggression items AGG2 and AGG5 did not load on the aggressiveness factor or any other factor and were removed. Submissiveness and assertiveness items did not clearly separate on the second

and third factor but both factors included a significant number of each type of items. Based on this, a second order exploratory factor analysis only for the assertiveness and submissiveness items was used in order to test the factorability of these items using a forced two factor exploratory analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .54, just above the recommended minimum .5, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi 2$ (325) = 6137, p < .01). To aid in the interpretation of these components Varimax rotation was performed. Initial Eigen values indicated that the two factors explained 13% and 12% of the variance respectively and a total of 25% of variance. The rotated solution revealed high loadings by most of the items on one of the two factors. Item Sub9, Sub 13, Ass9, Ass13 had high cross loadings on both factors, low loadings on their primary factor and low communalities and so they were removed. Also Ass10 did not load on any factor and had a very low communality and was also removed. Seven of the thirty-nine items were eliminated for poor fit; however the original dimensions proposed by Deluty (1979) were retained.

Internal consistency for each of the derived subscales, after removal of the misfitting items, was examined using Cronbach's alpha. The alphas were high: .87 for aggressiveness (13 items), .73 for assertiveness (10 items), and .73 for submissiveness (11 items) (Table 1). No substantial increases in alpha for any of the scales could have been achieved by eliminating more items. Composite scores were created for each of the three factors, based on the sum of the items which had their primary loadings on each factor. Higher scores indicated greater tendency of acting assertively, aggressively or submissively respectively.

Exploratory Factor Analysis for Children's Assertiveness Inventory (CAI)

The factorability of the CAI was also examined. Several well recognized criteria for the factorability of a correlation were used prior to performing Exploratory Factor Analysis. Firstly, it was observed that all items had a low but statistically significant correlation with at least one other item, suggesting reasonable factorability. Secondly, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .60, a number that is considered low but just above the recommended minimum .5. Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (χ^2 (91) = 569,862, p < .01).

Exploratory Factor Analysis was conducted on the items of the CAI to verify the integrity of its 2 subscales, and replicate the findings of previous research (Ollendick, 1983). The only a-priori hypothesis that could be proposed is that the CAI would include 2 underlying dimensions corresponding to two subscales, one for positive assertiveness and negative assertiveness (i.e. in positive and negative situations respectively). Factor 1

"Initiating interaction/giving and receiving compliments" indicated by questions 1,2,3,7,9,13,14 and factor 2 "Standing up for own rights/refusing unreasonable requests" indicated by questions 4,5,6,8,10,11,12 are the original factors of the Children's Assertiveness Inventory as described by (Ollendick, 1983).

A forced two factor analysis was computed. Initial Eigen values indicated that the three factors explained 15%, and 13% of the variance respectively and a total of 28% of variance. Positive assertiveness items mostly loaded on one factor. Items had a primary factor loading of .4 or above and no cross-loading of .4 or above, while items 5 and 8 did not fulfill these criteria and did not load on the positive assertiveness factor and were deleted. Negative assertiveness items mostly loaded on one factor. Item 1 was also deleted because it did not load on the correct factor and did not fulfill the abovementioned criteria.

Internal consistency for each of the derived subscales, after removal of the misfitting items, was examined using Cronbach's alpha. The alphas were low .30 for positive assertiveness (6 items) and .46 for negative assertiveness (5 items) (Table 1). No substantial increases in alpha for any of the scales could have been achieved by eliminating more items. Composite scores were created for each of the two factors, based on the sum of the items which had their primary loadings on each factor. Higher scores indicated greater tendency of acting assertively.

Overall, these analyses indicated that two distinct factors were underlying children's assertiveness in positive and negative situations as measured by the CAI. Children's responses to CAI items and the two factors were internally consistent to about the same degree reported by the original authors. Although some items were eliminated because of poor fit, the original dimensions proposed by Ollendick (1983) were retained.

Correlation Analysis

Bivariate correlations between subscale sum scores of the CATS were computed to assess independence of the scales scores of the CATS Assertiveness, Aggressiveness and Submissiveness. Results show that there is a moderate but statistically significant negative correlation between Assertiveness and Aggressiveness (r=-.39) and a higher negative correlation between Submissiveness and Aggressiveness (r=-.46). Assertiveness and Submissiveness had a low but statistically significant positive correlation (r=.28) (Table 2).

Bivariate correlations between subscale sum scores of the CAI were computed to assess independence of the scales scores on the CAI total assertiveness, assertiveness in positive situations and assertiveness in negative situations. Results show that there is a low but statistically significant correlation between the two subscales assertiveness in positive and in negative situations (r=.08) and a moderate to high correlation between assertiveness

in positive situations and the total assertiveness (r=.71) and between assertiveness in negative situations and total assertiveness (r=.75) (Table 3).

Furthermore a statistically significant positive correlation was found between the assertiveness subscale of the CATS and the CAI total assertiveness (r= .16), assertiveness in positive (r= .21) and assertiveness in negative (r=.10) situations. On the contrary a significant negative correlation was found between the submissiveness subscale of the CATS and the CAI total assertiveness (r= -.13), assertiveness in positive (r=-.07) and assertiveness in negative (r=-.14) situations. No significant correlation was observed between the CATS aggressiveness and the CAI (total, positive or negative) (Table 4).

The nomological network of assertiveness in relation to related constructs

The next section describes findings from correlation analyses between assertiveness and the characteristics of children believed to relate to this construct, and the predictive value of these characteristics for assertive and non-assertive behavior.

Bivariate Correlations

Correlations between assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness with all the predictor variables can be seen in Table 5 where assertiveness measured with the CATS negatively and significantly correlated with Age, Victimization, Callous Unemotional, Novelty Seeking and Triachic Psychopathy measured with TriPM indicating that those with higher scores on these variables tend to have lower assertiveness. Assertiveness measured with the CATS was positively associated with planning emotion regulation strategy indicating that individuals with higher levels of planning were more assertive.

The assertiveness total measured with the CAI was positively related to peer acceptance, planning and putting into perspective and negatively related to social anxiety, harm avoidance, victimization, novelty seeking, callous unemotional, psychopathy measured with TriPM and positive reappraisal. The positive assertiveness measures with the CAI was positively related to peer acceptance, planning, positive reappraisal, putting into perspective and negatively related to social anxiety victimization, callous unemotional, novelty seeking and psychopathy measured with TriPM. Negative assertiveness was also positively related to peer acceptance and negatively related with social anxiety, harm avoidance, victimization and callous unemotional traits.

Aggressiveness measured with the CATS was positively related with Age, Victimization, Callous Unemotional, Novelty Seeking, Psychopathy measured with TriPM, other blame, rumination and refocus on planning indicating that higher levels on these constructs might lead to higher level of aggressiveness. Aggressiveness was negatively related to social anxiety, harm avoidance and positive reappraisal indicating that

individuals with higher aggressiveness are more possibly lower on these constructs. Submissiveness was positively and significantly correlated with Social Anxiety, Catastrophizing, planning positive reappraisal and acceptance and negatively and significantly correlated with Callous Unemotional traits; psychopathy traits measured with TriPM, and self-blame indicating that those with higher scores on this variable tend to have lower submissiveness (Table 5). These correlation patterns indicate that assertiveness as measured by the two tools has similar but not identical nomological networks in relation to related constructs.

Prediction of assertive and non-assertive behavior

Separate regression models where conducted with assertiveness from the CATS and from the CAI and aggressiveness and submissiveness from the CATS being the dependent variables. For each dependent variable four analyses were conducted each with one of the four groups of predictor variables to identify the best predictors of each construct. The first group of predictors represented the latent construct of socialization and included the variables of peer acceptance and victimization, the second group of predictors represented the latent construct of anxiety traits and included the variables of social anxiety and harm avoidance, the third group of predictors represented the latent construct of psychopathy and externalizing behaviors and included the variables of psychopathy measured with TriPM, callous unemotional, and novelty seeking and finally the fourth predictor group was represented by the subscales of the latent construct of emotion regulation strategies.

Regression analyses for assertiveness as measured with the CATS

Four separate regression analyses were conducted for the construct of assertiveness as measured with the CATS and the four latent constructs of socialization, anxiety traits, psychopathy and externalizing behaviors and cognitive emotion regulation strategies. The regression model conducted to examine the degree to which socialization characteristics (peer acceptance and victimization) predict assertiveness resulted in a significant model with adjusted $R^2 = .009$, F(2, 839) = 3.76, p < .05. Looking at the predictive value of each of the predictors separately, it was evident that children experiencing higher levels of victimization (B = -.04, SE = .02, $\beta = -.08$, t = -2.3, p < .05) had significantly lower assertiveness scores. Peer acceptance did not contribute significantly to the prediction of assertiveness. The next regression model was conducted to examine the degree to which anxiety traits (social anxiety and harm avoidance) predict assertive behavior. This regression analysis did not result in a significant model and none of the individual predictors were significant. A regression model was next conducted to examine the degree

to which externalizing behaviors (callous unemotional, triarchic psychopathy and novelty seeking) predict assertive behavior that was significant with R^2 = .13, F (3, 620) = 32.69, p < .001. Looking at specific predictors indicated that children with high levels of psychopathy measured with TriPM (B=-11.8, SE=1.5, β =-.31, t=-7.9, p < .001) and callous unemotional (B=-.04, SE=.02, β =-.10, t=-2.4, p < .05) characteristics had significantly lower assertiveness. The novelty seeking scale did not contribute significantly to the model. Finally a regression model was conducted to examine the degree to which emotion regulation strategies predict assertive behavior. This overall model was non-significant, although the subscale of Planning was a statistically significant predictor (B=.208, SE=.101, β =.103, t=2.067, p < .05) indicating that children with higher levels of the cognitive emotion regulation strategy of planning had higher assertiveness (Table 6).

Regression analyses for assertiveness as measured with the CAI

The same regression analyses as for assertiveness measured with the CATS were repeated for Assertiveness measured with the CAI. Results showed that socialization characteristics (peer acceptance and victimization) predicted assertiveness through a significant regression model, $R^2 = .053$, F(2, 831) = 24.34, p < .001. More specifically it was indicated that children experiencing higher levels of victimization (B=-.03, SE=.01, β =-.13, t=-3.7, p < .001) had lower assertiveness and children experiencing higher levels of peer acceptance (B=.07, SE=.02, β =.20, t=4.5, p < .05) had higher assertiveness measured with the CAI. The second regression model was also statistically significant $R^2 = .028$, F (2, 680) = 10.75, p < .001 showing that anxiety can predict assertiveness measured with the CAI. Specifically, children experiencing higher levels of social anxiety (B=-.03, SE=.01, β =-.16, t=-4.2, p < .001) had lower assertiveness measured with the CAI. The harm avoidance scale did not contribute significantly to the multiple regression models. Additionally a third regression analysis examined the degree to which externalizing behaviors predict assertiveness and this model was significant, $R^2 = .01$, F (3, 620) = 2.99, p < .05 with the callous unemotional characteristic being marginally statistically significant, indicating that higher levels of callous unemotional traits predict lower assertiveness measured with the CAI (B=-02, SE= .01, β=-.09, t=-1.9, t=.06); psychopathy measured with TriPM and the novelty seeking scale had no statistically significant contribution to this model. Finally the regression model conducted to examine the degree to which cognitive emotion regulation strategies predict assertiveness did not result in a statistically significant model (Table 6) and none of the specific strategies significantly predicted assertiveness measured with the CAI.

Regression analyses for aggressiveness as measured by the CATS

The predictive power of the four groups of latent constructs was examined in four different regression models with aggressiveness. With the first significant model $R^2 = .02$, F(2, 839) = 7.21, p < .001 model aggressiveness was positively predicted from victimization (B=.07, SE=.02, β =.14, t=3.8, p < .001), in which model children experiencing high levels of victimization expressed higher levels of aggressiveness. The peer acceptance scale did not contribute significantly to the model. The next regression model was also significant $R^2 = .01$, F (2, 666) = 3.36, p < .05 and examined the degree to which anxiety traits predict aggressive behavior. Social anxiety (B=-.03, SE=.01, β =-.09, t=-2.22, p < .05) was a significant predictor, showing that more socially anxious children had lower aggressiveness. The harm avoidance scale did not contribute significant variance. In an effort to examine the degree to which externalizing behaviors predict aggressive behavior a significant model yielded through regression analysis emerged, R² = .16, F (3, 620) = 42.382, p < .001. The TriPM total score showed that it is a positive predictor for aggressiveness (B=16.26, SE=1.57, β =.40, t=10.4, p < .001) unlike callous unemotional and novelty seeking scales that did not contribute significant additional variance to the multiple regression models. In order to further clarify these results a post hoc analysis was conducted in order to examine the correlational relation of the three subscales of the TriPM with aggressiveness. Results showed that the subscale with the highest correlation with aggressiveness was Meanness.

Finally a regression was conducted to examine the degree to which cognitive emotion regulation strategies predict aggressive behavior. The overall model was not significant, although the subscale of Other Blame (B=.195, SE=.096, β =.085, t=2.027, p < .05) was a significant predictor, indicating that children using high levels of this cognitive emotion regulation strategy had higher levels of aggressiveness (Table 6).

Regression analyses predicting submissiveness as measured by the CATS

The same regression analyses were conducted for the construct of Submissiveness. The model conducted to examine the degree to which socialization characteristics predict submissive behavior was not significant and neither were any of the specific predictors. The regression model in which anxiety traits predict submissive behavior was significant, $R^2 = .02$, F(2, 666) = 6.7, p < .001, showing that children higher in social anxiety (B=.05, SE=.01, β =.15, t=3.8, p < .001) had higher submissiveness. The harm avoidance scale did not contribute significantly to the model. Additionally a regression model, examining the degree to which externalizing behaviors (psychopathy measured with TriPM, CU traits and

Novelty Seeking) predict submissive behavior, was significant, $R^2 = .06$, F (3, 620) = 13.878, p < .001. The specific predictors showed that children with higher levels of psychopathy characteristics measured with TriPM (B=-9.8, SE=1.6, β =-.25, t=-6.1, p < .001) had lower submissiveness. The callous unemotional and novelty seeking scales did not contribute significantly to the model. Finally the model examining the degree to which cognitive emotion regulation strategies predict submissiveness was not overall significant, although the subscale of Catastrophizing (B=.212, SE=.101, β =.102, t=2.103, p < .05) was a significant predictor, indicating that children engaging in higher levels of the catastrophizing as a cognitive emotion regulation strategy had higher submissiveness (Table 6).

Extreme groups comparisons with ANOVA

Three groups of extreme high assertiveness, high aggressiveness and high submissiveness were created. Each extreme group included only the individuals whose score on each of the three constructs was higher than 70% of the distribution while at the same time they were lower than 30% of the distribution on the other two constructs respectively. A one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed in order to identify the differences in the predictor variables used previously (social anxiety, psychopathy measured with callous unemotional and TriPM, novelty seeking, harm avoidance, victimization and peer acceptance) between extreme groups of high assertive, high aggressive and high submissive. There was a statistically significant difference between groups as determined by one-way ANOVA for social anxiety (F (3,442) = 5.54, p = .001), for psychopathy measured with TriPM (F (3,417) = 36.93, p < .001), for peer assertiveness (F (3,422) = 2.84, p = .037), for novelty seeking (F (3,326) = 4.71, p = .003), and callous unemotional (F (3,329) = 7.50, p < .001).

Post hoc comparisons for the above results indicated for social anxiety that highly submissive children obtained significantly higher scores in social anxiety (M= 26.67) than highly aggressive (M=22.02) and highly assertive children (M=21.19). Regarding psychopathy it was indicated that highly aggressive children obtained significantly higher scores in psychopathy measure with TriPM (M=42.92) than highly submissive (M=35.49) and highly assertive (M=31.09). Significant differences were found between the extreme groups for peer acceptance where highly assertive children score higher (M=20.84) than highly submissive children (M=19.26). Moreover regarding novelty seeking results showed that highly aggressive children scored significantly higher (M= 5.74) than highly assertive children (M= 4.33). Finally differences between the extreme groups was found

for callous unemotional where highly aggressive children scored significantly higher (M= 20.85) than assertive (M= 15.03).

Examining the role of gender in assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness

A one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed in order to identify the differences in the dependent measures (assertiveness, aggressiveness, submissiveness) between male and female children. Results of this analysis show that there are significant differences in all measures: assertiveness, F (1,912) = 17.82, p < .001; aggressiveness, F (1,912) = 24.54, your p<.001; submissiveness, F (1,912) = 7.158, p < .005; Gender differences based on the above results indicated that girls obtained higher scores in assertiveness (M (girls) =15.64, M (boys) = 14.53) and submissiveness (M (girls) =10.04, M (boys) = 9.32) and lower scores in aggressiveness (M (girls) =2.73, M (boys) = 4.10) than boys.

Examining the role of age in assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness

A one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed in order to identify the differences in the dependent measures (assertiveness, aggressiveness, submissiveness) regarding the age, between primary and secondary school children. Results of this analysis show that there are significant differences in all measures: assertiveness, F(1,912) = 17.82, P < .001; aggressiveness, F(1,912) = 24.54, P < .001; submissiveness, P(1,912) = 7.158, P < .001; Group differences based on the above results indicated that primary school children obtained higher scores in assertiveness (M (primary school) = 16.69) and submissiveness (M (primary school) = 10.88) than secondary and lyceum school children for assertiveness (M (secondary and lyceum school) = 14.20) and submissiveness (M (secondary and lyceum school) = 9.01). Opposite results were revealed for aggressiveness, which was higher for secondary and lyceum school children; aggressiveness M (secondary & lyceum) = 3.91) than primary school children (M (secondary & lyceum) = 2.33).

DISCUSSION

The present study aimed to examine and further develop the nomological network of assertiveness that is considered an important behavioral, social and interpersonal communication skill (Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984; Zakahi, 1985) and a critical component for the individual's mental wellbeing, development and effective social functioning (Gresham & Elliot, 1990). Lack of assertiveness has been connected with several forms of psychopathology. Assertiveness was studied in children and adolescents, using the two instruments of Children's Action Tendency Scale (CATS; Deluty, 1979) and the Children's Assertiveness Inventory (CAI, Ollendick, 1983). This study elaborated on the nomological network of assertiveness by delineating its association with externalizing behaviors, socialization characteristics, anxiety traits and cognitive emotion regulation strategies. Results of the study replicate and extend several previous findings regarding the constructs of assertiveness, submissiveness and aggressiveness and the psychometric properties of the CATS and the CAI instruments but also clarify the correlates and predictors of assertive and non-assertive behavior.

Psychometric properties of the CATS and the CAI

The present study is the first to thoroughly examine the psychometric properties of the CATS and the CAI questionnaires in a large sample of children and adolescents conducting several analyses about the structure, reliability and validity of these two measures.

With regards to the first aim of the current study, hypotheses concerning the psychometric properties for the CATS and the CAI measures were for the most part supported. Consistent with hypothesis 1, it was found that both instruments showed good psychometric properties. More specifically regarding the CATS's internal consistency for each of the derived subscales, after removal of the mis-fitting items alphas were high: .87 for aggressiveness, .73 for assertiveness and .73 for submissiveness. The internal consistency in for the CATS measure in this study was higher than the internal consistency of each of the three subscales reported in the original study of Deluty (1979). The removal of poorly fitting items probably resulted in a more consistent form of the questionnaire. Although these coefficients were higher than in previous research, they are still modest, but as Deluty (1979) supported, this was acceptable since the CATS is not a trait scale but an assessment measure of children's tendency to react in certain conflict situations. Another reason for the CATS low internal consistency was, as Deluty (1979) suggested,

the variety of conflict situations and several different types of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness options included in this measure. Although the great variety of situations lowers the internal consistency of the CATS on the other hand it seems to add to the measure's external validity but also lower its homogeneity.

Moreover, an important finding was the relation among the CATS three subscales in which assertiveness and aggressiveness subscales were negatively correlated. This finding may support Deluty's (1979) results and assertion that aggressiveness and submissiveness are polar opposites. Another notable finding regarding the association among these constructs was that assertiveness and submissiveness had a moderate but statistically significant positive correlation and also in the first EFA in Study 1 assertive and submissive items loaded on the same factor, contrary to Deluty's (1979) previous findings where the two subscales were totally unrelated. Furthermore Deluty (1979) supported that the lack of association between submissiveness and assertiveness might indicate that submissiveness was measuring something else and that the CATS instrument was unable to unbind assertiveness to submissiveness. With the present finding we can suggest that submissiveness measures something somewhat similar to assertiveness but something opposite to aggressiveness. The difference of these findings to previous research results may be attributed to the bigger sample and age arrange and also the exploratory factor analysis that was conducted thus possibly resulting in more clear distinctions between the subscales.

This study agrees with Deluty's (1979) findings regarding the second measure used for assertiveness, namely the CAI. The internal consistency for each of the derived subscales, after removal of the mis-fitting items during the exploratory factor analysis, revealed alphas of .30 for assertiveness in positive situations and .46 for assertiveness in negative situations. Although some items were eliminated, the original dimensions proposed by Ollendick (1983) were retained. Comparing the internal consistency of the measure in this study with the internal consistency in previous studies, which had ranged between .44 and .64 (Scanlon & Ollendick, 1986) and .20 to .31, (Ollendick, 1984) we can conclude that current results are similar to the previous. This low internal consistency was attributed to heterogeneous samples in previous studies, which was not the case in the current sample. It was also explained by the fact that the scale was designed to examine a heterogeneous sample of situations involving assertive behavior with peers (Scanlon & Ollendick, 1986), similar to the argument posited for the CATS by its author, and this might also explain low reliabilities in the current study. Apparently to fully measure the

broad spectrum of behaviors encompassing assertiveness, sacrifices in internal consistency may need to be made, although this may also suggest that the construct of assertiveness needs to be defined in more narrow terms, specific to each type of situation, so that its measurement efficiency can be improved. Moreover the construct validity of the CAI measure was supported by the fact that both subscales of this measure had a low correlation between them and both had a moderate to high correlation with the total assertiveness supporting that both subscales do measure assertiveness. These results were different from the original validation of the scale in which one of the CAI subscales (negative) had a low correlation to the total CAI score leading to the suggestion that it might be measuring not only assertiveness but maybe also aggressiveness (Ollendick, 1984). The same findings were supported in the current study from the positive correlation of both CAI subscales and total CAI assertiveness score with the CATS assertiveness subscale (Table 4). The difference of these results from previous research could be attributed again to the bigger sample and the exploratory factor analysis that improved the measure. In sum, the present study provides a more comprehensive evaluation of the psychometric properties of these scales and attempts to clarify the cross-associations between assertiveness and non-assertiveness in a larger sample of children and a bigger age range which improves the generalizability of results. Finally we conclude that based on the current data both the CAI subscales of positive and negative assertiveness measure assertiveness in a similar way as this is measured by the CATS while the three CATS subscales measure somewhat independent constructs of aggressiveness, submissiveness and assertiveness.

Assertiveness as measured with the CAI (total, positive, negative) was positively correlated with Assertiveness on the CATS, demonstrating that both instruments measure a similar construct and adding to the convergent validity of the constructs. Assertiveness as measured by the CAI (total, positive, negative) was negatively related to submissiveness but was unrelated to aggressiveness measured with the CATS. This finding supports the notion that the Children's Assertiveness Inventory (Ollendick, 1984) shows the ability to differentiating assertiveness from submissiveness but when used together with the CATS (Scanlon & Ollendick, 1986) since it does not on its own include a submissiveness scale.

The three subscales of the CATS namely assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness were found to exhibit both convergent and discriminant validity with other conceptually relevant measures of the constructs underlying each of the three subscales in a non-clinical school sample of children and adolescents in Cyprus of this study. Generally

the current findings are in line with previous research and confirm that the measures of the CATS and the CAI are reliable and valid self-report measures for assessing children's assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness, although each seems to measure somewhat different aspects of the assertiveness construct (Deluty, 1979, 1985; Ollendick, 1984, 1986).

Nomological network of Assertiveness in relation to similar constructs

One of the most significant contributions of this study was the results revealing the strong associations of assertiveness, submissiveness and aggressiveness with other external constructs not previously examined. This study's hypotheses regarding the nomological network of assertiveness and the identification of the correlates and predictors of assertive and non-assertive behavior, results were mostly supported. As expected, assertiveness was overall related to mental health, positive socialization constructs and positive emotion regulation strategies, submissiveness was mostly related to anxiety constructs and poor socialization characteristics and aggressiveness was related to externalizing characteristics (Figures 1, 5, 6, 7, and 8).

Assertiveness

In verification of all previous results, which support that assertiveness is an important social skill, highly related to mental health (Cook & St. Lawrence, 1990; Henderson, & Furnham, 1982; Herringer, 1998; Richmond & McCroskey, 1992; Zakahi, 1985) assertiveness was found to be associated and better predicted by good mental health and well-functioning social relationships as it was found to be positively related and significantly predicted by acceptance by peers and negatively related and significantly predicted by victimization. Previous research also provided support for these results claiming that some social and emotional skills, like cooperative play skills, communication and interaction skills, social problem-solving skills and conflict resolution skills are associated with positive peer relations (Bandy & Moore, 2010; Bierman, & Erath, 2004; Rubin, Bukowski & Parker, 1998) while lack of social skills was associated with less inclusion by peers (Buhrmester, 1990). Also previous studies using the same measure of the CATS resulted in the conclusion that assertiveness is positively correlated with social desirability and popularity (Deluty, 1979, 1981) and the ability to express one-self assertively is likely to result in greater self-acceptance and social adjustment (Alberti & Emmons, 1971). The present results add to the conclusion that assertiveness is indeed an important social skill that promotes social adjustment in children and justifies the inclusion

of assertiveness training components in many treatment and prevention protocols for children. Assertiveness training interventions have been proven to positively affect the individuals' assertiveness (Brown & Carmichael 1992; Durlak & Wells, 1997; Lin, Wu, Yang, Chen, Hsu, Chang, & Chou, 2008; Rotheram, Armstrong & Booraem, 1982; Shiina, Nakazato, Mitsumori, Koizumi, Shimizu, Fujisaki, & Iyo, 2005; Temple & Robson, 1991), self-esteem (Temple and Robson, 1991, Brown and Carmichael, 1992) interpersonal communication satisfaction (Baggs & Spence, 1990, Wise, Bundy, Bundy & Wise, 1991) and promote prevention of behavioral and social problems in children and adolescents (Durlak & Wells, 1997), as one would expect on the basis of the current findings.

Assertiveness was also found to be positively associated with positive emotion regulation strategies of planning, positive reappraisal, putting into perspective and negatively related with self-blame but only significantly predicted by planning. These findings are in line with previous research which supported that positive self-regulation strategies are significantly correlated with assertiveness and more specifically the positive refocusing, positive reappraisal, and putting into perspective subscales that are the best predictors of assertiveness (Allahyari & Jenaabadi, 2015). This finding is not surprising given the well-established association between both assertiveness and good emotional regulation with mental health (Gresham & Elliot, 1990; Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984; Zakahi, 1985).

To the contrary, assertiveness was negatively related to externalizing behaviors (psychopathy, callous unemotional traits and novelty seeking), victimization and anxiety but only significantly predicted by the psychopathy measured with TriPM. The fact that the only predictor was psychopathy measured with TriPM may be attributed to the fact that this construct was a broader one including and covering the influence of the other externalizing behaviors measured in the current study. As found in previous research, novelty seeking behaviors are in accord with delinquent attitudes (Ruchkin, Eisemann, Hägglöf & Cloninger, 1998) fearlessness, aggressive behavior and lack of anxiety (Scarpa & Raine, 1997) whereas psychopathic traits and especially callous-unemotionally are associated with childhood aggression and severe and persistent antisocial behavior (Brandt, Kennedy, Patrick, & Curtin, 1997; Dadds et al., 2005; Dolan & Rennie, 2006; Edens, Campbell, and Weir, 2007; Frick & White, 2008; Fanti, Frick, & Georgiou, 2009; Kruh, Frick, & Clements, 2005; Marsee, Silverthorn, & Frick, 2005). As expected based on these findings, assertiveness was negatively related with all these maladaptive behaviors, traits and disorders in this study. Assertiveness was also expected to be negatively correlated

with victimization and social anxiety since these constructs are associated with characteristics like low self-esteem (Austin & Joseph, 1996) and low self-confidence (Khatri, Kupersmidt, & Patterson, 2000; Slee, 1995) together with characteristics of insecurity, shyness, submissiveness and introversion (Schwartz, Proctor, & Chien, 2001) that are all opposite to assertive behavior.

It is worth noticing that there are some discrepancies between the correlations of assertiveness measured with the CATS, assertiveness on the CAI in positive situations and assertiveness on the CAI in negative situations that can be attributed to the fact that although there are great similarities among these scales and subscales there are differences that arise from the types of situations described in each measure. Assertiveness measured with two different measures (CATS and CAI) was found to have different associations with external constructs depending on the measure used (Table 4 and 5). These findings suggest that assertiveness has many different facets depending on the situation and depending on how it is operationalized and measured, whether it's a conflict, a positive or negative situation. Different assertiveness behaviors are required in a conflict situation when individuals stand up for their own rights than in a positive situation giving or receiving compliments or in a negative situation like rejecting a request. In order to have a more global measurement of the multifaceted construct assertiveness the simultaneous use of both instruments, the CATS and the CAI, is needed or a new measure incorporating their different facets should be developed.

Submissiveness

Submissiveness as a nonassertive behavior was found to be positively related and significantly predicted by social anxiety as it would be expected since social anxiety is known from previous research to be related to less assertive and more shy or withdrawn behavior (Puig-Antich et al., 1985; Strauss, Lease, Kazdin, Dulcan, & Last, 1989). Also previous research supported that social anxiety can be associated with submissiveness based on the definition of this construct supporting that submissiveness is a non-hostile behavior that takes into account the feelings of others, their power or status or authority and thus avoid expressing feelings, opinions or standing up for their rights (Deluty, 1981c). Moreover regarding the relation of submissiveness and emotion regulation strategies, catastrophizing, which is related to emotional distress and depression (Sullivan, Bishop & Pivik, 1995), was predictive of submissiveness. However, this was the only emotion regulation strategy predicting a non-assertive behavior in this study, whereas

submissiveness was correlated with other positive and negative emotion regulation strategies which were however, not predictive of this construct. Submissiveness was positively related to reappraisal and this same emotion regulation strategy was negatively related to aggressiveness, but again that was the only common emotion regulation strategy related with all three constructs. This finding only partly supports the hypothesis of expecting submissiveness to be related only with maladaptive emotion regulation strategies such as catastrophizing, rumination and self-blame and assertiveness only related with positive emotion regulations like positive reappraisal. These results can in part be attributed to the fact that assertiveness and submissiveness were correlated in the CATS and so may occur simultaneously in an individual's behavior in conflict situations. These results make more evident the absence of clear boundaries between assertiveness and submissiveness in the way these are defined and measured by existing tools. These nonsignificant findings are not supportive for the most part of the hypothesis that the reason children behave non-assertively is because they lack emotion regulation skills or apply negative emotion regulation strategies. Instead they may simply have failed to acquire these skills, and therefore their behavior is unrelated to the emotions they experience and their attempt to regulate them. However, children who have acquired assertiveness skills have both better mental health and good emotion regulation.

Submissiveness was negatively associated with externalizing behaviors of callous unemotional traits and psychopathy traits measured with TriPM, thus confirming the description of submissiveness since the characteristics of callous unemotional traits are described by disinhibition and lack of anxiety (Fowles & Dindo, 2009; Hare, 1996) fearlessness and severe antisocial and aggressive behavior (Cooke & Michie, 2001; Frick & White, 2008; Hare, 1991; Klingzell, Fanti, Colins, Frogner, Andershed, & Andershed, 2015) that are the complete opposite to the characteristics of submissiveness described by inhibition, shyness, fearfulness and anxiety (Gilbert, & Allan, 1994), avoidance and passivity (Ames, 2008), neuroticism and introversion (Arrindell, Sanderman, Hageman, Pickersgill, Kwee, Van der Molen & Lingsma, 1990; Arrindell, Sanderman, Van der Molen, Van der Ende & Mersch, 1988; St Lawrence, 1987). Externalizing behaviors have also been found to be negatively associated with assertiveness; both findings confirm the proximity and relation of submissiveness and assertiveness especially in conflict situations. This evidence was reflected in the results of the regression analysis in which psychopathy traits measured with TriPM was the only common and with the highest contribution, predictor of assertiveness and submissiveness. From this reasoning we can assume that psychopathy traits are an important differentiating factor between submissiveness and assertiveness with aggressiveness. The externalizing behavior of novelty seeking and callous unemotional traits were not revealed as important predictors not because they did not contribute to the negative relation with submissiveness but most possibly because they were overshadowed by the strong predictive ability of the broader concept of psychopathy traits as measured by the TriPM.

Aggressiveness

Aggressiveness was positively related and significantly predicted by poor socialization and externalizing behaviors that was in line with previous research supporting that aggression, poor impulse control and sensation seeking were strongly related to novelty seeking (Cloninger, & Svrakic, 2008; Slater, 2003; Zuckerman, 1994) and severe antisocial and aggressive behavior was positively associated with psychopathy (Cooke & Michie, 2001; Frick & White, 2008; Hare, 1991; Klingzell, Fanti, Colins, Frogner, Andershed, & Andershed, 2015). From the three externalizing behaviors the highest correlation was between psychopathic traits and aggressiveness which was also the only predictor of aggressiveness from the externalizing behaviors. Furthermore aggressiveness was found to be negatively linked to social anxiety, which is also in line with the notion that aggressiveness is the polar opposite to submissiveness. Similarly it was also found that submissiveness was positively associated with social anxiety and as expected aggressiveness was negatively associated with social anxiety. A further post-hoc correlational analysis on the three subscales of the TriPM with the CATS and the CAI measures subscales showed that the subscale with the highest correlation with aggressiveness was the meanness subscale. This result supports that aggressiveness can be attributed to characteristics like lack of empathy, excitement seeking, cruelty, aggression and competitiveness and not to lack of social skills.

The present findings indicate that assertiveness is on the opposite pole from aggression, and in fact these are inversely related. Aggressive behavior in children may be attributed to the lack of skills to behave in more socially desirable ways, but conversely they may behave non-assertively because their lack of concern for the rights and emotions of others makes them indifferent to the use of socially appropriate behaviors, which they may actually possess. The cross-sectional design of the current study prevents a definitive selection between these two interpretations, as lack of assertiveness skills can in theory be either an outcome or a cause of aggression. However, one might have predicted that if it

was the absence of assertiveness skills that led to aggressive behavior one might have seen stronger associations between aggression and poor emotion regulation, if children resorted to aggression only because they could not handle the situation any differently as was suggested in previous research findings which had indicated an association between poor emotion regulation and aggressive outcomes and externalizing problems (Eisenberg, Fabes, Guthrie & Reiser, 2000 Eisenberg, Fabes & Guthrie, 1997; Eisenberg, Fabes, Guthrie & Reiser, 2000). Thus the absence of stronger associations between aggression and emotion regulation strategies in this study suggests emotion regulation strategies don't play an important role in aggressiveness. On the contrary psychopathic traits that do have an important relation with aggressiveness may explain part of aggressiveness, as they prohibit appropriate socialization and concern for the well-being of others. These findings are in line with the research of Hare (1996) supporting that psychopathy as a personality disorder is characterized by a major affective deficit, persistent antisocial and bold behavior, disinhibition and reduced empathy with disregard to social rules and the rights of others. All the above results have been also verified by the extreme groups' comparisons in the ANOVA analysis results. These hypotheses are further developed in Study 4 where different models of these associations are tested.

In conclusion regarding the nomological network of assertiveness this study supported that generally nonassertive behavior was predicted by individuals with maladaptive characteristics, externalizing behaviors, anxiety, low sociability and negative emotion regulations. On the contrary assertiveness reflects, and is predicted by, positive mental wellbeing characteristics. Regarding the nature of assertiveness, the comparison of the findings from the two scales allows us to confirm that both scales measure some common aspects of assertiveness and consequently assume that there are some distinct patterns of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness reflecting a trait or a tendency behavior which is situation specific. Finally, what became apparent was that assertiveness with aggressiveness as well as aggressiveness with submissiveness where pairs of traits that mutually excluded one another while assertiveness and submissiveness were sometimes positively related.

With regards to the latter point, some researchers have described an assertiveness continuum ranging from submissiveness to aggressiveness (Wilson & Gallois, 1993). Assertiveness and non-assertiveness have been described as two opposites, with Deluty (1979, p. 1061) supporting that "if assertiveness is the ability to express, in a non-hostile manner, one's thoughts and feelings while not violating the rights of others, then non-

assertiveness can take one of two forms: aggressiveness or submissiveness (Alberti & Emmons, 1971). Other authors have described submissive behavior as sub-assertive, seeing low assertiveness as being on the same continuum with submissiveness. To the contrary, other researchers have suggested that submissive behavior is not the synonym of low assertiveness; submissiveness includes social inhibition in conflict situations while non-assertiveness doesn't. Gilbert and Allan (1994) supported that submissive behavior should be studied separately from assertiveness because submissiveness includes behaviors like escape, passivity and compliance and cannot be described as low assertiveness, sub-assertiveness and lack of social skills social skills assertiveness (Gilbert, & Allan, 1994). Based on the current research we concluded that assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness are related on a continuum with different levels and their relation is situation specific. To the contrary, submissiveness and aggressiveness can be theorized as polar opposites. Assertiveness is a more diverse construct; depending on the situation faced thus leaning towards the one or the other end of the continuum but at the same time it does not coincide with either aggressiveness or submissiveness (Figure 1)

Age and assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness

Regarding age and assertiveness the following findings are worth noting. Firstly, age played an important role in the developmental course of assertiveness and aggressiveness, with the results showing that as children become older they tend to be more aggressive and less assertive. This was an important finding since it provided additional insights that allowed us to exceed the limitations noted in the previous studies of Deluty (1984) where developmental differences in assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness could not be evaluated because of the small age range of the sample. These findings were in line with previous research which supported that aggressiveness increases with age through adulthood (Stott, 1992), which however did not examine assertiveness. An explanation to these results could be that the situations that prompt aggressive response change as children develop in age, progressing through developmental stages from preschool through adolescence and into adulthood (Stenberg & Campos, 1990). Social interaction and peer relations become more important and more demanding in adolescent years. More advanced social skills are required for peer acceptance and interpersonal relation (Furman & Buhrmester, 1985; Harris (1995)) than those demanded in childhood (Buhrmester, 1990). This new social network of peers maybe promoting aggression by the potentially higher social acceptance of aggression among peers than among parents; peers as new socializing agents might not have the same influence as parents (Engels, Deković, & Meeus, 2002; Parke and Buriel, 1998; Wentzel, 1999) to inhibit aggressive tendencies. Based on the above we assumed that the higher levels of aggressiveness in adolescent maybe attributed to the adverse influence from the environment that the adolescents may understand differently because of their difference in cognitive ability from children. Also stress created around the important peer relations and the more complex demands in adolescence, maybe the reason that elicits more aggressiveness in this age group.

Gender and assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness

Gender also seems to play an important role in assertiveness, submissiveness and aggressiveness. According to the research findings of this study, girls obtained higher scores in assertiveness (Figure 2) and submissiveness (Figure 4) and lower scores in aggressiveness (Figure 3). Higher assertiveness in girls is a finding that is supported but also rejected by previous research. Although previous research findings suggested that girls have better developed social communication skills, at the age-range examined in the present study, (Margalit & Eysenck, 1990) this was not supported by the gender social stereotypes that determine the expression of assertive behavior to be lower in girls. The reason for this inconsistency is that assertiveness is generally perceived as social dominance (i.e. competitiveness, aggressiveness) (Rudman, & Glick, 2001) and selfassertiveness (Eckes & Trauntner, 2000) that are more consistent with the male gender stereotype and the socially desired male gender-role feature (Cheng, Bond & Chan, 1995; Gervasio & Crawford, 1989; Galassi, Delo, Galassi, & Bastien, 1974). Moreover a reasonable conclusion can be inferred that in spite of gender stereotypes, assertiveness is a social skill that seems to correlate with the development of other social skills that are typically found to be better developed in girls. Also the ability of girls to show emotions, may help them appear more assertive in closer relationships even if boys appear more dominant in conflict situations.

The higher submissiveness also shown by girls and the higher aggressiveness shown by boys is supported by previous research findings regarding personality factors in which male adolescent revealed higher levels of psychoticism (difficulty in impulse control) and whereas female adolescents demonstrated higher levels of neuroticism (emotionality). Thus, the personality characteristics of each gender seem to be in accord with their tendency for behaving aggressively or submissively in their social interactions (Margalit & Eysenck, 1990).

Limitations and Future Directions

The findings of this study should be taken in light of some limitations. The study's results may be culture or age specific and thus cannot be generalized to other cultures or adults. Moreover the causality and the direction of the relations in this study could not be addressed since there were no longitudinal data collected. A small step towards correcting this limitation was taken with the effort to administer the vignettes questionnaires, as described in Study two, to a small group 6 months later. Furthermore another limitation of this study is the dependence only on parent-reports for some constructs and the reliance on only child reports for other constructs examined. This limitation was partly addressed by the fact that especially for the main construct of the study, two different measures were given for assertiveness together with the vignettes that will be described in a later chapter. Moreover, the strict reliance on selecting data through questionnaires might inflate associations between measures, although the overall results are consistent with conceptual expectations and previously reported data. Again vignettes, described in Study two, were employed in order to overcome the limitation of gathering data only from self-report questionnaires. Also, even though the questionnaires were anonymous, there is a great possibility that participants may have responded in a more socially accepted way, especially regarding negative behaviors like aggressiveness, victimization and externalizing behaviors. Finally, although the initial plan of the study was to gather information from both parents, due to the fact that in the end the answer rate from both parents and especially from fathers was low, in order to remedy this problem parent information was pooled together as missing values from mothers were replaced with answers from fathers.

Future research needs to address the abovementioned limitations regarding the culture specificity, the longitudinal data collection, the collection of data from different sources, (parents, peers and teachers) and in different forms (interview, questionnaire and observation) and address more age groups. Finally, the development of a new instrument for measuring assertiveness that will combine features from the CATS and the CAI addressing the limitations of the two and have the ability to capture all facets of assertiveness will be of major contribution to future research and applications in the domain of assertiveness.

Besides the studies' main limitations, the main aims of the study were achieved as the psychometric properties and factor structure of the two main measures of the CATS and the CAI were examined, the nomological network of assertiveness and its boundaries in relation to aggressiveness and submissiveness were more fully described and finally some important predictors for assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness were identified. At the same time, previous findings regarding important correlates of assertiveness were replicated in a sample of the Greek Cypriot children and adolescents providing support to the assertiveness construct and its generalizability to non anglo-saxon cultures.

The findings of this study support that addressing the deficits pertaining to the symptomatology of the disorders associated with interpersonal difficulties and psychopathology may promote assertive behavior. Factors like psychopathy and anxiety need to be addressed before employing an assertiveness skill training since these factors seem to be underlying and hampering assertiveness. Social skills training need to be more targeted addressing first the deficiencies and disorders underlying the absence of skills. These data suggest that submissive and aggressive children may indeed require clinical interventions further and beyond assertiveness training interventions. This study's results indicate that there is a need for assertiveness training interventions to be extended beyond the mere teaching of assertiveness skills and methods for altering social interaction behaviors thus additionally targeting any related problematic areas, like social anxiety and psychopathic traits. Therefore it might be suggested that training protocols and therapeutic interventions for social skills and assertiveness deficits should include some psychoeducational components like cognitive restructuring, anger management, empathy development, relaxation, and stress management.

The findings from the present study have practical implications for clinical work with children who lack assertiveness or are at risk to present nonassertive behaviors with all the negative consequences associated with them. Interventions for children with low assertiveness or nonassertive behaviors focus on teaching social skills of assertiveness. The current study revealed some predictors of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness. The results of this study suggest that it is also important for practitioners to address these predictors of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness in intervention programs. As for example a child with social anxiety would be expected to be submissive and not assertive, while a child with psychopathic characteristics would be expected to be aggressive and not submissive or assertive and finally a child with peer acceptance would be expected to be more assertive an not submissive and aggressive. Moreover it is suggested that children should be assessed firstly before the intervention

program in order to provide them with the right intervention depending on their specific profiles.

Table 1

Cronbach's alpha of the scales of Children's Action Tendency Scale (CATS) and Children's Assertiveness Inventory (CAI)

Construct	Cronbach's alpha
Assertiveness subscale CATS	.73
Aggressiveness subscale CATS	.87
Submissiveness subscale CATS	.73
Assertiveness in positive situations CAI	.30
Assertiveness in negative situations CAI	.46

Table 2
Intercorrelations between Assertiveness, Aggressiveness and Submissiveness from CATS

Title editellitetts detiteett	118801111011088, 118810	ssiveness and stem	issiveness ji oni eni
Variable	Correlation with	Correlation with	Correlation with
	Assertiveness	Aggressiveness	Submissiveness
	CATS	CATS	CATS
Assertiveness CATS	1		
Aggressiveness CATS	39 **	1	
Submissiveness CATS	.28 **	46**	1

^{*}p<.05, **p<.001

Table 3
Intercorrelations between total assertiveness, aggressiveness in negative and assertiveness in positive situations from CAI

CAI, total score	CAI, positive	CAI negative situations	
	Situations	Situations	
1			
.71**	1		
.75**	.08*	1	
	1	situations 1 .71** 1	

^{*}p<.05, **p<.001

Table 4

Correlation coefficients between Assertiveness, Submissiveness and Aggressiveness measures

	Assertiveness	Submissiveness
.16**	13**	.00
.21**	07*	06
.10**	14**	.03
	.21**	.16**13** .21**07*

^{*}p<.05, **p<.001

Table 5
Correlations analysis for Assertiveness CATS & CAI, Aggressiveness CATS and Submissiveness CATS with related personality and behavior constructs

Variable	Assertiveness	Assertiveness	Assertiveness	Assertiveness	Aggressiveness	Submissiveness
	CATS	CAI total	CAI positive	CAI negative	CATS	CATS
Age	24**	.01	.02	.02	.08*	06
Social anxiety	.02	12**	15**	02**	07*	.16**
Harm avoidance	.01	06*	06	11**	07	.04
Victimization	09**	16**	15**	10**	.12**	00
Peer acceptance	.06	.16**	.19**	.05**	.01	03
Callous unemotional	20**	1 <i>2</i> **	10**	04	.14**	09*
Novelty seeking	14**	10**	12**	.00	.12**	05
Triarchic psychopathy	35**	04	00	05	.40**	24**
Boldness	10**	.15**	.17**	.06	.18**	16**
Meanness	37**	07 *	06	05	.37**	23**
Disinhibition	30 **	14 **	09 **	12**	.32**	14**
Self-blame	00	05	.02	10**	00	.08 ^k
Other-blame	00	02	.03	- .06	.08*	 05
Rumination	.04	.01	.04	- .02	03	08*
Catastrophizing	.00	04	03	- .03	02	.11**
Positive refocusing	.01	.03	.03	.01	02	.02
Planning	.10 *	.09*	.11**	.02	08**	.04
Positive reappraisal	.07	.08*	.10**	.02	09*	.09*
Putting into	.03	.08 ^k	.13**	01	02	.07
perspective						
Acceptance	.01	.03	.03	.01	03	.08*

Note. Entries shown with bold letters are significant *p<0.05 and ** p<0.01 level

Table 6
Regression analysis for Assertiveness CATS & CAI, Aggressiveness CATS and Submissiveness CATS with predictor variables

Variable	Assertiveness			A	ssertive	ness	Agg	gressive	ness	Su	bmissivene	ess
		CATS			CAI			CATS		CATS		
	В	SE	В	В	SEB	В	В	SEB	β	В	SEB	β
		В										
Social anxiety	.00	.01	.01	03	.01	16**	03	.01	09*	.05	.01	.15**
Harm avoidance	.01	.03	.02	02	.02	04	04	.04	05	.02	.03	.02
Victimization	04	.02	08*	03	.01	13**	.07	.02	.14**	01	.02	02
Peer acceptance	.02	.03	.03	.07	.02	.16**	.05	.04	.05	04	.03	0
Callous unemotional	04	.02	10*	02	.01	09	.01	.02	.02	00	.01	01
Novelty seeking	04	.05	04	01	.03	01	.02	.05	.02	.01	.06	.01
Triarchic	-11.8	1.5	31**	91	.80	05	16.2	1.5	.40**	-9.8	1.6	25**
psychopathy												
Self-blame	03	.10	02	06	.05	06	.03	.10	.01	.05	.10	.02
Other-blame	.02	.09	.01	02	.05	02	.19	.01	.08*	16	.01	07
Rumination	.06	.10	.03	.00	.05	.01	.02	.10	.01	.01	.10	.00
Catastrophizing	05	.01	03	02	.05	02	05	.10	02	.21	.10	.10*
Positive refocusing	00	.01	00	.01	.04	.01	03	.09	02	01	.09	00
Planning	.20	.10	.10*	.08	.05	.07	11	.10	05	07	.10	03
Positive reappraisal	.11	.10	.06	.06	.05	.06	17	.10	08	.01	.10	.05
Putting into	10	.10	05	.00	.05	.00	.12	.10	.06	.05	.10	.03
perspective												
Acceptance	06	.09	03	01	.05	02	.01	.10	.00	.07	.09	.03

^{*}p<0.05 and ** p<0.01 level

Figure 1

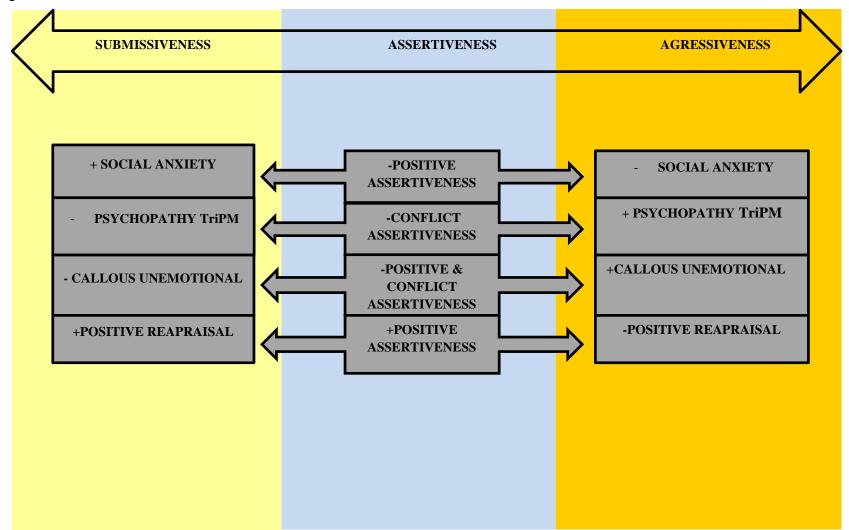
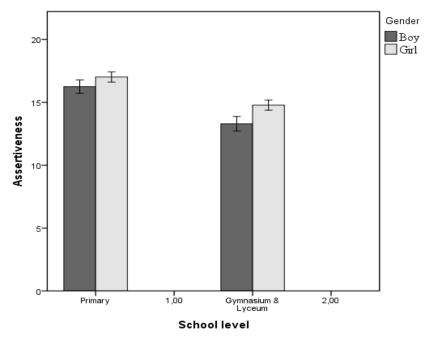
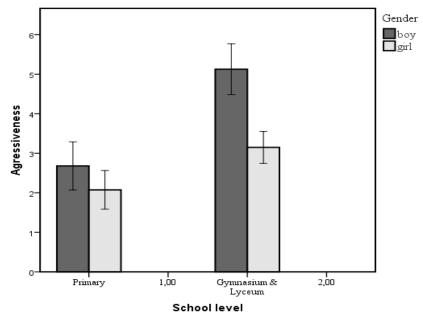


Figure 2: Assertiveness differences according to age and gender



Error Bars: 95% CI

Figure 3: Aggressiveness differences according to age and gender



Error Bars: 95% CI

Figure 4 Submissiveness differences according to age and gender

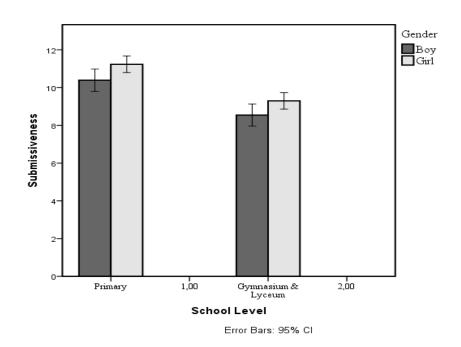


Figure 5: Predictors of Assertiveness (CATS)

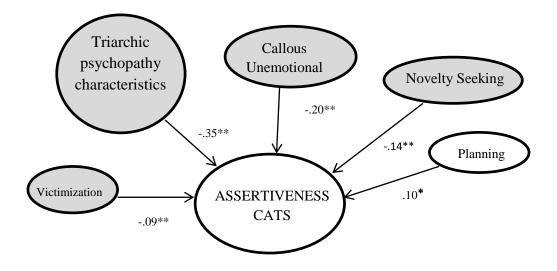


Figure 6: Predictors of Assertiveness total (CAI)

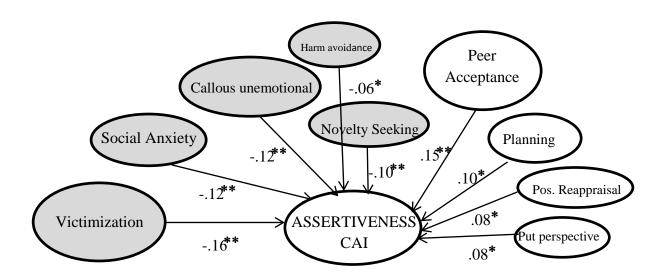


Figure 7: Predictors of Aggressiveness

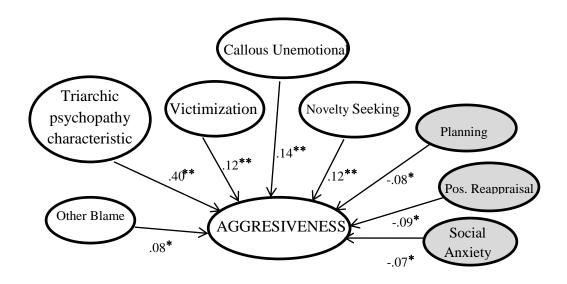
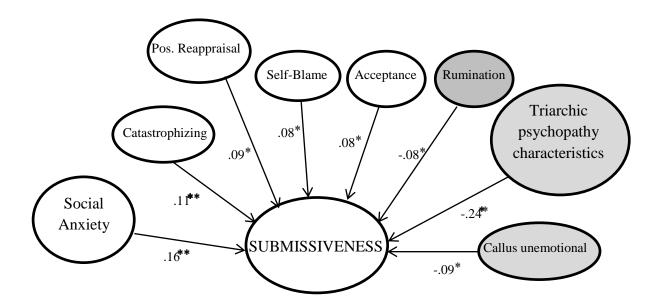


Figure 8: Predictors of Submissiveness



Study 2: The use of vignettes for the study of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness

Introduction

The aim of the present study is to further examine the nomological network of assertiveness, as this is measured in children and adolescent, with the use of Vignettes. The vignettes methodology has not been previously used in the study of assertiveness but vignettes have been widely used in the training of assertiveness, where hypothetical situations are used to teach the processes of assertive responding in interpersonal relations. This study aims to address a limitation of the measures of assertiveness, by expanding the data collection measures beyond the self-report questionnaires using the vignettes measure. It is believed that the vignettes may provide an opportunity for a more closely approximation to the actual behavior of children, thus limiting the bias of giving socially accepted answers. For this purpose a vignette's tool was developed for the needs of this study in order to measure children's assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness and try to capture comprehensively these concepts.

The construct of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness was studied through correlation analyses and regression models predicting assertive and non-assertive behavior a) by using the vignettes measure and CATS and CAI self-report questionnaires together in a complimentary way and b) by using the external constructs measured in Study 1 (anxiety traits, externalizing behaviors, socializing characteristics and emotion regulation strategies) as predictors of assertiveness measured through the use of vignettes. However before examining the above it was necessary to establish the construct validity and psychometric properties of the vignettes measure so the next section describes the characteristics and the use of vignettes.

Vignettes have a long history in the psychology research going back to initial users of vignettes as Piaget (1932, 1965), where he used the "story situations" to study the reasoning of children. Atzmuller and Steiner (2010) described vignettes as "short, carefully constructed descriptions of a person, object, or situation, representing a systematic combination of characteristics" (p. 128) and can be presented in a written format and can also include images or videos (Hughes & Huby, 2002). The use of vignettes in research has been proven effective for researching sensitive topics (Aubry et al. 1995) because of their hypothetical and depersonalization character (Finch 1987). Moreover vignettes are useful in the study of ethical dilemmas regarding sensitive matters

that can be addressed with the creation of hypothetical scenarios, (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014) for example when studying conflict situations between peers that would be unethical to study experimentally. Conclusively vignettes can be regarded as a controlled experiment, something in between the two poles questionnaire or real life experiments.

The most frequently cited theoretical limitation for the use of vignettes in research is the distance that might occur between what the respondents believe they would do in a given situation and what they would actually do in the same situation. Indeed, some commentators have argued that the undefined association between belief and action represents the foremost hazard in using this technique as a standalone method (West 1982, cited in Finch 1987). Although the users of vignettes have accepted this criticism on the other hand this methodology has been recommended by researches as the answer to the limitations of questionnaires for eliciting unreliable and biased self-reports. Questionnaires have been described as too abstract and vague allowing each respondent to create their own mental image arising from the question based on their personal experiences. On the contrary vignettes give a more concrete and detailed description that is closer to real life situations and thus real life decisions. The application of vignettes to research promotes a standardization of the stimulus presented across respondents and also elicits answers closer to possible real life decisions (Cheryl & Henry, 1978). The reason for the use of vignettes was to provide a behaviorally anchored indication of children's tendency to act assertively, submissively or aggressively and to examine how this method of assertiveness assessment relates to questionnaire measures of the same construct.

Current Study

The purpose of this study was to assess the validity of structured, closed-ended vignettes as indicators of children's assertive, submissive and aggressive behavior and to examine if they may be a more valid and comprehensive way to assess these behaviors, in the light of the limitations of existing measures. The aim was to combine in one tool the types of situations assessed by the two measures included in Study 1. The answers from the vignettes were compared to the answers the respondent gave in the questionnaires, measuring assertiveness, aggressiveness or submissiveness, in order to examine whether the children's answers in the self-report questionnaires were related to the children's responses to vignettes, providing, in this way, cross-validation for both types of measures. Moreover this study examined how much variance of the level of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness measured with vignettes could be predicted from

anxiety traits, externalizing behaviors, socialization characteristics and emotion regulation strategies, providing a conceptual replication of the findings in Study 1.

Vignettes development

The kind of vignettes used in this study are called "paper people studies" that consist of vignettes in written form and then asks participants to make explicit decisions, judgments, and choices or express behavioral preferences for the specific situation presented (Alexander & Becker, 1978). These vignettes were carefully designed especially for the needs of this study based on the literature for designing vignettes for research. The vignettes design was based on the theory of assertiveness describing social situations in which a person has to act assertively in order to stand up for one's rights and opinion against friends, adults and authority figures, accept compliments or refuse irrational demands from others etc. An effort was made in order for the vignettes to be relatively mundane and include events that usually occur in the respondents daily lives, based in their age and sociocultural background, avoiding unusual characters and events (Barter & Renold, 1999; Seguin & Ambrosio, 2002). They were also designed to measure multiple aspects of assertiveness such as receiving complements, taking credit, expressing an opinion, defending one's rights, in order to counter the limitations of the existing questionnaires, which assess narrow aspects of the assertiveness construct. The language of the vignettes was fairly easy in order to be understood by a wider range of ages and reading abilities but at the same time providing enough information for the respondent to understand the context of the story. Wording was carefully examined in order to avoid influencing the respondent's answer (Wason, Polonsky, & Hyman, 2002).

The first step in developing the vignettes was to gather a list of social interaction situations where assertiveness may be called for in children's and adolescents' lives. This list was based on existing questionnaires measuring assertiveness, on assertiveness theories and literature, and on assertiveness training programs. Focus was mainly placed in gathering situations where the individual is in an interpersonal situation when a dilemma rises concerning his/her rights, wellbeing etc. Then a team was assembled consisting of the main researcher of this study, a team of six research assistants (psychology students) and the supervisor professor to help in the development of the vignettes. The research assistants and the main researcher created 40 vignettes that made up the initial pool. These were then rated by the same team of researchers according to the criteria of being age appropriate in terms of the language and situation, and in terms of eliciting the dilemma of choosing a

behavior regarding an interpersonal problem or conflict situation. For the final selection of the vignettes each research assistant voted for the five best vignettes scoring from one to five on the same criteria as above plus the criterion of having multiple types of situations represented. The final selection of the vignettes was done by the main researcher and the supervisor professor, after all the votes were collected. The 20 vignettes, with the higher scores that fulfilled the abovementioned criteria, and varied as to the situation referred to, were chosen to be included in the vignettes tool (appendix D).

The vignettes instrument began with general instructions about how to respond, while the scenarios of the vignettes followed. Each vignette presented a written description of a social interaction and a set of three possible actions. Instructions were as follows: Please circle one answer for each of the three options below, according to what is most likely for you to do in each situation. Higher numbers mean a higher possibility for you to act in the way described. Then write in your own words what else you would do. There is no right or wrong answer. In each situation the three answers included one submissive, one assertive and one aggressive answer all of which had to be scored on a 5 point Likert scale from 1 to 5 (1 not at all likely, 2 Shortly Likely, 3 Fairly Likely, 4 Likely, 5 Very Likely) with a higher score representing a higher score in submissiveness, assertiveness and aggressiveness respectively. The total score for each scale is acquired from the sum of the all submissive, assertive and aggressive items respectively. This written, closed-ended form was adopted because it could be used easily in a large-scale research project and in order to facilitate scoring. The vignettes included short scenarios like the one that follows: "Demetris is a student of the gymnasium and he is an excellent pupil. All his grades are very high except for the history lesson. Although he got 20/20 in the history test and he is very good in the classroom lesson the teacher graded him with 18/20 at the end of the year. Demetris believes that this was unfair". What would you do if you were in Demetris' place?

	Not possible	Small possibility	Possible	Quite possible	Very possible
I would ask the teacher if she made a mistake with my grade and if not why she graded me like this	1	2	3	4	5
I would go to the teacher very angrily asking for an explanation	1	2	3	4	5
I would not have done anything and I would have let it go	1	2	3	4	5

Method

Participants and procedure

The vignettes were administered to a subsample of 80 children from the primary schools chosen in the first phase of the questionnaire administration that consented to take part in this second phase. The children that responded to the vignettes were randomly chosen and were between the ages 11 to 12 years old because this was considered the most appropriate age group for these specific vignettes content. The administration for the vignettes followed all the steps that have been followed for the questionnaires and described in the methodology chapter, including the approval by the Ministry of Education and Culture and the parental consent and child voluntary participation. Children responded to the vignettes in the classroom during school time, in the presence of a researcher. Participants were asked to respond as honestly as possible referring to what would most possibly be their behavior in these situations and not what they thought was right since there is no right or wrong answer.

Plan for analysis

To assess the psychometric properties of the vignettes and address the aims of the study several sets of analyses were conducted. An exploratory principal-components factor analysis was performed for the vignettes instrument to test the instrument's factor structure, with regards to the initial intention that it should reflect a valid measure of assertiveness, submissiveness and aggressiveness. Next, the internal consistency of the scale scores was calculated via Cronbach's coefficient alpha after EFA was conducted. Moreover in order to assess the instrument's construct validity vignettes scores were correlated with all scale scores of the anxiety traits, externalizing behaviors, socialization characteristics and emotion regulation strategies in order to examine the degree to which they are associated with assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness in children as measured with vignettes. To further identify the best predictors of these communication

behaviors, linear regressions were also conducted, with a) anxiety traits, b) externalizing traits, c) socialization characteristics, and d) emotion regulation skills as predictors of assertiveness, submissiveness and aggressiveness, measured with vignettes, respectively as in Study 1, in separate regression models.

Results

The vignettes' instrument factor structure was assessed using the principal component factoring method with Varimax rotation. A three factor solution analysis was forced on the data. From the first order analysis the aggressiveness items loaded clearly on one factor except the items Agg17.1, 19.2, 16.2 and 12.3 that were removed from the scale because they loaded on the wrong factor or loaded significantly on more than one factors. The assertiveness and submissiveness items emerged mixed together in two additional factors, suggesting that they may not be as clearly separable as aggressive communications in the perception of children. Therefore, a second order factor analysis for only the assertiveness and submissiveness items was conducted in an effort to separate the items, where two factors were indeed clearly defined. Items that were retained had a primary factor loading greater than .32 and a cross-loading with more than a .15 difference between their primary and secondary factors (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). Items Ass15.3, 16.3, 10.1 and Sub10.3 were removed because they did not fit these criteria. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KmO) index was .51 and Bartlett's Tests of Sphericity was significant at the .001 level, for the first order exploratory factor analysis and .58 and statistically significant at the .001 level for the second exploratory factor analysis (Table 1).

The two EFAs resulted in a final three factor solution that was adopted, based on the theoretical framework. The factors extracted explained 42% of the total variance in this study and loaded meaningfully on their expected factors. The three factors, with their percentages of explained variance, were Aggressiveness 14% from the first EFA and for Aggressiveness 15% and for Submissiveness 13% from the second EFA. The total assertiveness, total submissiveness and total aggressiveness score was computed for each participant with the sum for of each subscale, on the Likert scale, from all the vignettes. The answers to the open ended questions at the end of each vignette "Then write in your own words what else you would do" where not analyzed since a big percentage (90%) did not answer the question or answered it with very few words (10%).

According to the results, the vignettes demonstrated good psychometric properties. Specifically, each of the vignettes subscales, assertiveness, submissiveness, aggressiveness,

exhibited acceptable reliability and total item correlation in the present study. The results of reliability analysis for the three subscales of the vignettes show that all three subscales of the vignettes have a satisfactory reliability with coefficient alpha values ranging from 0.78 to 0.89 after EFA was conducted (Assertiveness α =0.78, Aggressiveness α =.89, Submissiveness α =.78). Skewness appeared for the data with the assertiveness subscale showing negative skewness and for the submissive and aggressive subscale showing positive skewness (Table 1), which suggests that to some degree children either selected socially appropriate answers, or that socially acceptable behaviors are more common than extreme submissive and aggressive behaviors.

Bivariate correlations between the vignettes subscales sum scores were computed to assess independence of the scales scores. The three subscales vignettes assertiveness, vignettes aggressiveness, vignettes submissiveness were independent since no statistically significant correlation yielded from the bivariate correlations (Table 2). These results support that the three subscale are independent and measure three different behaviors namely assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness. In fact, this is an advantage over the results of the questionnaires, where the subscales were correlated to a greater degree.

Correlation analyses with other assertiveness measures

Correlation analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness measured by CATS and assertiveness measured with CAI as predictors for assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness measured by the vignettes tool. Bivariate correlation analysis did not yield any statistically significant correlation between assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness measured with the vignettes tools, with the same variables as measured with CATS and CAI (Table 3), suggesting that children and adolescents respond somewhat differently to the vignettes' tool than to the questionnaires.

Regression analyses for Assertiveness, Aggressiveness and Submissiveness measured with the Vignettes

Regression analysis followed with separate regression analyses for assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness measured with the vignettes tool as criterion and the four groups of predictors as used in Study 1, namely anxiety traits, externalizing behaviors, socialization characteristics and cognitive emotion regulation strategies. These regression models were conducted to examine the degree to which the four groups of predictors can

predict assertiveness or aggressiveness or submissiveness measured with the vignettes tool. The adjusted R^2 was used in the report of all the regression models

First, a regression model was conducted to examine the degree to which externalizing behaviors (callous unemotional, triarchic psychopathy and novelty seeking) predict assertive behavior; this was significant with $R^2 = .08$, F(3, 60) = 2.83, p < .05. Looking at specific predictors indicated that children with high levels of psychopathy measured with TriPM (B=-11.8, SE=1.5, β =-.31, t= -2.60, p < .05) had significantly lower assertiveness. The novelty seeking and the callous unemotional scales did not contribute significantly to the model. The same regression model was conducted to examine the degree to which externalizing behaviors (callous unemotional, triarchic psychopathy and novelty seeking) predicted aggressive behavior; this model was significant with $R^2 = .12$, F(3, 60) = 3.95, p < .05. Looking at specific predictors indicated that children with high levels of psychopathy measured with TriPM (B=41.02, SE=13.68, β =.35, t= 2.99, p < .05) had significantly higher aggressiveness. The novelty seeking and the callous unemotional scales did not contribute significantly to this model. The rest of the regression models were not statistically significant nor were individual predictors significant in predicting assertive and non-assertive behavior (Table 4).

Discussion

This study's aim was to examine further the nomological network of assertiveness using a vignettes instrument developed for the purposes of this study, in order to add to the instruments type in measuring of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness, beyond self-repost measures and thus address the limitations of Study 1. Moreover the psychometric properties of the vignettes tool and the correlation of the constructs of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness with other external constructs were examined. This study contributed to the unbinding of assertiveness from submissiveness addressing the limitation of the CATS, and to the unbinding of assertiveness from aggressiveness addressing the limitation of the CAI. The use of vignettes in this research was driven by the aims of the study, establishment of assertiveness nomological network, and based on specific characteristics of this method that make it appropriate for researching sensitive topics (Aubry et al. 1995) that cannot be examined experimentally, like peer relations and behavior of children and adolescents in interpersonal relation. Moreover vignettes were chosen as a different type of tool, something in between the two poles of a questionnaire or real life experiments, so that the examination of the assertiveness construct would be done using a multi-method approach.

Based on the results of this study the three subscales vignettes assertiveness, vignettes aggressiveness, vignettes submissiveness can be considered as three independent measures of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness since no statistically significant correlation emerged between the three subscales. This finding also indicates that the limitation of the CATS measure to unbind assertiveness from submissiveness (Deluty, 1979, 1984), which on the CATS shows positive correlations, was addressed in the vignettes measure. The results from the vignettes correlation among the subscales that denoted independence of them might indicate that this newly developed instrument of vignettes has managed to unbind the three constructs of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness between them and measure them more independently than the questionnaires. Based on the findings it can be suggested that the creation of the vignettes measure consists of a novel contribution to the assessment of assertiveness, over and above what can be assessed using self-reports only. However, a rather unexpected finding was that the vignettes' three subscales had no statistically significant correlation with the CATS measure subscales. It is possible that this might be explained to some extent by the fact that the vignettes questionnaires were administered 6 months after the CATS measure and thus developmental changes in children's assertiveness or changes in how children see themselves overtime may explain the different ways in which children responded in the two measures. Moreover the examination or the relation between predictors of anxiety traits, externalizing behaviors and socialization characteristics results revealed that high levels of psychopathy measured with TriPM were associated with high aggressiveness and low assertiveness. This association replicates previous findings relating aggressiveness with psychopathy and lack of assertiveness (Cooke & Michie, 2001; Fowles & Dindo, 2009; Frick & White, 2008; Gorenstein & Newman, 1980; Hare, 1996, 1991; Klingzell, Fanti, Colins, Frogner, Andershed, & Andershed, 2015; Krueger et al., 2002; Partridge, 1928a, 1928b; Patrick, Hicks, Krueger, & Lang, 2005; Roose, Bijttebier, Decoene, Claes, & Frick, 2009) and are in line with the results from Study 1 of this research. The effects replicate the findings of Study 1 and strengthen conclusions about the negative association between aggression and assertiveness, showing that aggression is not merely being more assertive. Through the converging evidence derived from Study 1 and the current study it appears that psychopathic traits has a crucial role in predicting the social communication behavior of children.

The rest of the regression analyses did not reveal any other statistically significant relations between the group of predictors and the assertiveness, aggressiveness and

submissiveness measured with the vignettes and again this might be attributed to the small number of the sample. Submissiveness was not found to be related or significant by the group of anxiety traits as the strong effect that was found in Study 1. This finding maybe attributed to the fact that perhaps because the vignettes were closer to real life situations and so children avoided revealing a submissive option even if that reflected their real answer and preferred reposting an assertive answer that was more socially accepted. Alternatively, because vignettes specifically ask for submissive responses, this finding is also an effect of the better ability of this measure to unbind submissiveness from assertiveness. Perhaps, the associations found in Study 1 between anxiety and submissiveness are actually declaring an association between anxiety and low assertiveness and not submissiveness, due to the inability of the measure to clearly differentiate between submissiveness and low assertiveness. Results of the present study indicate that even if children with high anxiety traits do not behave assertively, this does not necessarily mean that they behave submissively. If there were more responses to the open-ended questions regarding what one would have actually done on the vignettes measure this hypothesis would have been addressed more definitively.

Regarding the structure of the vignettes and specifically the answers to the open ended questions at the end of each vignette "Then write in your own words what else you would do" we assume that since in each vignette the three options of an assertive, an aggressive and a submissive option was given most of the children could not think of another option different to the above and this was also supported from the fact that the few children that did answer the open ended questions actually repeated one of the given answers on top but in different words. This finding supports the assumption that generally behavior in interpersonal relations may actually vary in between these three options of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness.

A limitation of this study's was evident in the results where some items showed a high skewness (Table 1) indicating that some respondents possibly provided socially acceptable response and not what they might actually do in a similar situation. However, a similar problem exists for questionnaires' results where some items showed a high skewness (Table 1) as in Study 1 indicating also a possible bias in the answers in the CATS and CAI questionnaire although the skewness for these measurements was smaller than for the Vignettes. This can be attributed possibly to the small sample size of the vignettes reflecting the fact that skewness is very sensitive to sample size (Doane, & Seward, 2011). Moreover regarding the limitations of this study another cautionary note

must be made for the fact that number of responses on the vignettes measures was much smaller than the questionnaires measures, which may have decreased the likelihood of obtaining significant effects. Interrelations between the vignettes subscales revealed that the three subscales are independent. These results are contrary previous research (Deluty, 1979) and the results in the Study 1 of this research suggesting that the three vignettes subscale measure three separate constructs. The correlation between the results of the vignettes measure with CATS and CAI subscales did not reveal any statistically significant correlations; this may be attributed to the small sample of the participants who completed both types of measures, vignettes and questionnaires, or it may reflect differences in what these vignettes measure given that they were designed to assess assertiveness in a wider range of situations. However, this non-expected result places some question on the construct validity of the vignettes, and creates the need to further study the association between the vignettes tool and questionnaires in a larger sample. Future studies may replicate the use of the vignettes and findings in a larger sample and in a wider age range.

The vignettes designed and used in this research can be considered a good measure for assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness also because of their high reliability. Also the independence between the three subscales may have solved the CATS measure problem of unbinding assertiveness from submissiveness. Construct validity was supported through the clear 3 factor structure emerging from EFA results and the expected associations of these constructs with external indicators of externalizing behaviours. However, given the small N of this study, further research into the development of this research tool is required in order to further examine the vignettes relation with other external constructs that will strengthen the constructs validity and reliability. The practical implications of this study's results are the use of this newly developed vignettes tool to further examine the constructs of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness or for the use of this tool for screening children and adolescents for these behaviours.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations and Cronbach alpha for the Vignettes

				Skewness		Kurto	Items removed	
					Std.		Std.	
	M	SD	A	Statistic	Error	Statistic	Error	
Submissiveness	2.2	0.5	0.82	.95	.26	.82	.52	10.3
Vignettes								
Assertiveness	4.1	0.5	0.78	-1.0	.26	1.1	.52	15.3, 16.3,
Vignettes								10.1
Aggressiveness	1.9	0.7	0.89	.85	.26	.02	.52	17.1, 19.2,
Vignettes								16.2
Submissiveness	9.8	4.0	.73	38	.08	63	.16	Sub9,
CATS								Sub13,
Assertiveness	15	3.9	.73	-1.1	.08	1.0	.16	Ass9, Ass13
CATS								Ass10
Aggressiveness	3.3	4.1	.87	1.5	.08	2.0	.16	
CATS								
Assertiveness	4.6	1.1	.30	86	.08	.72	.16	CAI5, CAI8
positive CAI								
Assertiveness	5.6	1.5	.46	48	.08	16	.16	CAI1
negative CAI								
Assertiveness	9.7	1.9	.39	54	.08	.09	.16	
total CAI								

Table 2
Intercorrelations between Assertiveness, Aggressiveness and Submissiveness subscales from the Vignettes

Variable Vignettes	Assertiveness	Aggressiveness	Submissiveness
	Vignettes	Vignettes	Vignettes
Assertiveness	1		
Aggressiveness	-,15	1	
Submissiveness	,09	,16	1

^{*}p<.05, **p<.001

Table 3 Correlations between Assertiveness, Aggressiveness and Submissiveness from the Vignettes, CATS and CAI

vigneties, chilb and	C/ 11			
Variable Vignettes	Assertiveness	Assertiveness	Aggressiveness	Submissiveness
	CATS	CAI	CATS	CATS
Assertiveness	.07	.01	17	02
Aggressiveness	.17	01	19	.02
Submissiveness	.01	.09	.00	15

^{*}p<.05, **p<.001

Table 4
Regression analysis for Assertiveness, Aggressiveness and Submissiveness Vignettes with predictor variables

Variable	Assertiveness			Agg	Aggressiveness			Submissiveness		
	7	Vignette	S	V	Vignettes			Vignettes		
	В	SEB	β	В	SEB	β	В	SEB	β	
Social anxiety	.12	.10	.15	17	.12	18	.12	.11	.13	
Harm avoidance	.20	.26	.10	29	.31	12	15	.29	06	
Victimization	.06	.05	.13	09	.17	06	07	.14	06	
Peer acceptance	09	.09	12	.16	.30	.06	35	.25	16	
Callous	13	.12	14	.16	.16	.13	04	.14	04	
unemotional										
Novelty seeking	.48	.45	.14	97	.58	21	34	.52	09	
Psychopathy	-27.7	10.6	32*	41.02	13.7	.35*	19.7	12.2	.20	
TriPM										

^{*}p<.05, **p<.001

Study 3

Parenting practices and assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness in children

Introduction

The aim of the present study was to add knowledge to the nomological network of assertiveness by examining child assertiveness in relation to family factors and specifically parenting practices. To do so the study attempted to identify which parenting behaviors and sociodemographic characteristics of the family predict assertive behavior as opposed to parenting behaviors that predict aggressiveness and submissiveness in children and adolescent. Parental practices and parents' interaction with their children are known to play an enormous role in the socialization and the cognitive and social-emotional development of the child (Bornstein & Bradley 2003; Collins et al. 2000; Ponderotto & Pedersen, 1993) and the development of social skills and interpersonal relationships (Stocker & Youngblade, 1999), therefore are expected to be predictive of the social skill of assertive communication. The association between assertiveness and parenting practices has not been examined before and revealing information about this association will be crucial for the understanding of how assertiveness is influenced by parenting practices. Understanding the role of familial factors in the development of assertiveness can also provide directions for interventions and psychoeducation training for parents aimed at increasing assertiveness skills in children.

Moreover regarding the measurement of parenting practices we observe that there is a lack of instruments measuring parenting practices in Greek speaking countries (Greece and Cyprus). For this reason the Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran (EMBU) (Swedish acronym, S-EMBU-A), "My memories of upbringing" Adolescent version (Penelo, Viladrich & Domènech, 2012) subscales and the Incredible Years (IY) Interview questionnaire (Capaldi & Patterson, 1989; Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992) subscales, were administered for the first time in the context of the present study in their Greek versions. Therefore, part of this chapter also pertains to the psychometric evaluation of these instruments on the sample of children and the sample of parents of this study respectively.

Parenting practices and the socialization of the child

The socialization of children is a subject that occupied many disciplines, starting from the seventeenth century when the philosopher John Locke (1969) claimed that children are born "tabula rasa", a "white board" that would be "written" by the child's life

experiences. Later on another philosopher Jean Jack Rousseau (1762) supported that children are "innately good" and parents will influence their children negatively after they are born. The debate between nature and nurture still exists. For the purposes of this study we are interested in shedding light on how parental practices influence the child's social development.

Numerous studies have demonstrated the association between parenting practices and children's adjustment (Rapee, 1997; Muris, Meesters, & Van den Berg, 2003). The family milieu has a significant contribution to the socialization of children (Collins et al. 2000) and parenting practices are recognized as a vital element of children's development (Bornstein & Bradley 2003). Parents seem to have an important role in the social development of the children since family is the first socialization context which is considered to have the most important influence on the cognitive and social-emotional growth of the child (Ponderotto & Pedersen, 1993). Empirical data support that the parental rearing behaviors influence the developmental course of children and adolescents in domains extending from the social adaptiveness and academic success to aggressiveness, anxiety and psychopathological characteristics.

For more than five decades psychologists have been studying the relation between parenting and child development. One of the prevailing constructs in the parenting literature is parenting style (Baumrind, 1991; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Mounts, 2002) described initially by Baumrind, in her seminal theory. Baumrind's (1971, 1978) theory described three distinct parental styles, the authoritarian, the authoritative and the permissive parenting style. Maccoby and Martin (1983) extended Baumrind's parenting style theory supporting that it is based on two main dimensions: parental demandingness and parental responsiveness. Demandingness describes parental expectations that are related to the child's behavior and socialization while responsiveness refers to the general tendency of parents to support and respond to their child's needs.

Furthermore a classification of parenting rearing behaviors was proposed by Jacobson, Knorring, Perris & Perris, (1980) describing specific types of parenting practices: abusive, depriving, punitive, shaming, rejecting, overprotective, overinvolved, tolerant, affectionate, performance-oriented, guilt-engendering, stimulating and favored siblings. Parenting practices have been described as the specific behaviors that parents use to socialize their children for example how they teach a child to deal with relational problems with peers.

In further development of this theory a classification of parenting practices that was later on presented reduced these practices to three main categories of parenting practices, these were: rejection, emotional warmth and overprotection (Penelo, Viladrich, Domènech, 2010, 2012). Overprotection during childhood was found to be associated with psychological disorders (Overbeek, ten Have, Vollebergh & de Graaf, 2007) while rejection and overprotection have shown a positive relation with anxiety, worrying and neuroticism and a negative relation with emotional warmth (Arrindell, Sanavio, Aguilar, Sica, Hatzichristou, Eisemann, Recinos, Gaszner, Peter, Batagliese, Kallai, Van der Ende, 1999; Gruner, Muris, & Merckelbach, 1999; Markus, Lindhout, Boer, Hoogendijk, Arrindell, 2003; Muris, Meesters, Merckelbach, & Hulsenbeck, 2000; Muris & Merckelbach, 1998). Rejection, overprotection and low emotional warmth were found to be positively related with aggressiveness (Meesters, Muris & Esselink, 1995) and risk behaviors by adolescents (Aluja, del Barrio & García, 2005; Repetti, Taylor & Seeman, 2002). On the contrary children who perceived their parents' behavior as warmer, less rejecting and overprotecting were socially well-adjusted (Meesters et al., 1995) and characterized by more extraversion (Arrindell et al., 1999, 2005). Parental emotional warmth was also found to positively correlate with the child's characteristic of cooperativeness (Richter, Krecklow & Eisemann, 2002).

For the purposes of this study parenting was defined as parenting behaviors towards their children and was measured based on two measures, the first resulting in the three subscales of the short version of the Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran—questionnaire for Adolescent (S-EMBU-A) that were: "rejection" describing criticizing and strict parental behavior, "emotional warmth" describing a loving and supporting parental behavior and "overprotection" describing an over controlling and interfering behavior (Penelo, Viladrich, Domènech, 2012) and the second resulting in the six subscales of the adapted version of the Incredible Years parenting practices questionnaire of the child Patterson and colleagues at the Oregon Social Learning Center's (OSLC) developed a telephone interview for parents in the program called Incredible Years (Capaldi & Patterson, 1989; Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992), that were: "venting of parent", "withdrawal of parent", "emotional rewards", "material rewards", "punishment" and "corporal punishment".

Parenting practices assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness

Assertiveness has not been closely examined in relation to parenting practices and this can be considered an area which has received very little attention from researches. The present study attempts to fill this gap by examining the predictive role of parenting on the child's assertive behavior. Additionally the study reports findings regarding the association between parenting practices, aggressiveness and submissiveness.

Several studies have identified a relation between negative parenting practices and childhood aggression and antisocial behavior, victimization and shyness (Chen et al., 1997, 2002; Loeber & Dishion, 1983; McCord, 1991). Some parenting practices seem to promote externalizing behavior problems that might be linked to aggressiveness and some parenting practices seem to promote internalizing behavior problems that might be linked to submissiveness. Aggressiveness and problematic externalizing behaviors have been linked with authoritarian parenting, which is described by low responsiveness and low warmth and high levels of control and rejection (Fabes, Leonard, Kupanoff, & Martin, 2001; Patterson, 1982, 1986; Stansbury & Zimmermann, 1999; Pereira, Canavarro, Cardoso, & Mendonca, 2009). Aggressive behavior in adolescent boys was found to be positively correlated with mother's negativism (coldness, indifference, rejection and hostility), mother's permissiveness for aggression and the use of "power assertive" (physical punishment and verbal threats) methods by both parents (Olweus, 1980).

Parenting practices that hinder social skills development and promote dependence and shyness may be linked with submissiveness and problematic internalizing behaviors. Permissive parenting, which is characterized by responsiveness from the parents with limited or no control or restrictions, has been linked with victimization of the child as a consequence of underdeveloped initiative and social skills, due to permissive and overprotective parents that make their children dependent on them (Georgiou, 2008a). Overprotective parenting is also linked with the development of shyness and internalizing problems in children (Rubin, Burgess, & Hastings, 2002). Based on the above it was hypothesized that assertiveness would be positively related with the parenting practices that are generally considered positive (emotional warmth and emotional rewards) and negatively with the parenting practices generally considered negative (overprotection, rejection) while aggressiveness and submissiveness on the other hand would be positively related to negative parenting practices and negatively to positive parenting practices.

Socioeconomic status of the family and the relation to assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness and parenting practices

Besides parenting practices another important variable of the family environment is the socioeconomic status (SES) of the parents. This variable seems to be associated with many characteristics of the behavior of children and seems to play an important role in the child's development. SES can include family income, parental education, occupational status, and place of residence. For purposes of this study SES was defined as the educational level of the parents and the self-reported financial situation of the family. Research evidence links SES with a wide range of health, cognitive, and socioemotional effects in children. It is supported that the mechanism behind this relation of the family's SES and the child's well-being involves the experiences acquired based on material and social resources and the effects of stress associated with lower SES status (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002). The educational level of parents has been positively related to social competence and negatively related to emotional and behavioral problems of the child (Duncan, Brooks-Gunn, & Klebanov, 1994). SES has also been associated with aggressiveness and delinquency (McCoy, Firck, Loney, & Ellis, 1999) where research evidence supports that low SES has been linked to more conduct problems and antisocial behavioral development in children (Patterson, Kupersmidt & Vaden, 1990; Dodge, Pettit, & Bates, 1994) and more aggressive behavior (Rimm-Kaufman, Pianta, & Cox, 2000; Webster-Stratton, 1998). The tendency toward aggressiveness in interpersonal relations in individuals with low SES has been supported by research evidence (Barefoot, Peterson, Dahlstrom, 1991; Christensen, Lund, Damsgaard, 2004) but findings also support the opposite effect, that low SES might be associated with submissiveness, although it is considered an opposite construct to aggressiveness. Low SES is usually associated with less dominance and authority, which may result in low perceived control, self-efficacy, and self-esteem. Low SES adults may view others whom they socially interact with as more dominant and more threatening (Twenge, Campbell, 2002) while children and adolescents with low SES tend to interpret unclear social stimuli as more threatening (Chen, Langer, Raphaelson & Matthews, 2004). Based on the above research it is hypothesized that high SES will be positively related to assertiveness and negatively related to aggressiveness and submissiveness.

Furthermore the relation of the socioeconomic status of the family with parenting practices was also examined in this research study. Research findings have supported that socioeconomic status affects parenting practices (Trickett, et al., 1991) and more

specifically that low SES may predict parenting practices like child neglect and abuse (Ondersma, 2002) and higher psychological stress (Melki et al., 2004) and risk for victimization (Pearlman, Zierler, Gjelsvik, & Verhoek-Oftedahl, 2004). Therefore it was hypothesized that the family high SES would be positively correlated with positive parenting practices and low SES would be correlated with negative parenting practices.

Current study

The present study aimed at examining how parenting practices measured with two relevant tools EMBU and IY, which capture both the general family climate and specific discipline behaviors predict corresponding assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness as measured with the CATS and CAI. This study attempts to replicate and extend previous findings regarding the parenting practices that are associated with assertive and non-assertive types of interpersonal communication in children and adolescents, but also to reveal specifically which types of parenting behaviors may predict assertive behavior. The parenting practices measured in this study through the use of two complementary measures are: emotional warmth, overprotection, rejection, punishment, venting of parents, emotional rewards, parent withdrawal, corporal punishment, material rewards. Based on the above we hypothesized that:

- Emotional warmth and appropriate use of rewards (emotional and material rewards)
 will be significantly and positively related to assertiveness and negatively related to
 aggressiveness
- Rejection, punishment, corporal punishment and venting of parents will be significantly and negatively related to assertiveness and positively related to aggressiveness.
- 3. Overprotection and withdrawal will be significantly and negatively related to assertiveness and positively related to submissiveness.
- 4. The socioeconomic status of the family will be significantly and positively related to assertiveness and negatively related to submissiveness and aggressiveness.
- 5. The socioeconomic status of the family will be significantly and positively related to positive parenting practices.

Method

Participants

The participants of this study were the children and parents as described in the methodology chapter.

Measures

Child completed measures

Assertiveness, Aggressiveness, Submissiveness

The Children's Action Tendency Scale (CATS; Deluty, 1979) was used to measure assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness and the Children's Assertiveness Inventory (CAI, Ollendick, 1983) was also used to measure assertiveness. Both of these measures were described in detail in Study 1.

Parent completed measures

For the purposes of this study and the measure of parenting practices two measures were chosen for this reason the self-report questionnaire for children with the title "My memories of upbringing" (Penelo, Viladrich & Domènech, 2012) and a self-repost questionnaire for parents transformed into a questionnaire for the purposes of this study based on the parenting practices interview of the Incredible years interview (Capaldi & Patterson, 1989; Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992).

Parenting practices EMBU measure

The first questionnaire is one of the most widely used, reliable and valid self-report measures to assess perceived parental rearing behaviors (Penelo, Viladrich, Domènech, 2012) and has demonstrated adequate cross-cultural validity (Arrindell, Perris, Eisemann, Van der Ende, Gaszner, Iwawaki, 1994). The second questionnaire was chosen in order to measure the parenting practices used to discipline children like: Venting of Parent, Withdrawal of parent, Emotional Rewards, Material Rewards, Punishment and Corporal Punishment of the child.

The Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran, short version for adolescents and children (S-EMBU-A; "my memories of upbringing") is a well-established self-report measure assessing the parental rearing practices as perceived by the child. It has been

widely used in more than 25 countries including Greece, Italy and Spain and translated in many languages, establishing a high cross-cultural validity and reliability (Arrindell, Perris, Eisemann, Van der Ende, Gaszner, Iwawaki, 1994).

The S-EMBU-A is a 22-item self-report questionnaire, based on the original 64item EMBU-A, measuring the perceptions by children of parental rearing in adolescents, consisting of 3 subscales (Emotional Warmth items: 2, 6, 12, 14, 19, 23, Rejection items: 1, 4, 7, 13, 15, 16, 21 and Overprotection items: 3, 5, 8, 10, 11,17R, 18, 20, 22). The scale includes statements such as: "It happened that my parents were sour or angry with me without letting me know the cause.", "My parents praised me", "It happened that I wished my parents would worry less about what I was doing." and "It happened that my parents gave me more corporal punishment than I deserved." The answers of the questionnaire are rated on a 4-point Likert-scale (1 = no, never; 2 = yes, but seldom; 3 = yes, often; 4 = yes, most of the time) and for each item children were asked to assess their parents rearing behavior. The total score for each scale is acquired from the sum of the item values, with higher scores indicating more presence of the construct. In the original scale each question allows for the reporting of information separately for the father's and mother's rearing but for the present study the form of the questionnaire was adapted so children could report for both parents together since a pilot study has shown that the reposting for both parents was time consuming and confusing for the children. The S-EMBU-A has never been used in the Greek Cypriot population before and for this reason the questionnaire was translated and back translated with the help of other PhD students for the purposes of this study.

The S-EMBU-A questionnaire is considered a tool with good psychometric properties, strong factorial stability and reliability and has been translated and used in many countries. It can be used to identify rearing style in community samples. Previous studies revealed satisfactory internal consistency reliability for the 3 scales (Cronbach $\alpha \ge 0.74$) (Penelo, Viladrich & Domènech, 2012). Another study found higher level of Cronbach's α for Rejection and Emotional Warmth scales ($\alpha = 0.86$ and $\alpha = 0.88$ respectively) and lower for overprotection ($\alpha = 0.62$) (Gerlsma, Arrindell, Van der Veen & Emmelkamp, 1991).

Previous validity studies examining the relationship of the EMBU subscales have revealed a negative relation between emotional warmth and overprotection (Penelo, Viladrich, Domènech, 2012). The perception of overprotection and emotional warmth seem to be prone to developmental influence, where adolescents perceived overprotection

as lack of Emotional Warmth, intrusive and interfering whereas children perceive overprotection more as emotional warmth and involvement, engagement and interest (Barber, 1996; Castro, Toro, Van der Ende, Arrindell, 1993). These discrepancies between the two developmental stages of childhood and adolescents can be expected based on the fact that adolescence is considered a vulnerable and critical transition period during which mental, psychological, biological and social changes take place that might expose the individual to feelings of distress.

In the current study the factor structure of S-EMBU-A was explored using exploratory factor analysis. The principal component factoring method with Varimax rotation was used to assess the factor structure. Scree plot (Cattell, 1966), and eigenvalues greater than one (Kaiser, 1960) were used in order to determine the number of emerging factors. Items that were retained had a primary factor loading greater than .32 and a cross-loading with more than a .15 difference between their primary and secondary factors (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). The Kaiser–meyer–Olkin (KmO) index was .88 and Bartlett's Tests of Sphericity was significant at the .001 level, supporting appropriateness of the data for factor analysis. A three factors solution was requested, based on previous factor analytic findings.

The EFA resulted in a three factor solution that was adopted, based on the theoretical framework. The factors extracted explained 40% of the total variance in this study and loaded meaningfully on their expected factors. The three factors, with their percentages of explained variance, were Emotional Warmth 16%, Overprotection 13% and Rejection 11%. Six items satisfied the criteria for inclusion in the Emotional Warmth subscale (Emotional Warmth items: 2, 6, 12, 14, 19, 23) as the original scale of Penelo's. Eight items (1, 3, 8, 10, 11, 13, 15, 18) satisfied the criteria for inclusion in the Overprotection scale compared to Penelo's (2012) Overprotection scale (3, 5, 8, 10, 11, 17R, 18, 20, 22). Items 20 and 22 did not load on this factor as they were expected. Item 17 reversed ("I felt that my parents did not interfere in everything I did") that originally loaded on the overprotection scale, (Penelo et. al., 2012), loaded on the emotional warmth scale in this study indicating that children perceived this type of parental involvement as emotional warmth; this was removed. Item 1 (bitter or angry parents) that originally loaded on the rejection scale loaded on the overprotection scale for this study indicating that children perceived this item as overprotection. Item 15 (like siblings more) originally loaded on the rejection scale but in the present data it loaded on the overprotection scale and it also had a negative lower loading on emotional warmth indicating that children perceived this item as something opposite to emotional warmth. Item 13 (scapegoat) originally loaded on the rejection scale but in this study it loaded on the overprotection scale. All three items (1, 15, and 13) were kept on the overprotection scale since they loaded convincingly and also raised the reliability or the scale. Six items (4, 7, 16, 20, 21, and 22) satisfied the criteria for inclusion in the Rejection scale compared to Penelo's (2012) rejection scale (1, 4, 7, 13, 15, 16, and 21). Items 5 (account to parents) was part of the overprotection scale in Penelo's solution (2012), but in the present data it loaded on the rejection but was removed because it lowered the subscale's reliability. Items 20 (put definite limits) and 22 (influence dressing) originally loaded on the overprotection scale but in this study loaded on the rejection and were kept on this scale since they made the reliability higher. Reliabilities of the S-EMBU-A subscales, based on the factors and items retained in the current study were as follows: α =.78 for the subscale of emotional warmth, α =.69 for the subscale of overproduction and rejection α =.68.

Parenting Practices Incredible Year measure

Patterson and colleagues at the Oregon Social Learning Center's (OSLC) developed a telephone interview for parents in the program called Incredible Years. The parenting practices interview (PPI) can be administered as an interview or used as a self-report questionnaire, as has been used in this study, completed by the child's primary caregiver (Capaldi & Patterson, 1989; Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992). Parenting practices in the PPI focus on how children are disciplined through the following parenting practices: Venting of Parent, Withdrawal of parent, Emotional Rewards, Material Rewards, Punishment and Corporal Punishment of the child.

This measure, in its questionnaire format for parents, was explored using exploratory factor analysis that resulted in a six factor solution that was adopted, based on the meaningfulness of the emerging factors. The factors extracted explained 52% of the total variance in this study which included items that where similar in meaning. The six factors, with their percentages of explained variance, were Punishment 11% (items: 2, 4, 16, 17, 18, 19), Venting of parent 10% (items: 3, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, 13), emotional rewards 9% (items: 21, 22), material rewards 8% (items: 23, 24, 25), parent withdrawal 7% (items: 1, 12, 14, 15) and corporal punishment 7% (9, 8). Items 20 and 26 did not load convincingly on any factor and so were removed.

The reliability analysis of the Parenting Practices factors resulting from the exploratory factor analysis were medium to high, for four of the subscales and medium to

low, for the last two. Specifically Cronbach's alphas were .71 for the subscale of Venting of Parent, .73 for Punishment, .72, for Emotional Rewards, .71 for Material Rewards, .44 for Withdrawal of parent and .67 for Corporal Punishment (Table 1).

Socioeconomic status of the family

The socioeconomic status of the parents was measured based on the education level and financial situation as reported by the parents in the sociodemographic questionnaire administered to all the parents. The sociodemographic questionnaire included personal and family questions regarding the age, gender, educational level, financial and marital state and area of living. Regarding the educational level a list with education levels from primary school to university was listed and parents circle the answer that represented their educational level. Regarding the socioeconomically status a seven point Likert scale from very bad to very good was given for parents to circle the number that represented their financial state (more details in the methodology chapter).

Results

Bivariate correlation between variables

Bivariate correlations between all the parenting practices subscales were computed to assess independence of the scales scores. Venting of parents was positively related to punishment, corporal punishment, emotional rewards and material rewards. Punishment was positively related with withdrawal of parents, corporal punishment, material rewards, overprotection and rejection while it was also negatively related to emotional warmth. Withdrawal of parents was positively related to corporal punishment and negatively related to emotional warmth. Emotional rewards were positively related to material rewards and emotional warmth. Overprotection was highly positively related to rejection (Table 2).

Correlation analyses were conducted to examine the associations between parenting behaviors and assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness of children (Table 3). Multiple regression analyses were also conducted to examine the predictive value of parenting behaviors and sociodemographic characteristics for assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness measured by the CATS questionnaire and assertiveness measured with the CAI (Table 4).

Parental emotional warmth and emotional rewards practices were found to be positively and significantly correlated with the assertiveness (CATS & CAI) criterion, indicating that those with higher scores on these parent variables tend to have higher assertiveness. Parental overprotection and rejection were negatively and significantly

correlated with the assertiveness (CATS & CAI) criterion, indicating that children with higher scores on these variables tend to have lower assertiveness. Emotional warmth was negatively and significantly correlated with the aggressiveness criterion, indicating that those with higher scores on this variable tend to have lower aggressiveness. Overprotection and rejection were positively and significantly correlated with aggressiveness, indicating that those with higher scores on these variables tend to have higher aggressiveness. Finally material rewards and emotional warmth were positively and significantly correlated with the submissiveness criterion, indicating that those with higher scores on these variables tend to have higher submissiveness.

Prediction of assertive and non-assertive behavior from parenting and family characteristics

Regression analysis followed with assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness measured with CATS and CAI as criterion measures and the parenting practices measured with the EMBU and the PPI as predictors.

A regression analysis was conducted to examine the degree to which EMBU parenting practices (emotional warmth, overprotection, rejection) and parenting practices based on the IY (venting of parents, punishment, emotional rewards, material rewards, withdrawal of parent, corporal punishment) predict assertiveness as measured with CATS. Indeed the model was significant, $R^2 = .08$, F (9, 688) = 7.23, p < .001. As can be seen in Table 4, the emotional warmth scale positively predicted assertiveness (CATS), suggesting that individuals with higher scores on this scale had higher assertiveness. The overprotection scale significantly and negatively predicted assertiveness (CATS) indicating that individuals with higher scores on this scale had lower assertiveness. The rejection scale did not contribute significantly to the multiple regression models for assertiveness with the EMBU and IY parenting practices (Table 4).

The next regression analysis which was conducted to examine the degree to which EMBU parenting practices and parenting practices of the IY mentioned in the previous regression, predict assertiveness measured with the CAI resulted in $R^2 = .06$, F (9,668) = 5.97, p < .001. Emotional warmth and emotional rewards subscales positively predicted assertiveness (CAI), suggesting that individuals with higher scores on these scales had higher assertiveness. The rest of the subscales did not contribute to the model (Table 4).

Further a regression analysis was conducted to examine the degree to which the same parenting practices used before could predict aggressiveness, resulting in a significant model with adjusted $R^2 = .06$, F(9, 670) = 6.04, p < .001. The Emotional warmth scale significantly and negatively predicted aggressiveness, indicating children

with higher parent scores on the emotional warmth scale had lower aggressiveness. The overprotection scale significantly and positively predicted aggressiveness, indicating that individuals with higher scores on this scale had higher aggressive communication.

Finally a regression analysis was conducted for the construct of submissiveness as dependent variable, with the above predictors. The regression model for submissiveness did not result in a statistically significant model although the predictors of emotional warmth (B=.09, SE=.04, β =.11, t=2.68, p<.05) and material rewards (B=.09, SE=.04, β =.10, t=2.43, p<.05) positively predicted submissiveness (Table 4).

Extreme groups' comparisons with ANOVA

A one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed in order to identify the differences between the extreme groups of high assertive, high aggressive and high submissive regarding the parenting they receive. There was a statistically significant difference between groups as determined by one-way ANOVA for emotional warmth (F (3,439) = 17.25, p = .000), for overprotection (F (3,439) = 5.06, p = .002) and for rejection (F (3,438) = 2.75, p = .042).

The above results indicated for emotional warmth that highly assertive children obtained higher scores (M= 19.42) than highly submissive (M= 18.25) and highly aggressive children (M= 16.28). Regarding overprotection it was indicated that highly aggressive children (M= 15.81) and highly submissive (M= 15.06) obtained higher scores than highly assertive children (M=13.80). Significant differences were also found between the extreme groups for rejection where highly aggressiveness children scored higher (M= 9.95) than highly submissive (M= 9.62) and highly assertive children (M= 8.92).

Prediction of the child's communication skills and parenting practices from the family socioeconomic status

Correlation and multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness measured by the CATS questionnaire and the socioeconomic status of the parents expressed by the educational level together with the financial situation as predictors (Table 5 and Table 6).

As can be seen in Table 5, the parents' educational level was positively and significantly correlated with the assertiveness criterion but not with assertiveness measured with the CAI, indicating that those with higher scores on these variables tend to have higher assertiveness measured with the CATS. The educational level of the parents was negatively and significantly correlated with the aggressiveness criterion, indicating that those with higher scores on this variable tend to have lower aggressiveness. The educational level of the parents had no significant correlation with submissiveness. The

financial situation of the family had a significant and positive correlation with assertiveness, indicating that those with higher scores on this variable tend to have higher assertiveness. The financial situation of the family had no significant correlation with aggressiveness or submissiveness.

Regression analyses followed with a separate analysis for assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness as criterion measures and the educational level and financial situation of the parents as predictors. When assertiveness measured with CATS was the predictor, the regression resulted in a significant model, adjusted $R^2 = .02$, F (2, 687) = 8.00, p < .001. As can be seen in Table 6, the parents' educational level positively predicted assertiveness. The financial situation of the parents did not contribute significantly to this model. On the contrary the parents' educational level negatively predicted aggressiveness on the regression model $R^2 = .01$, F (2, 687) = 4.92, p < .05, whereas the financial situation of the parents did not contribute significantly to this model (Table 6). Finally a non-significant model was yielded for the prediction of assertiveness measured with CAI by the family SES.

Moreover the relation between parenting practices and the socioeconomic status of the family was examined by conducting correlation and multiple regression analyses. Table 7 and Table 8 summarize the descriptive statistics and analysis results.

As can be seen in Table 7, the parents' educational level is positively and significantly correlated with the following parenting practices: venting of parents, emotional rewards and emotional warmth. Parent's educational level was significantly and negatively related with withdrawal of parents. The financial situation of the family had a significant and negative correlation with the parenting practice of withdrawal.

Based on the above findings in which the SES was associated and predictive of assertiveness and aggressiveness it was assumed that the SES would also be associated with the parenting practices and so we conducted some regression analyses in order to examine the predictive role of the SES on parenting. Regression analyses followed with a separate analysis for all nine measured parenting practices as criterion measures and the educational level and financial situation of the parents together as predictors. Three of the nine regression models were statistically significant in which the SES (educational level and financial situation of the family) predicted emotional warmth of parents ($R^2 = .03$, F (2, 680) = 13.22, p < .001), emotional rewards ($R^2 = .04$, F (2, 689) = 14.08, p < .001) and venting of parents ($R^2 = .01$, F (2, 691) = 3.11, p < .05). All three models revealed that the educational level of the parents had a significant positive loading on emotional warmth, emotional rewards and venting of parents meaning that higher educational level of parents

would account for higher use of these three parenting practices. The financial status of the family did not contribute significantly to the regression models showing that it cannot predict parenting practices. The regression analyses conducted to examine the rest of the parenting practices with the parents SES did not yield statistically significant models.

Discussion

The purpose of the study was to further examine the nomological network of assertiveness in relation to parenting practices given the crucial role of parenting in the socialization of the child (Bornstein and Bradley 2003; Collins et al. 2000; Ponderotto & Pedersen, 1993; Stocker & Youngblade, 1999). Although parenting practices is a widely studied area its relation with assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness is unexplored. Revealing information about this relation is important for the better understanding of the role of parents in the development of assertiveness thus providing directions for future interventions and psychoeducational training. A second aim was to examine the psychometric propertied of the EMBU and IY questionnaire used for the first time in the Greek Cypriot population.

For the most part the study's hypotheses were confirmed with assertiveness and aggressiveness having opposite relations to parenting practices supporting the idea that these constructs are on opposite poles and also mutually exclusive. Specifically, hypothesis one claiming that "Emotional warmth and appropriate use of rewards (emotional and material rewards) will be significantly and positively related to assertiveness and negatively related to aggressiveness" was supported. Results of this study supported that assertiveness was positively related and significantly predicted by emotional warmth and emotional rewards and negatively related and significantly predicted by overprotection and related to rejection while aggressiveness on the contrary was negatively associated and significantly predicted by emotional warmth and positively related and significantly predicted by overprotection and positively related to rejection. These findings were in line with previous studies supporting that the positive dimensions of parenting like emotional warmth and acceptance are able to promote positive behaviors in children (Gardner, 1989) and are predictive of prosocial behaviors (Carlo, Mestre, Samper, Tur & Armenta, 2011). Supporting research evidence claims that emotional warmth and responsiveness in parents was closely linked with the attainment of social skills and the development of less internalizing and externalizing problems (Dumas, LaFreniere, & Serketich, 1995). Rejection was not an important predictor for assertiveness or aggressiveness although it had a statistically significant relation with both constructs. This finding can be explained

by the fact that rejection and overprotection were highly intercorellated and thus might be measuring the same construct and in the regression analysis the overprotection factor had a stronger effect that covered for the effect of rejection.

Aggressiveness as a maladaptive and negative behavior was negatively related to emotional warmth as expected since positive parenting practices like emotional warmth are expected to promote positive behaviors in children. It was assumed that lack of emotional warmth that might also include lack of support and acceptance might lead to aggressiveness through the increased anxiety produced and an effort to "survive". Based on the findings of previous research emotional warmth seems to play a role in preventing externalizing behaviors (Dumas, LaFreniere, & Serketich, 1995) thus we assume that the absence of emotional warmth may promote the externalizing behavior of aggressiveness. Aggressiveness was also found to be positively related to overprotection and rejection in this study, a finding that is in line with previous results indicating that overprotection increases the risk for developing both internalizing and externalizing psychopathologies (depression, anxiety, phobic disorders) (Arrindell, Emmelkamp, Monsma, & Brilman, 1983; Burbach, Kashani, & Rosenberg, 1989; Gerlsma, Snijders, Van Duijn, & Emmelkamp, 1997). Other research findings support that rejecting parenting practices can promote externalizing behaviors (MacKinnon-Lewis, Starnes, Volling, & Johnson, 1997) contrary to warmth, responsiveness, and accepting parenting that was found to inhibit the development of aggressiveness and hostility in children (Maccoby, 1983). Negative parenting practices in general have been associated with poor social behavior and aggressive behavior (Unnnever, 2005; Schwartz, 1997, 1998). The reason for finding that other parenting practices, also examined in this study, did not reveal a relation with assertiveness and aggressiveness may be attributed to the low reliability of the subscales, like for example the rejection subscale.

Submissiveness was found to be associated with emotional warmth, a common positive parenting practice also related with assertiveness. This may initially appear contrary to hypotheses but may be explainable by the fact that assertiveness and submissiveness measured with CATS have a low positive correlation. To further clarify this somewhat puzzling finding using this interpretation partial correlation was conducted between submissiveness and emotional warmth while controlling for assertiveness; when controlling for assertiveness the relation between submissiveness and emotional warmth was no longer significant which supports this assertion. Submissiveness was also found to be positively related to material rewards leading to the assumption that emotional warmth and rewards might be understood as too much support that resulted in the counter-effective

outcome of discouraging the child's independence thus making them more submissive. The results for the three hypotheses above have been also verified by the extreme groups' comparisons in the ANOVA analysis results.

The fourth hypothesis predicted that the socioeconomic status of the family would be significantly and positively related to positive parenting practices. This was also partially supported from the results of this study. Educational level of the parents was positively associated with the use of the venting practice from parents, emotional warmth and emotional rewards. Emotional warmth and emotional rewards can be considered positive parenting practices and were hypothesized to be positively related to higher SES and supported by findings. Venting although it is not clearly a positive parenting practice, here it is obviously considered as positive as supported by the results suggesting that parents think that this parenting practice is something positive as a responsive and involvement type of behavior opposite to punishment or withdrawal. Parent's educational level was significantly and negatively related with the parenting practice of withdrawal as hypothesized since withdrawal can be considered a negative parenting practice and was expected to be negatively related to parent's educational level and SES generally. These findings are in line with previous research supporting that the relation between socioeconomic status affects parenting practices (Trickett, et al., 1991) and more specifically that low SES may predict parenting practices like child neglect and abuse (Ondersma, 2002). Another research supported that higher educational level of parents was associated with lower authoritarian and permissive parenting and lower educational level with higher authoritative parenting (Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, & Roberts, 1987). Generally research findings support that parents' education is positively correlated with permissive, kind, nonjudgmental parenting and negatively correlated with neglectful parenting (Glasgow, Dornbusch, Troyer, & Steinberg, 1997).

Moreover the family's financial status was not found able to predict parental practices suggesting that education is more directly related to how parents treat their children than their financial situation, contrary to the previous suggestion that it was stress associated with low SES that leads to poor parenting practices. This is a potentially important finding in the current context, because, although little may be able to be done about the stress associated with low SES, more can potentially be done to educate parents about helpful parenting behaviors through preventive interventions.

Finally this study examined the relation of the family SES with assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness for the first time with results supporting that

assertiveness is positively related to the educational level of the parents and aggressiveness negatively related with the educational level of the parents. Submissiveness had no statistically significant relation with the parent's educational level. Financial status had no statistically significant relation with any of the three communicational constructs studied. These findings are partly in line with previous evidence that linked low SES with higher levels of emotional and behavioral difficulties, including anxiety and conduct disorders (Goodman, 1999; Spencer et al., 2002) antisocial and aggressive behavior in children and adolescent (Dodge, Pettit, & Bates, 1994; McCoy, Firck, Loney, & Ellis, 1999; Molnar et al., 2008; Patterson, Kupersmidt & Vaden, 1990). They are also supportive of previous evidence that educational level of parents is positively related to social competence and negatively related to emotional and behavioral problems of the child (Duncan, Brooks-Gunn, & Klebanov, 1994). Other research findings also supported that aggressiveness and antisocial behavior was associated with low SES (Dodge, Pettit, & Bates, 1994; McCoy, Firck, Loney, & Ellis, 1999; Patterson, Kupersmidt & Vaden, 1990). Based on the findings of this study it can be supported that the educational level of the parents is an important factor for the development of assertive behavior and this may be attributed to the fact that parents with a higher educational level have more knowledge and put more effort in the social skills development of their children or even they themselves are more assertive because of their higher educational level and act as role models to their children.

Regarding the second aim on the study the present study the psychometric properties of the EMBU and the IY measures were examined. Based on the analyses conducted both instruments, EMBU and IY, showed good psychometric properties. Regarding the EMBU's internal consistency, after EFA and removing the mis-fitting items, alphas were moderate to high similar to previous studies (Gerlsma, Arrindell, Van der Veen & Emmelkamp, 1991; Penelo, Viladrich & Domènech, 2012). The construct validity of the EMBU was also supported based on the fact that the positive parenting practice of emotional warmth was correlated with other positive parenting practices (emotional rewards) and positive behaviors (assertiveness) and negatively related to negative parenting practices (punishment and withdrawal of parents). The negative parenting subscales of EMBU namely rejection and overprotection were correlated between them and with the negative parenting practice of punishment and with the negative behavior of aggressiveness. Regarding the psychometric properties of the IY the internal consistency for each of the derived subscales, after removal of the mis-fitting items alphas were low to moderate. Nonetheless the construct validity of the IY measure was supported from the

negative relation of the punishment and withdrawal subscales of the IY and with the emotional warmth subscale of the EMBU measure and the positive relation with the negative parenting practices of rejection and overprotection of the EMBU measure as expected.

The results of this study generally provide evidence that parenting practices are mostly and strongly associated with assertiveness and aggressiveness in children and more specifically that assertiveness is associated and predicted by positive parenting practices while aggressiveness is associated and predicted by negative parenting practices. Regarding the SES of the family it was supported by the results of the study that educational factors appear to carry the greatest share of the variance in the SES with high parents' educational level may predict assertiveness while low parents' educational level may predict aggressiveness. In light of these findings we would suggest that since parents play such an important role in their children's assertiveness and aggressiveness, parenting training programs, workshops and seminars can utilize these findings focusing on the benefits of positive parental practices that have the potential to promote assertiveness and protect against the development of aggressive behavior. A strong point of this study is that information data regarding the parenting practices were collected from children and parents combined and with a very big sample size. The findings of this study should be taken under the light of the limitation that data were based on self and parent report measures that pose the possibility that the answers given are socially biased. Moreover although we observed all the above mentioned associations the effects cannot be seen as causative due to the fact that the data of this research are cross sectional. Another limitation was that use of the IY measure which had a lower than desired internal reliability and maybe that is why fewer significant results were found for its subscales. These findings are preliminary and future research is needed to try to replicate these results in other cultures and ages and also add to the knowledge by examining other predictors of assertiveness. Moreover further longitudinal research maybe shed light concerning the causality of these relations. Finally these results can be utilized in the psychoeducation training for parents regarding the social skills and assertiveness of the children.

The findings of the present study have positive implications for psychologist, parents and school personnel. It was found in the current study that the negative parenting practices are associated with aggressiveness and positive parenting practices with assertiveness. We suggest that this is important information to be embedded in psychoeducation of parents, specifically to train them in using more acceptance, positive

refocusing, planning, positive reappraisal and putting into perspective emotion regulation strategies. Furthermore based on the above findings school psychologists should also take into account the parenting a child is growing up with when examining issues of aggressiveness or lack of assertiveness or when teaching social skills and work together with the parents for better and more sustainable effects. Moreover school personnel may help in an indirect way since they cannot directly change the parenting practices but they can teach coping strategies to the children in order to promote socioemotional development to counteract potential negative parenting practices at home.

Table 1 Cronbach's alpha of the subscales of Parenting Practices from the Incredible Years tool (IY) and the EMBU

Construct	Cronbach's alpha
Venting of parents (IY)	.71
Punishment (IY)	.73
Emotional rewards (IY)	.72
Material rewards (IY)	.71
Withdrawal of parent (IY)	.44
Corporal punishment (IY)	.67
Emotional Warmth (EMBU)	.78
Rejection (EMBU)	.68
Overprotection (EMBU)	.69

Table 2 *Interrelations between parenting practices*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Venting of parents	1								
2.Punishment	.27**	1							
3. Withdrawal of parents	02	.39**	1						
4.Corporal punishment	.20**	.28**	.15**	1					
5.Emotional rewards	.21**	.03	.00	03	1				
6.Material rewards	.21**	.12**	.06	.03	.26**	1			
7.Emotional warmth	00	16**	14**	04	.14**	03	1		
8.Overprotection	.05	.11**	.05	.02	05	.03	05	1	
9.Rejection	.07	.09*	.00	.04	02	.03	.03	.57**	1

^{*} p<.05, **p<.001

Table 3
Correlations between Assertiveness, Aggressiveness and Submissiveness and Parenting practices

Variable	Assertiveness	Assertiveness	Aggressiveness	Submissiveness
v arrabic				
	CATS	CAI	CATS	CATS
Rejection	08*	10**	.08**	.01
Emotional Warmth	.26**	.21**	- . 26**	.12**
Overprotection	15**	08*	.15**	05
Venting of Parent	01	04	.01	00
Punishment	01	.03	.05	.00
Emotional rewards	.10**	.10*	04	.01
Material Rewards	.06	00	03	.09*
Withdrawal	04	02	01	02
Corporal Punishment	.05	.01	.03	.02

^{*}p<.05, **p<.001

Table 4
Regressions between Assertiveness, Aggressiveness and Submissiveness and Parenting practices

Variable	A	Assertiveness			Assertiveness			Aggressiveness			Submissiveness		
		CATS			CAI		CATS			CATS			
	В	SEB	В	В	SEB	В	В	SEB	β	В	SEB	β	
Rejection	.00	.06	.00.	04	.02	07	02	.05	01	.04	.05	04	
Emotional warmth	.20	.03	.22***	.07	.01	.1 7**	22	.03	23**	.10	.03	.11**	
Overprotection	13	.04	14**	03	.02	08	.11	.04	.11*	06	.04	06	
Venting of parent	03	.02	05	02	.01	08	00	.02	00	01	.02	02	
Punishment	.00	.03	.03	.02	.01	.08	.02	.03	.03	.00	.03	.00	
Emotional rewards	.09	.06	.06	.07	.02	.10*	.02	.06	.02	06	.06	04	
Material rewards	.04	.04	.05	.00	00	02	03	.04	03	.09	.04	.10*	
Withdrawal	04	.04	04	02	.02	04	05	.05	04	03	.05	03	
Corporal punishment	.20	.13	.05	00	.06	00	.09	.13	.02	.05	13	.02	

^{*}p<.05, **p<.001

Table 5 Correlations between Assertiveness, Aggressiveness and Submissiveness with Socioeconomic status or the family

Boctocconom	ie status or the je	unuuy		
Parents'		Assertiveness		Submissiveness
SES	CATS	CAI	CATS	CATS
Educational	.15**	.06	11**	.05
level	ታ			
Financial	.08*	.02	01	.00
situation				

^{*} p<.05, **p<.001

Table 6
Regression analysis Assertiveness, Aggressiveness and assertiveness with the Socioeconomic status or the family

Socioeconomic	siain	is or the	jamuy										
Parents' SES	Assertiveness			Ass	Assertiveness			Aggressiveness			Submissiveness		
	CATS				CAI			CATS			CATS		
	В	SE B	β	В	SE B	β	В	SE B	В	В	SE B	β	
Educational level	.55	.16	.14**	.13	.08	.06	55	.17	13*	.25	.17	.06	
Financial situation	.07	.13	.03	00	.07	.00	.12	.14	.03	07	.14	02	

^{*}p<.05, **p<.001

Table 7
Correlations between Parenting practices with Socioeconomic status or the family

Educational level of parents	Financial situation of parents
-	-
.08*	01
03	06
10*	10**
00	01
.19**	.01
01	06
02	05
.19**	.11**
.00	.00
	.08*0310*00 .19**0102 .19**

^{*}p<.05, **p<.001

Table 8
Regression analysis Parenting practices and with the socioeconomic status or the family

Parents'	V	Venting of Punishmen		ent	Withdrawal of			Corporal			Emotional				
SES]	parents				parents			pu	punishment			rewards		
	В	SEB	β	В	SEB	β	В	SEB	β	В	SEB	β	В	SEB	β
Educational level	.72	.29	.10*	07	.26	01*	27	.15	07	.00.	.05	.00	.60	.11	.21**
Financial situation	31	.24	05	28	.21	05	23	.13	07	02	.04	01	15	.09	07

^{*}p<.05, **p<.001

Table 8 continued Regression analysis Parenting practices and with the socioeconomic status or the family

Variable	Mat	terial rev	vards	Ove	rprotect	ion	n Emotional warmth			Rejection			
	В	SE B	β	В	SE B	β	В	SE B	В	В	SE B	β	
Education	.07	.18	.01	04	.18	01	.80	.19	.17**	.02	.13	.01	
level													
Financial	26	.15	07	16	.15	04	.17	.15	.04	.03	.11	.01	
situation													

^{*}p<.05, **p<.001

Study 4

Parenting practices and children's assertiveness: mediation through social anxiety and psychopathy

Introduction

The influence of parenting practices on children's social skills is well established, however little is known about which mechanisms link parenting practices with children's social skills and especially assertiveness. The relation of parenting practices and assertiveness has been established in Study 3 of the present research and more specifically it was shown that negative parenting practices predict lack of assertiveness, opposite to positive parenting practices which predict the presence of assertiveness.

The parent child relation was chosen to be examined driven by Kochanska's (1995, 1997) previous work supporting the importance of the simultaneous study of parental practices and child psychological characteristic and their relation with the child's behavior, since parents play an enormous role in the socialization process of children. Furthermore parenting practices have been examined in relation with psychopathy since previous research revealed that familial and societal variables were highly correlated with psychopathy (Marshall & Cooke, 1999). A developmental psychopathology approach suggests that environmental factors influence the developmental course of psychopathy (Todd, et al. 1995) and by altering the environment may change this course (McDonald, et. al., 2011). However the opposite effect may also be evident in the sense that children's social behavior may elicit certain parenting practices but in the present study we are only examining the direction of influence from parents to children. If so then intervening on the child's environment and the parenting practices the developmental course of psychopathy may change and in turn its indirect relation with assertiveness or by treating psychopathy traits may change the relation between parenting and social behavior of the child. Moreover such research results can inform and better target intervention programs for both children and parents in order to identify children that do not benefit at all or as much from traditional existing interventions or treatment, as this has been defined as of high importance in child psychotherapy research (Owens et al., 2003). Regarding the construct of social anxiety previous research supported its relation with parenting practices. Certain parenting practices described by overprotection, emotional over involvement, hostility, control, criticism and rejection have been associated with the development and maintenance of social anxiety in children (Anhalt & Morris, 2008; Aslam, 2014; Greco & Morris, 2002; Gulley, Merikangas, Lieb, Wittchen & Avenevoli, 2003; Oppenheimer, & Hankin, 2013; Rork & Morris, 2009). Based on the above findings it can be assumed social anxiety treatments and interventions should take into account the negative parenting practices used by the children's, as it has also been supported by Garcia's-Lopez (2014) previous research.

Nevertheless we cannot assume, based on these results, that the direct relation between assertiveness and parenting practices is not influenced and depended on the child's psychological characteristics. The relation of the psychological characteristics of children (psychopathy, callous unemotional and social anxiety) with assertiveness was established in Study 1. These findings mainly, stress the need for searching for processes and mechanisms that link parenting practices to assertiveness. The question that arises is what happens to the relation of parenting practices and assertiveness when the abovementioned characteristics of the child are also evident? Do negative parenting practices still predict assertiveness? In order to get a more complete picture of how assertive behavior of children is influenced by parenting practices and psychological characteristic of the child we need to simultaneously examine the effect that the child's characteristics and the parenting practices have on assertiveness.

The goal in Study 4 is to go further than the basic correlations and predictions found in the previous studies (Study 1, 3) in order to identify those personal characteristic of children that may explain some of the variance that is not explained by the direct relation between parenting practices and assertiveness. The aim of the present study was to investigate in more depth the associations established in Study1 and Study 3 between parenting practices and assertiveness and child individual characteristics and assertiveness, as part of the general aim of this dissertation to further understand assertiveness considering the fact that it is a key dimension of healthy functioning during childhood and adolescence (Kim, 2003).

Non-assertive behaviors humper social development and are highly correlated with fear, social anxiety and aggression while on the contrary assertive behaviors promote healthy social development. As the previous studies of the present research examined the nomological network of assertiveness, by studying the correlations and predictors of assertiveness this last study aimed at examining the mediation role of some of the children's characteristics - that were previously examined and found to be statistically

correlated with assertiveness in Studies 1, 2, 3 - in order to identify the combination of factors that best predict assertiveness.

More specifically the present study examined the mediation role of children's social anxiety, psychopathy measured with TriPm and callous unemotional traits on the relation of parenting practices and assertiveness. Though numerous studies have examined the role of parenting (Beyers & Goossens, 2008; Denham, Mitchell-Copeland, Strandberg, Auerbach & Blair, 1997; Rothbaum, & Weisz, 1994) and the role of social anxiety and psychopathy on children's social competence, no other research to our knowledge has previously examined the mediating role of the psychological characteristics of social anxiety and psychopathy on the relation of parenting practices and assertiveness. Emphasis was put on parenting practices not only based on the fact that parenting practices predict assertive behavior but also based on previous research that has recognized the relation between ineffective parenting practices and the development of externalizing (Kochanska, 1997a) and internalizing behavior in children (Greco & Morris 2002; Lieb et al. 2000; Wood et al. 2003).

In order to examine the mediating role of social anxiety and psychopathy on the relation of parenting practices and assertiveness hypothetical mediation models were built based on the assumption that the relation between positive and negative parenting practices, which are considered external influential factors, on the behavioral trait of assertiveness might be mediated by the children's psychological characteristics like social anxiety and psychopathy. All constructs used in the hypothesized models were found to be correlated between them based on the correlation results of Study 1, 3 and 4. More specifically, based on the correlation and regression results of Study 1, the constructs used in the hypothesized models as mediators were social anxiety, psychopathy measured with TriPm and callous unemotional traits as these constructs were found to have a statistically significant relation with assertiveness and parenting practices. The parenting practices included in the hypothesized models were overprotection as a negative parenting practice and emotional warmth as a positive parenting practice as they also were found to have a statistically significant relation with assertiveness in Study 3 (Figure 1). A prediction that followed from our hypothesized models is that parental practices would interact with children's psychological characteristics to predict assertive behavior in children. Therefore, parenting practices were predicted to have a stronger relation with assertiveness when psychopathy characteristics and social anxiety are evident in children than directly, irrespective of children's characteristics.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used in order to test the plausibility of this study's hypothesis. SEM analysis assesses and corrects the measurement error something that is not done in other methods like regressions, which can lead to inaccuracies if the errors ignored are large. Finally, the SEM analysis allowed us to model multivariate relations and estimate interval indirect effects (Bentler, 1980).

Relations between parenting practices and children's social anxiety, psychopathy traits and assertiveness

Parenting practices have been associated with the development of children's social competence and social functioning and with externalizing and internalizing behaviors. Positive parenting practices were found to promote children's social competence (Putallaz, 1987) contrary to negative parenting practices that were associated with lower development of social skills in adolescents (Melby, Conger, Conger & Lorenz, 1993). Parenting practices are undoubtedly an important factor to the development and/or maintenance of child social anxiety (Bruch et al. 1989; Greco and Morris 2002; Lieb et al. 2000; Wood et al. 2003). Research supports a relationship between social anxiety and parenting styles characterized by overprotection and low warmth (Bruch et al., 1989; Lieb et al., 2000; Masia & Morris, 1998; Rapee, 1997; Wood, McLeod, Sigman, Hwang, & Chu, 2003). The parenting dimension of low acceptance/warmth has also been associated with the development of child anxiety suggesting that low levels of parental warmth and responsiveness may produce stress to the child because the child acquires the knowledge that his/her actions may not influence their environment (Dumas, LaFreniere, & Serketich, 1995; Hudson & Rapee, 2001; Moore, Whaley, & Sigman, 2004). Moreover parental overprotection seems to play an important role in the development of childhood anxiety since parental control promotes a dependency of the child on the parent and a sense of lack of control leading to the development of trait anxiety (Chambers, Power, & Durham, 2004; Chorpita & Barlow, 1998; Greco & Morris, 2002; Krohne & Hock, 1991; Mattanah, 2001). Nevertheless the findings regarding the relation of parenting practices and internalizing behaviors like anxiety and social anxiety are mixed since other research results supported that parenting practices are not associated with internalizing behaviors of the child (Berg-Nielsen, Vikan & Dahl, 2002).

Parental practices have also been found to predict children's externalizing behaviors. Previous research findings support that low levels of emotional warmth and high levels of rejection and overprotection were associated with psychopathological

symptoms. Parents' overprotection was repeatedly found to be related to a higher risk for the development of children's externalizing psychopathologies (Arrindell, Emmelkamp, Monsma, & Brilman, 1983; Gerlsma, Snijders, Van Duijn, & Emmelkamp, 1997). More specifically overprotective parenting was associated with less behavioral autonomy and more externalizing behaviors (Holmbeck, Johnson, Wills, McKernon, Rose, Erklin, & Kemper, 2002). Furthermore parenting practices and psychopathy research have associated CU traits with specific parenting practices (Fanti & Centifanti, 2014). Pardini et al. (2007) supported that parental warmth is a protective factor against the development of CU traits while also it can reduce existing CU traits.

All the above mentioned constructs have been previously examined in Study 1 and Study 3 of the present research. The constructs of social anxiety, psychopathy measured with TriPM, callous unemotional traits and the parenting practices of emotional warmth and overprotection all had a statistically significant relation with and significantly predicted assertiveness as previously found in Study 1 and Study 3 of the present research.

Social anxiety and psychopathy as mediators of the relation between parenting practices and children's assertiveness

Given the fact that parenting practices of emotional warmth and overprotection have been associated with both psychological characteristics (social anxiety and psychopathy) and social behavioral competence of the children, it was hypothesized that the effects of parental practices on children's social skills are at least partly mediated by children's psychological characteristics. Children with parents who use more positive parenting practices like emotional warmth and themselves have good mental health would be expected to be more socially skilled and act assertively. Contrary to this, children with parents who use more negative parenting practices like overprotection and themselves tend to have social anxiety or psychopathy traits would be expected to be less socially skilled and act unassertively.

Previous similar research has examined a number of child characteristics that may mediate the parenting practices used in association with children's social behavior. For example, there is evidence that the effects of parenting practices (emotional warmth) on children's social competence were partially mediated by children's self-regulatory capacities (Eisenberg, Spinrad and Cumberland, 1998). Moreover the study of Eisenberg et. al. (2001) also supported a mediation model in which the relation of maternal expressed emotion with children's social competence was mediated through children's regulation.

Other researchers examined the relation of parenting practices and antisocial behavior and how this relation differs according to the psychological characteristics of the children, which were found to mediate this association (Agnew, 1992; Berkowitz, 1990).

In the present study we only focused on externalizing and internalizing characteristics of the child as potential mediators, based on the findings of Study 1 and Study 3, which found these to be related to assertiveness. Other characteristics of the child like emotion regulation are not examined as mediators because our own findings did not show them to specifically predict assertiveness. However as previous research supports that emotion dys-regulation is associated with both internalizing and externalizing pathologies in children (Eisenberg, et. al., 2001; Hill, Degnan, Calkins & Keane, 2006; Zeman, Shipman & Suveg, 2002), the model we tested is similar to those described by Eisenberg et. al. above where instead of emotion regulation being the mediator we examined whether internalizing and externalizing symptoms could mediate this association. On the basis of the above mentioned findings of the present dissertation and past research, we expected that in the examined mediation model, social anxiety and psychopathy traits would be negatively related with assertiveness and play a mediating role in the relation between parental practices (emotional warmth and overprotection) and assertiveness.

Overview of the Model

Figure 1 outlines the conceptual model for studying assertiveness in children depicting the relationship between predictors (left) and outcome (right). Parenting practices are viewed as predictors of the outcome of childhood assertiveness. Predictors have a direct relation with the outcomes but the model also includes mediating processes that account for the relationship between predictors and the outcome variable through processes that may explain the direct relationship.

Current study

Based on the above it was hypothesized that the relationship between parenting practices and children's assertiveness would be significantly mediated by children's social anxiety, psychopathy measured with TriPM and callous unemotional traits. More specifically, the following hypotheses were tested:

1. The indirect relationship between positive parenting practices (emotional warmth) and assertiveness through the mediating role of psychopathy measured with TriPM,

callous unemotional traits and social anxiety will be significantly stronger than the direct relationship between positive parenting practices (emotional warmth) and assertiveness.

2. The indirect relationship between negative parenting practices (overprotection) and assertiveness through the mediating role of psychopathy measured with TriPM, callous unemotional traits and social anxiety will be significantly stronger than the direct relationship between negative parenting practices (overprotection) and assertiveness.

Method

Participants

The participants of this study were the children and parents as described in the methodology chapter that proceeded.

Measures

For Study 4 we used data collected selected from the measures used in the previous Study 1 and Study 3.

Data Analysis Procedures

Data were initially examined for non-normality. Pearson correlations where also executed in order to further examine the nomological network of assertiveness. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) techniques were utilized to investigate the hypothesized models. First, simple mediation model analyses were employed to evaluate each specific direct and indirect relationship in the hypothesized model. The overall fit of each model was examined based on the following recommended goodness-of-fit indices and corresponding guidelines regarding fit adequacy: chi-square (χ^2); goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and comparative fit index (CFI) >. 90 (acceptable fit) and > .95 (good fit); Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual (SRMR) < .08 (good fit); and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) < .08 (adequate fit) and < .06 (good fit; Byrne, 2001; Kline, 2005). Second, the models were examined using a step-wise part model analyses. Mediators were chosen via hypothesized and theoretically related path models based on finding from Study 1 and Study 3. In these mediation analyses the variance explained of the mediating variables (M), is considered to influence the relation between independent (X) variables, which represent the predictors, and dependent (Y) ones, which represent the outcomes. For the main outcome variable, full and partial mediation processes were examined. This reflects the predictors' effects on the outcome through a third variable (mediator). Mediation effects are therefore referred to as indirect effects. To test these effects a significant test for mediation through 2000 bootstrapped samples was employed. The bias corrected and accelerated 95% confidence intervals were then examined. The models determine whether indirect effects vary at the upper and lower levels; BC 95% CI (indirect effects are reported in the upper and lower levels; BC 95% CI).

Mediating effects of the targeted variables including social anxiety (e.g. measured with social phobia and anxiety inventory-brief form; SPAI-B), callous unemotional traits (measures with inventory of callous- unemotional traits; ICU) and psychopathy (measured with Triarchic Psychopathy Measure; TriPM), were examined in the relation between parenting practices (e.g., overprotection and emotional warmth; predictors) and assertiveness (assertiveness, measured with CATS and CAI). Assertiveness measured with CATS was used in the mediation models for callous unemotional traits and psychopathy traits measured with TriPM and assertiveness measured with CAI was used in the mediation model with social anxiety based on the correlation and regression analyses of Study 1 and so only the measures that has a statistically significant correlation or predicted assertiveness were used.

All variables in the structural models were treated as observed measures and all statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS 22.0 (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL) and IBM SPSS AMOS 20 (Arbuckle, 2011).

Results

Correlation Analysis

There was no violation of normality, thus no manipulation of the data was executed. Bivariate correlations between assertiveness, social anxiety, psychopathy and parenting practices were computed to assess the relation between the constructs. Results from the correlation analysis showed that there were weak but statistically significant negative correlations between emotional warmth and callous unemotional traits (r=-.21) and a higher negative correlation between emotional warmth and psychopathy measured with TriPM (r=-.43). Overprotection was positively related to social anxiety (r=.21), callous unemotional (r=.17) and psychopathy measured with TriPM (r=.29) (Table 1).

Mediation Effects

In order to examine the contribution of each hypothesized mediator in the relation between parenting practices and children's assertiveness, a series of path models were performed. In each model, parenting practices, including overprotection and emotional warmth, predict child characteristics, which in turn predict children's social behaviors (assertiveness).

Initially, a model without mediation was tested with parenting practices predicting assertiveness directly (Figure 1). Residuals of overprotection, emotional warmth and assertiveness were allowed to correlate each other. Error covariance between parenting practices were expected as these variables originate from the same measure and thus items' content overlap (Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran (EMBU), "My memories of upbringing" Adolescent version). Results demonstrate an overall good model fit (Table 2, Model A).

Then, a series of path models examined whether hypothetical mediators affect the relation of parental practices and children's assertiveness. First, the mediating effects of psychopathy traits on the relation between overprotection and emotional warmth on assertiveness, measured with CATS, were estimated. Results showed that the effects of parenting overprotection are fully mediated by higher levels of psychopathy. That is, higher psychopathy mediates the negative effects of overprotection upon children's assertiveness. In contrast, the effects of parenting emotional warmth are partially mediated by psychopathy meaning that the positive effects of emotional warmth are weaker when the relation is mediated by psychopathic traits in children (Figure 2).

The mediating effects of callous unemotional traits between the relation of overprotection and emotional warmth on assertiveness measured with the CATS showed a general very good model fit (Table 2, Model II). The effects of parenting practices on children' assertiveness is partially mediated by children's callous unemotional traits, because the direct effect remains statistically significant (Table 3, Model II). In this model, though, partial mediation is inferred since the effects of parenting practices on the assertiveness are significant in each of the path models. Thus, parenting practices significantly affect callous unemotional traits which in turn negatively predict children's assertiveness (Figure 3).

Finally a third model examined the mediating effects of social anxiety in the relation of overprotection and emotional warmth with assertiveness (measured with CAI). The overall fit of this model was good (Table 2, Model III), but there were neither significant direct effects of overprotection on assertiveness, nor of social anxiety on assertiveness. Thus, no mediation effects can be interpreted. There was only a direct relation between emotional warmth and assertiveness, but there was no indirect effect through social anxiety. Therefore, no overall mediation effects of social anxiety in the relation between parenting practices and assertiveness can be inferred (Figure 4).

Discussion

Although it has been found in Study 3 of the present research that parenting practices (emotional warmth and overprotection) do affect children's assertiveness but the process and mechanism behind it has not yet been fully explored or understood. We hypothesized that one mechanism that might explain the relation between parenting practices and assertiveness may be trough children's psychological characteristics like social anxiety, psychopathy measured with TriPm and callous unemotional traits, three constructs examined in Study 1 that were found to have a statistically significant correlation and also predict assertiveness. This is in light of previous findings (Eysenberg et al, 1998) that emotional dysregulation may mediate the association between parenting and child social behaviors, as dysregulation is associated with both internalizing and externalizing characteristics. Parents using positive parenting practices (emotional warmth) were expected to have a positive influence on their children's mental wellbeing and consequently children with better social skills (assertiveness). On the contrary parents using negative parenting practices (overprotection) were expected to have a negative influence on their children's mental wellbeing (social anxiety, psychopathy, callous unemotional) and consequently children with better social skills (assertiveness).

Correlational analysis revealed a negative correlation of parents' emotional warmth and externalizing behaviors (psychopathy measured with TriPM and callous unemotional traits). On the contrary overprotection, as a negative parenting practice, revealed a positive correlation with internalizing (social anxiety) and externalizing behaviors. Based on these results we can suggest that emotional warmth can be a protective factor for children with psychopathic characteristics while to the contrary overprotection can be a promoting factor for internalizing and externalizing behaviors, which in turn negatively affect social behavior. This is in line with previous research supporting that negative parenting practices like low levels of parental warmth contribute to the development of problem behaviors (Capaldi, 1991; East, 1991), while levels of parental warmth, support the development of conflict-resolution and communication skills in children (Kochanska, 1993; 1987; Pettit et al., 1988).

A hypothesized model was tested, using SEM, in which children's psychological characteristics mediated - in three different models one for each of the constructs of social anxiety, psychopathy TriPM and callous unemotional traits – the association between parenting practices and assertiveness. The plausibility of the hypothesized model was confirmed, mediation was supported in the prediction of assertiveness through the externalizing behaviors of psychopathy measured with TriPm and callous unemotional

traits. These findings are in line with previous research supporting the relation between negative parenting and externalizing behaviors (Aunola & Nurmi, 2005). Furthermore, our own findings show that in turn externalizing symptoms predict lower assertiveness. Therefore, externalizing symptoms seem to explain at least partially the association between parenting behaviors and children's way of interacting socially.

In contrast, evidence regarding the association between parenting and internalizing behaviors (anxiety and depression) is more mixed, with some studies not supporting this association (Berg-Nielsen, Vikan & Dahl, 2002; Stormshak, Bierman, McMahon, & Lengua, 2000) contrary to other research that supported the existence of a relation between negative parenting and anxiety (Greco & Morris 2002; Lieb et al. 2000; Rapee, 1997; Wood et al. 2003). In the present study mediation was not evident through social anxiety in the relation between parenting practices (emotional warmth and overprotection) and assertiveness. To the degree that the association between negative parenting and child internalizing behavior is not very strong, this may in part explain why the mediating association was also not found significant in the present study. However, it should be noted that in the current study, parenting was found to correlate with child social anxiety, as it is shown in Table 1 overprotection parenting is positively associated with social anxiety in children, which is what permitted us to test the mediational relationship. The fact that mediation was not supported probably indicates that the effect of parenting on the child's social behavior remains significant irrespective of whether or not the child demonstrates social anxiety symptoms. The reason why internalizing behavior does not mediate the strong association between parenting practices and children assertiveness unlike externalizing behaviors that seem to mediate this relation can be attributed to the different nature and the behavior elicited by children with internalizing and externalizing behavior. More specifically externalizing is by definition a behavior characterized by anger, aggression and difficult to control (Cole, Zahn-Waxler, Fox, Usher, & Welsh, 1996; Kovacs & Devlin, 1998) and as such it may be more difficult to contain by parents and it might even have some impact on parents behaviors. Moreover previous other research supported that parenting is influenced by the child's externalizing behaviors since parents with children with externalizing behaviors reported more negative impact on social life, more negative feelings about parenting, and higher child-related stress (Donenberg & Baker, 1993). On the other hand internalizing behaviors are characterized by withdrawal, fearfulness, inhibition, and anxiety (Eisenberg et al., 2001) and as so would be expected to be easier to control and influence and may even have less influence on parenting practices.

Regarding psychopathy, the findings in Study 4 suggested that the way to improve the effect of parenting on assertiveness is by changing psychopathy. Other ways of decreasing psychopathic behaviors and traits in children may also be expected to affect social behavior in spite of poor parenting practices. Generally based on the results of the SEM analysis we can assume that the relation of parenting practices and assertiveness is mediated by externalizing behaviors (psychopathy and callous unemotional traits) but not by internalizing behaviors (social anxiety).

Although the results from Study 4 provide a start to understanding the relations between parenting practices and assertiveness in children and adolescents, the correlational and cross sectional nature of the study confines the interpretation of the results in relation of the predictive role of parenting practices in the development of social skills in children. Another limitation of this study involves the reliance only on children's reports for the parenting practices. However, children's responses may be biased from the intimate relation towards their parents or give more socially accepted answers. Future research in this area may profit from use of multiple methods for assessing relations between parenting and children social skills and also by examining different parenting strategies and other contextual and individual factors as predictors of assertiveness.

The present findings have important implications for practice and particularly for the prevention of externalizing behaviors in children and adolescents. The findings of this study propose that children with high externalizing behaviors who perceive their received parenting as negative are candidates for participating in intervention programs for children and parents. Such intervention programs would for example emphasize the increase of emotional warmth and the reduction of rejection and overprotection similar to previous such intervention programs (Hawes and Dadds 2005) and also intervention programs targeting children's externalizing behaviors (Burke, Loeber, & Birmhamer, 2002; Loeber, Burke, Lahey, Winters & Zera, 2000). Moreover the reduction of social anxiety that will have a positive impact on assertiveness can also be targeted through parents as described in previous research supporting that when parenting practices like overprotection and emotional over involvement are reduced so is social anxiety in children (Garcia-Lopez, Diaz-Castela, Muela-Martinez, Espinosa-Fernandez, 2014).

Table 1

Correlation coefficients between Assertiveness, Social anxiety, Psychopathy and parenting practices

	Assertiveness A	ssertiveness	Social	Callous	Psychopathy	Emotional
	CATS	CAI	Anxiety	Unemotional	TriPM	warmth
Assertiveness CATS	1					
Assertiveness CAI	.24**	1				
Social anxiety	.02	15 **	1			
Callous unemotional	20**	11**	03	1		
Psychopathy TriPM	35**	06	 15**	.32**	1	
Emotional warmth	.26**	.21**	01	21**	43**	1
Overprotection	15**	08*	.21**	.17**	.29**	05

^{***=}p<.001;**= p<.01; *=p<.05

Table 2

Comparison of Alternative Models

Models	χ^2	Df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	GFI
			(LO - HI)			
Model A	2.868	1	.04	.01	.97	.99
			(.0011)			
Model I	2.868	1	.04	.01	.99	.99
Psychopathy measured with TriPM			(.00- 11)			
Model II	2.868	1	.04	.01	.98	.99
Callous Unemotional			(.0011)			
Model III	2.868	1	05	.01	.98	.99
Social Anxiety			(.00- 11)			

Notes. N=902; df = degrees of freedom; RMSEA=root-mean-square- error- of approximation;

SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; GFI= Goodness- of-Fit Index.* ps < .001

Table 3

Mean Direct and Indirect Effects (SE) of Parenting Practices on Assertiveness through Psychopathy (TriPM),

Social anxiety and Callous unemotional, and Confidence Intervals

	Paths	Direct effects [CI (95%)	Indirect effects [CI (95%)	Result
		Lower to Upper]	Lower to Upper]	
Model I	Overprotection \rightarrow	06 (ns)	07***	Full mediation
	Psychopathy TripM - → Assertiveness CATS	[12 to .01]	[09 to04]	effects
	Emotional warmth →	.13***	.08***	Partial
	Psychopathy TriPM -	[.07 to .19]	[.06 to .11]	mediation
	→Assertiveness CATS			effects
Model II	Overprotection \rightarrow	10**	02***	Partial
	callous unemotional -	[17 to .04]	[03 to08]	mediation
	→Assertiveness CATS			
	Emotional warmth → callous unemotional -→	.19***[.13 to .25]	.02*** [.01 to .04]	Partial mediation
	Assertiveness CATS			
Model	Overprotection >	04(ns) [10	03*** [05 to -	No
III	Social Anxiety-→	to .03]	.02]	mediation
	Assertiveness CAI			effects
	Emotional	.19*** [.13	01(ns) [01 to .01]	No
	warmth →	to .25]		mediation
	Social Anxiety -			effects
	→ Assertiveness			
	CAI			

^{***=}p<.001;**=p<.05; ns= "not significant"; msig= "marginally significant"

Figure 1: Hypothesized model

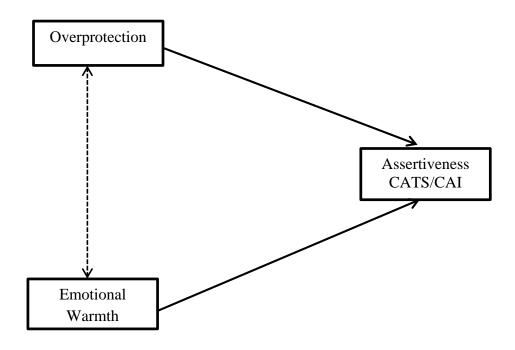


Figure 2: Psychopathy and assertiveness CATS mediation model.

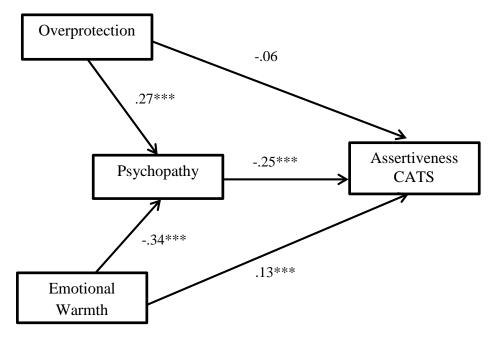


Figure 3: Callous Unemotional and assertiveness CATS mediation model.

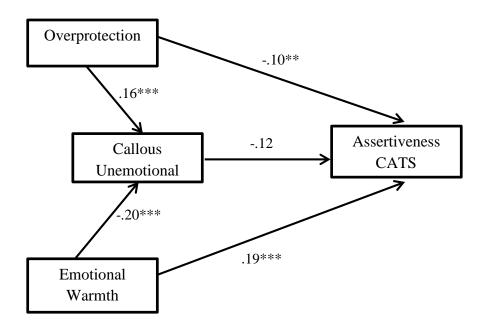
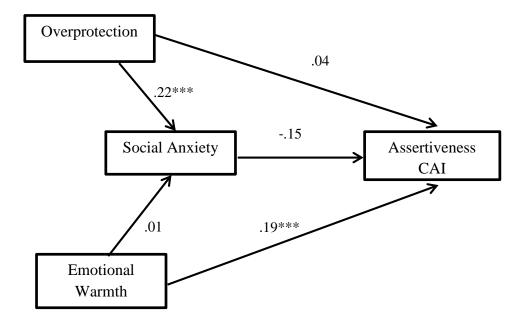


Figure 4: Social Anxiety and assertiveness CAI mediation model.



CHAPTER 4: GENERAL DISCUSSION

The present research aimed to investigate the social skill of assertiveness, since assertiveness is considered an important social skill that promotes social adjustment, mental wellbeing and development and protects the individual from behaviors associated with fear, worries, social anxiety and internal aggression (Gresham & Elliot, 1990; Noble & McGrath, 2005; Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984; Zakahi, 1985). Previous research on assertiveness left gaps regarding the nomological network of assertiveness, the psychometric properties of the measures of assertiveness and the predictors or associated variables - externalizing and internalizing behaviors and parenting practices - with assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness in children and adolescents.

This study expanded the nomological network of assertiveness by defining its association with externalizing behaviors, socialization characteristics, anxiety traits and cognitive emotion regulation strategies of children and adolescent. Results of the study replicated and extended previous findings regarding the constructs of assertiveness, submissiveness and aggressiveness.

One of the novel contributions of this study was to unbind the constructs of assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness. Evidence supporting the assertion that aggressiveness and submissiveness are polar opposites was also found as in previous research. On the contrary the findings of this research supported the existence of a small but positive correlation between assertiveness and submissiveness thus rejecting the findings of Deluty (1972) who found no correlation and supported that CATS cannot unbind assertiveness from submissiveness and might even be measuring something else in addition to assertiveness. Moreover the psychometric properties of the CATS and the CAI instruments, the two most well known and most often used instruments in the research of assertiveness, were examined and confirmed from the correlation of the subscales of the two measures supporting that both of them measure aspects of assertiveness. It was found that both the CAI subscales of positive and negative assertiveness measure assertiveness in a similar way as this is measured by the CATS while the three CATS subscales measure somewhat independent constructs of aggressiveness, submissiveness and assertiveness. With the present findings we can suggest that submissiveness measures something somewhat similar to assertiveness but something opposite to aggressiveness. These findings were important in order outline the borders of the broad concept of assertiveness in relation to the two poles of aggressiveness and submissiveness.

Another important contribution of this study was the results revealing the strong associations of assertiveness, submissiveness and aggressiveness with other external constructs not previously examined. Assertiveness was found to be related to mental health, positive socialization constructs and positive emotion regulation strategies, submissiveness was mostly related to anxiety constructs and poor socialization characteristics and aggressiveness was related to externalizing characteristics. Parenting practices and their association with assertive behavior was another novel contribution of the present research in which it was found that positive parenting practices are significantly and positively related to assertiveness and negatively related to aggressiveness. The findings of this study support that addressing the deficits pertaining the symptomatology of the disorders associated with interpersonal difficulties and psychopathology may promote assertive behavior. Factors like psychopathology and anxiety and parenting practices need to be addressed before employing an assertiveness skill training since these factors seem to be underlying and hampering assertiveness. Social skills training need to be more targeted addressing first the deficiencies and disorders underlying and the influence from the parents.

The findings of this study should be taken in light of some limitations. The study's results may be culture or age specific and thus cannot be generalized in other cultures or adults. Moreover the causality and the direction of the relations in this study could not be addressed since there were no longitudinal data collected. Future research needs to address the abovementioned limitations regarding the culture specificity, the longitudinal data collection, the collection of data from different sources, (parents, peers and teachers) and in different forms (interview, questionnaire and observation) and address more age groups.

The findings from the present study have practical implications for psychologist, parents, school personnel and clinical work with children who lack assertiveness or are at risk to present nonassertive behaviors with all the negative consequences associated with them.

REFERENCES

- Achenbach, T. M., McConaughy, S. H., & Howell, C. T. (1987). Child/adolescent behavioral and emotional problems: Implications of cross-informant correlations for situational specificity. *Psychological Bulletin*, *101*, 213–232.
- Agnew, Robert. 2001. Building on the foundation of general strain theory: Specifying the types of strain most likely to lead to crime and delinquency. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency 38*, 319–61.
- Aguinis, H., & Bradley, K. J. (2014). Best practice recommendations for designing and implementing experimental vignette methodology studies. *Organizational Research Methods*, 17(4), 351-371.
- Alberti R. E., & Emmons, M. L. (1970). *Your perfect right: A guide to assertive behavior*. San Luis Obispo, CA: Impact.
- Alberti, R. E., & Emmons, M. C. (1974). *Your perfect right: A guide to assertive behavior* (2nd ed.). San Luis Obispo, CA: Impact.
- Alden, L. E., & Wallace, S. T. (1995). Social phobia and social appraisal in successful and unsuccessful social interactions. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, *33*, 497–505.
- Alexander, C. S., & Becker, H. J. (1978). The use of vignettes in survey research. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 42, 93-104.
- Allahyari, B., & Jenaabadi, H. (2015). The Role of Assertiveness and Self-Assertion in Female High School Students' Emotional Self-Regulation. *Creative Education*, 6(14), 1616.
- Allan, S. & Gilbert, P. (1997). Submissive behavior and psychopathology. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *36*, 447-488.
- Aluja, A., Balleste, J., & Torrubia, R. (1999). Self-reported personality and school achievement as predictors of teachers' perceptions of their students. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 27(4), 743–753.
- Aluja, A., del Barrio, V., & García, L. F. (2005). Relationships between adolescents' memory of parental rearing styles, social values and socialisation behavior traits. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *39*(5), 903-912.
- Amelia, A., Nolen-Hoeksema, S. and Schweizer, S. (2010). Emotion-regulation strategies across psychopathology: A meta-analytic review. *Clinical psychology review*, 30(2), 217-237.
- Ames, D. R. (2008). In search of the right touch: Interpersonal assertiveness in organizational life. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *17*, 381-385.
- Ames, D. (2009). Pushing up to a point: Assertiveness and effectiveness in leadership and interpersonal dynamics. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 29, 111–133.
- American Psychiatric Association. (2000). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (4th ed.). Washington, DC: Author (text revision).

- Andershed, H., Gustafson, S.B., Kerr, M., & Stattin, H. (2002). The usefulness of self-reported psychopathy like traits in the study of antisocial behaviour among non-referred adolescents. *European Journal of Personality*, *16*, 383–402.
- Angélico, A. P., Crippa, J. A. S. and Loureiro, S.R. (2013). Social Anxiety Disorder and Social Skills: A Critical Review of the Literature. *International Journal of Behavioral Consultation and Therapy*, 7 (4), 16-23.
- Arrindell, W. A., Akkerman, A., Bages, N., Feldman, L., Caballo, V. E., Oei, T. P. S., et al. (2005). The short-EMBU in Australia, Spain and Venezuela: Factorial invariance and associations with sex roles, self-esteem, and Eysenckian personality dimensions. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, 21, 56–66.
- Arrindell, W. A., Emmelkamp, P. M. G., Monsma, A., & Brilman, E. (1983). The role of perceived parental rearing practices in the aetiology of phobic disorders: a controlled study. *British Journal of Psychiatry*, *143*, 183–187.
 - Arrindell, W.A., Perris, C., Eisemann, M., Van der Ende, J., Gaszner, P., Iwawaki, S., et al. (1994). Parental rearing behavior from a cross-cultural perspective: a summary of data obtained in 14 nations. In: Perris, C., Arrindell, W.A., Eisemann, M., editors. Parenting and psychopathology. Chichester: Wiley, p. 145-71.
 - Arrindell, W. A., Sanavio, E., Aguilar, G., Sica, C., Hatzichristou, C., Eisemann, M., Recinos, LA; Gaszner, P; Peter, M; Batagliese, G; Kallai, J; van der Ende, J. (1999). The development of a short form of the EMBU: Its appraisal with students in Greece, Guatemala, Hungary and Italy. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 27(4), 613-628.
 - Arrindell, W. A., Sanderman, R., Hageman, W. J. J. M., Pickersgill, M. J., Kwee, M. G. T., Van der Molen, H. T. & Lingsma, M. M. (1990). Correlates of assertiveness in normal and clinical samples: A multidimensional approach. *Advances in Behavior Research and Therapy*, *12*, 153-282.
 - Arrindell, W. A., Sanderman, R., Van der Molen, H., Van der Ende, J. & Mersch, P. P. (1988). The structure of assertiveness: A confirmatory approach. *Behavior Research and Therapy*, 26, 337-339.
 - Arrindell, W A. &Van der Ende, J. (1985). Cross-sample invariance of the structure of self-reported distress and difficulty in assertiveness: Experiences with the Scale for Interpersonal Behavior. *Advances in Behavior Research and Therapy*, 7, 205-243.
- Arseneault, L., Bowes, L., & Shakoor, S. (2009). Bullying victimization in youths and mental health problems: 'Much ado about nothing'? *Psychological Medicine*, *5*, 717-729.
- Arsenio, W., & Killen, M. (1996). Preschoolers' conflict-related emotions during peer disputes. *Early Education and Development*, 7, 43-57.
- Asch, M., Cortese, S., Diaz, F. P., Pelissolo, A., Aubron, V., Orejarena, S., Acquaviva, E., Mouren, M. C., Michel, G., Gorwood, P., & Purper-Ouakil, D. (2009). Psychometric properties of a French version of the junior temperament and character inventory. *European child & adolescent psychiatry*, *18*(3), 144-153.

- Asendorpf, J. B., Denissen, J. J., & van Aken, M. A. (2008). Inhibited and aggressive preschool children at 23 years of age: personality and social transitions into adulthood. *Developmental psychology*, 44(4), 997.
- Aslam, N. (2014). All eyes on me? Role of negative parenting in the development of social anxiety disorder among children and adolescents. *International Journal of School and Cognitive Psychology, 1*, 1-2.
- Atzmuller, C., & Steiner, P. M. (2010). Experimental vignette studies in survey research. Methodology: European Journal of Research Methods for the Behavioral and Social Sciences, 6, 128-138.
- Aubry, T. D., Tefft, B. and Currie, R. F. (1995). Public attitudes and intentions regarding tenants of community mental health residences who are neighbors. *Community Mental Health Journal*, *31*, 39–52.
- Aunola, K., & Nurmi, J. E. (2005). The role of parenting styles in children's problem behavior. *Child development*, 76(6), 1144-1159.
- Austin, S., & Joseph, S. (1996). Assessment of bully/victim problems in 8 to 11 years old. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 66, 447-456.
- Averill, J. R. (1982). Anger and aggression. An essay on emotion. New York: Springer.
- Baggs, K. and Spence, S. H. (1990). Effectiveness of booster sessions in the maintenance and enhancement of treatment gains following assertion training. *Journal of Consulting & Clinical Psychology*, 58 (6), 845–854
- Bandura, A. (1977). Social learning theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Baldwin, A. L. (1948). Socialization and the parent-child relationship. *Child Development*, 19, 127–136.
- Balswick, J. (1988). The inexpressive male. Lexington, MA: D. C. Heath.
- Bandura, A., Ross, D., & Ross. S.A. (1961). Transmission of aggression through imitation of aggressive models. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 63, 575-582.
- Bandura, A., and Walters, R. H. Adolescent Aggression. New York: Ronald Press, 1959. In Shilling, C. S. (1979). The relationship between the assertive behavior of parents and the behavior of their children. *American Journal of Family Therapy*, 7(3), 59-64.
- Bamett, M. A., King, L. M., Howard, J. A., & Dino, G. A. (1980). Empathy in young children: Relation to parents' empathy, affection, and emphasis on the feelings of others. *Developmental Psychology*, 16, 243-244.
- Barrett, P. M., Rapee, R. M., Dadds, M. M., & Ryan, S. M. (1996). Family enhancement of cognitive style in anxious and aggressive children. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 24, 187-203.

- Barry, C. T., Frick, P. J., DeShazo, T. M., McCoy, M., Ellis, M., & Loney, B. R. (2000). The importance of callous—unemotional traits for extending the concept of psychopathy to children. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 109 (2), 335*.
- Barefoot, J.C., Peterson, B.L., Dahlstrom, W.G. (1991). Hostility patterns and health implications: Correlates of Cook—Medley Hostility Scale scores in a national survey. *Health Psychology*, *10*, 18–24.
- Barter, C. & Renold, E. (1999). The use of vignettes in qualitative research. *Social Research Update*, 25.
- Bates, H, D., & Zimmerman, S. F. (1971). Toward the development of a screening scale for assertive training. *Psychological Reports*, 28, 99-107.
- Baumrind, D. (1966). Effects of authoritative control on child behavior. *Child Development*, *37*, 887–907.
- Baumrind, D. (1968). Authoritarian vs. authoritative parental control. *Adolescence*, *3*, 255–272.
- Baumrind, D. (1971). Current patterns of parental authority. *Developmental Psychology Monograph*, 4, 1–103.
- Baumrind, D. (1978). Parental disciplinary patterns and social competence in children. *Youth & Society*, *9*, 239–276.
- Baumrind, D. (1989). The permanence of change and the impermanence of stability. *Human Development*, *32*, 187–195.
- Baumrind, D. (1991a). The influence of parenting style on adolescent competence and Substance use. *The Journal of Early Adolescence*, 11, 56–95.
- Baumrind, D. (1991b). *Parenting styles and adolescent development*. In J. Brooks-Gunn, R. Lerner, & A. Petersen (Eds.), *The encyclopedia of adolescence* (pp. 746–758). New York: Garland.
- Bayon, C., Hill, K., Svrakic, D. M., Przybeck, T. R., & Cloninger. C. R. (1996). Dimensional assessment of personality in an outpatient sample: relations of the systems of Millon and Cloninger. *Journal of Psychiatric Research*, *30*, 341-352.
- Beck, A.T. & Clark, D. A. (1997). An information processing model of anxiety: automatic and strategic processes. *Behavior Research and Therapy*, 35, 49-58.
- Beatty, M. J., & Dobos, J. A. (1992). Adult sons' satisfaction with their relationships with fathers and person-group (father) communication apprehension. *Communication Quarterly*, 40, 162-176.
- Beatty, M. J., & Dobos, J. A. (1993a). Adult males' perceptions of confirmation and relational partner communication apprehension: Indirect effects of fathers on sons' partners. *Communication Quarterly*, 41, 187-197.
- Beatty, M. J., & Dobos, J. A. (1993b). Mediated effects of adult males' perceived confirmation on females' perception of relational partners' disconfirming behavior. Southern *Communication Journal*, 58, 207-214.

- Beatty, M. J., Dobos, J. A., Rudd, J. E., & Burant, P. A. (1994). *Like father, like son: Interactive versus disciplinary responses to sons' oppositional messages.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Speech Communication Association, New Orleans, LA.
- Beatty, M. J., Zelley, J. R., Dobos, J. A., & Rudd, J. E. (1994). Fathers' trait verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness as predictors of adult sons' perceptions of fathers' sarcasm, criticism, and verbal aggressiveness. *Communication Quarterly*, 42, 407-415.
- Beidel, D. C., Turner, S. M., & Dancu, D. V. (1985). Physiological, cognitive and behavioral aspects of social anxiety. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, 23(2), 109–117.
- Beidel, D. C., Turner, S. M., & Fink, C. M. (1996). Assessment of Childhood Social Phobia: Construct, Convergent, and Discriminative Validity of the Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory for Children (SPAI-C). *Psychological Assessment*, 8 (3), 235-240.
- Beidel, D. C., Turner, S. M., Hamlin, K., &Moms, T. L. (2000). The Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory for Children (SPAI-C): External and discriminative validity. *Behavior Therapy*, *31* (1), 75-87.
- Beidel, D. C., Turner, S. M., & Moms, T. L. (1995). A new inventory to assess social phobia in children: The Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory for children. *Psychological Assessment*, 7, 73-79.
- Beidel, D. C., Turner, S. M., & Morris, T. L. (1999). Psychopathology of childhood social phobia. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, 38, 643-650.
- Bellack, A., S., Hersen, M., & Turner, S. M. (1978). Role-play tests for assessing social skills: Are they valid? Behavior Therapy, 9 (3), 448–461.
- Benning, S. D., Patrick, C. J., Blonigen, D. M., Hicks, B. M., & Iacono, W. G. (2005). Estimating facets of psychopathy from normal personality traits: A step toward community-epidemiological investigations. *Assessment*, 12, 3–18.
- Bentler, P. M. (1980). Multivariate analysis with latent variables: Causal modeling. *Annual Review of Psychology, 31,* 419–456.
- Berg-Nielsen, T. S., Vikan, A., & Dahl, A. A. (2002). Parenting related to child and parental psychopathology: A descriptive review of the literature. *Clinical child psychology and psychiatry*, 7(4), 529-552.
- Berkowitz, Leonard. 1990. On the formation and regulation of anger and aggression: A cognitive-associationistic analysis. *American Psychologist 45*, 494–503.
- Bernstein, J.Y., Watson, M.W. (1997). Children who are targets of bullying. A victim pattern. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 12, 483–498.
- Beyers, W., & Goossens, L. (2008). Dynamics of perceived parenting and identity formation in late adolescence. *Journal of Adolescence*, 31(2), 165–184.
- Biederman, J., Hirshfeld-Becker, D. R., Rosenbaum, J. F., Hérot, C., Friedman, D., Snidman, N., & Faraone, S. V. (2001). Further evidence of association between

- behavioral Inhibition and social anxiety in children. *American journal of Psychiatry*, 158(10), 1673-1679.
- Blair, C. (2002). School readiness: Integrating cognition and emotion in a neurobiological cognition and emotion in a neurobiological conception of children's functioning at school entry. American Psychologist, 57, 111–127.
- Blair, R. J. R. (1995). A cognitive developmental approach to morality: Investigating the psychopath. *Cognition*, *57*(*1*), 1-29.
- Blair, J.R.J., & Coles, M. (2000). Expression recognition and behavioral problems in early adolescence. *Cognitive Development*, *15*, 421–434.
- Blair, R.J.R., Morris, J.S., Frith, C.C., Perret, D.I., & Dolan, R.J. (1999). Dissociable neural responses to facial expressions of sadness and anger. Brain: *A Journal of Neurology*, 122, 883–893.
- Bögels, S.M., van Melick, M. (2004). The relationship between child-report, parent self-report, and partner report of perceived parental rearing behaviors and anxiety in children and parents. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 37, 1583-1596.
- Boivin, M., Hymel, S., & Bukowski, W. M. (1995). The roles of social withdrawal, peer rejection, and victimization by peers in predicting loneliness and depressed mood in childhood. *Development and Psychopathology*, 7(04), 765-785.
- Bolger, K. E., & Patterson, C. J. (2001). Developmental pathways from child maltreatment to peer rejection. *Child Development*, 72, 549–568.
- Bond, L., Carlin, J. B., Thomas, L., Rubin, K., & Patton, G. (2001). Does bullying cause emotional problems? A prospective study of young teenagers. *British Medical Journal*, 323, 480 484.
- Bornstein, M. R., Bellack, A. S., & Hersen, M. (1977). Social-Skills training for unassertive Children: A Multiple-Baseline Analysis. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, 10(2), 183-195.
- Bornstein, M. H., & Bradley, R. H. (2003). *Socioeconomic status, parenting and child development*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Bowers, L., Smith, P. K., and Brinney, V. (1992). Cohesion and power in the families of children involved in bully/victim problems at school. *Journal of Family Therapy*, 14(4), 371–387.
- Bradley, S. (1990). Affect regulation and psychopathology: Bridging the mind–body gap. Canadian Journal of Psychiatry, 35, 540–547.
- Bradley, R. H. & Corwyn, R. F. (2002). Socioeconomic Status and Child Development. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *53*, 371-399.
- Bredemeier, B. J. (1994). Children's moral reasoning and their assertive, aggressive, and submissive tendencies in sport and daily life. *Journal of sport and exercise* psychology, 16(1), 1-14.
- Bridges, K. R., Sanderman, R., Breukers, P., Ranchor, A. & Arrindell, W. A. (1991). Sex differences in assertiveness on the U.S. version of the Scale for Interpersonal Behavior (SIB). *Personality and Individual Differences*, 12, 1239–1243.

- Brown, G.T., & Carmichael, K. (1992). Assertiveness training for clients with a psychiatric illness: a pilot study. *British Journal of Occupational Therapy*, *55*, 137–140.
- Browne, A., & Finkelhor, D. (1986). Impact of child sexual abuse: A review of research. *Psychological Bulletin*, *99*, 66–77.
- Bruch, M. A., Heimberg, R. G., Berger, P., & Collins, T. M. (1989). Social phobia and recollections of early parental and personal characteristics. *Anxiety Research*, 2, 57–65.
- Buhrmester, D. (1990). Intimacy of friendship, interpersonal competence, and adjustment during preadolescence and adolescence. *Child Development*, 64, 1101-1111.
- Burke, J.D., Loeber, R., & Birmaher, B. (2002). Oppositional defiant disorder and conduct disorder: A review of the past 10 years, part II. *Journal of the Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 41, 1275 1293.
- Buss, D. M. & Craik, K. H. (1986). Acts, dispositions and clinical assessment: The psychopathology of everyday conduct. *Clinical Psychology Review*, *6*, 387-406.
- Bussey, K., & Bandura, A. (1984). Influence of gender constancy and social power on sex-linked modeling. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 47, 1292-1302.
- Cakmak, A. F., & Cevik, E. I. (2010). Cognitive emotion regulation questionnaire: Development of Turkish version of 18-item short form. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(10), 2097-2102.
- Calkins, S.D., Smith, C.L., Gill, K.L., & Johnson, M.C. (1998). Maternal interactive style across contexts: Relations to emotional, behavioral and physiological regulation during toddlerhood. *Social Development*, 7, 350–369.
- Campos, J. J., Mumme, D. L., Kermoian, R., & Campos, R. G. (1994). A functionalist perspective on the nature of emotion. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, 59, 284–305.
- Capaldi, D. M. & Patterson, G. R. (1989). Psychrometric properties of fourteen latent constructs from the Oregon Youth Study. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Capaldi, D. M. Co-occurrence of conduct problems and depressive symptoms in early adolescent boys: I. Familial factors and general adjustment at Grade 6. Development and Psychopathology 1991 (3), 277–300.
- Carey, W. B. (1998). Temperament and behavior problems in the classroom. *School Psychology Review*, 27, 522-533.
- Carlo, G., Mestre, M. V., Samper, P., Tur, A., & Armenta, B. E. (2011). The longitudinal relations among dimensions of parenting styles, sympathy, prosocial moral reasoning, and prosocial behaviors. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 35(2), 116-124.
- Carver, C. S., Scheier, M. F., & Weintraub, J. K. (1989). Assessing coping strategies: A theoretically based approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 56,267–283.

- Casas, J. F., Weigel, S.M., Crick, N.R., Ostrov, J.M., Woods, K. E., Yeh, E. A. J. (2006). Early parenting and children's relational and physical aggression in the preschool and home contexts. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 27, 209–227.
- Cassidy, J., Parke, R. D., Butkovsky, L., & Braungart, J. M. (1992). Family-peer connections: The role of emotional expressiveness within the family and children understands of emotion. *Child Development*, 63, 603-618.
- Castro, J., Toro, J., Van der Ende, J., Arrindell, W. (1993). Exploring the feasibility of assessing perceived parental rearing styles in Spanish children with the EMBU. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry* (39), 47–57.
- Cattell, R. B. (1966). The screen test for the number of factors. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 1(2), 45-76.
- Cartwright-Hatton, S. Tschernitz, N. Gomersall, H. (2005). Social anxiety in children: social skills deficit, or cognitive distortion? *Behavior Research and Therapy 43*, 131–141.
- Causey, D. L., & Dubow, E. F. (1992). Development of a self-report coping measure for elementary school children. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, *21*, 47-59.
- Calkins, S.D., Smith, C.L., Gill, K.L., & Johnson, M.C. (1998). Maternal interactive style across contexts: Relations to emotional, behavioral and physiological regulation during toddlerhood. *Social Development*, 7, 350–369.
- Chambers, J. A., Power, K. G., & Durham, R. C. (2004). Parental styles and long-term outcome following treatment for anxiety disorders. *Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy*, 11, 187-198.
- Chambless, L. D., Hunter, K & Jackson, A. (1982). Social anxiety and assertiveness: a comparison of the correlations in phobic and college student samples. *Behavior Research Theory*, 20, 403-404.
- Chan, S. M. (2010). Aggressive behavior in early elementary school children: Relations to authoritarian parenting, children's negative emotionality and coping strategies. *Early Child Development and Care, 180(9),* 1253-1269.
- Chao, R. K. (2001). Extending research on the consequences of parenting style for Chinese Americans and European Americans. *Child Development*, 72, 1832–1843.
- Chatterjee. S., Sunitha. T. A., Velawdhan, A., & Kiianna. S. (1997). An investigation into the psychobiology of Social Phobia: personality domains and serotonergic function. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica*, *95*, 544-550.
- Chen, X., Dong, Q., & Zhou, H. (1997). Authoritative and authoritarian parenting practices and social and school performance in Chinese children. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 21, 855–873.
- Chen, X., Hastings, P.D., Rubin, K.H., Chen, H., Cen, G., & Stewart, S.L. (1998). Childrearing attitudes and behavioral inhibition in Chinese and Canadian toddlers: A cross-cultural study. *Developmental Psychology*, *34*, 677–686.
- Chen, E., Langer, D.A., Raphaelson, Y.E., Matthews, K.A. (2004). Socioeconomic status and health in adolescents: The role of stress interpretations. *Child Development*, 75, 1039–1052.

- Cheng, C., Bond, M. H. & Chan, S. C. (1995). The perception of ideal best friends by Chinese adolescents. *International Journal of Psychology*, *30*, 91–108.
- Cheryl S. A., and Henry, J. B. (1978). The Use of Vignettes in Survey Research. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 42 (1), 93-104.
- Chittenden, G. E. (1942). An experimental study of measuring and modifying assertive behavior in young children. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, 17 (1), 1-87.
- Chorpita, B. F., & Barlow, D. H. (1998). The development of anxiety: The role of control in the early environment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 124, 3-21.
- Christensen, U., Lund, R., Damsgaard, M.T. (2004). Cynical hostility, socioeconomic position, health behaviors, and symptom load: A cross-sectional analysis in a Danish population-based study. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, 66, 572–577.
- Cicchetti, D., Ackerman, B. P., & Izard, C. E. (1995). Emotions and emotion regulation in developmental psychopathology. *Development and Psychopathology*, 7, 1–10.
- Cicchetti, D. & Cohen, D. J. (1995). Developmental psychopathology. *Theory and methods*, 1, 3-20.
- Clark, D. M., & Wells, A. (1995). A cognitive model of social phobia. In R. Heimberg, M. Liebowitz D.A. Hope, & F.R. Schneier (Eds.), *Social phobia: diagnosis, assessment and treatment* (pp. 69-93). New York: Guilford Press.
- Cleckley, H. (1988). *The mask of sanity*. Oxford, England: Mosby. (Original work published 1941)
- Cloninger, C. R. (1987). A systematic method for clinical description and classification of personality variants. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, *44*, 573–588.
- Cloninger, C. R., Przybeck, T. R., Svrakic, D. M., & Wetzel. R. D. (1994). *Manual of the temperament and character inventory (TCI): a guide to its development and use*. St. Louis, MO: Center for Psychobiology of Personality, Washington University.
- Cloninger, R., Przybeck, T. R., & Svrakic, D. M. (1991). The Tridimensional Personality Questionnaire: U.S. normative statistics. *Psychological Reports*, 69, 1047-1057.
- Cloninger, C. R., Svrakic, D. M., & Przybeck, T. R. (1993). A psychobiological model of temperament and character. *Archives of general psychiatry*, *50*(*12*), 975-990.
- Cloninger, C. R., & Svrakic, D. M. (2008). *Personality disorders. In The medical basis of psychiatry* (pp. 471-483). Humana Press.
- Cloninger, C., R., Sigvardsson, S., & Bohman, M. (1988). Childhood personality predicts alcohol abuse in young adults. *Alcoholism*, *12*, 494-505.
- Cloninger, C.R. (1987). Neurogenetic adaptive mechanisms in alcoholism. *Science*, 236, 410-416.
- Cloninger, C. R. (2000). A practical way to diagnosis personality disorder: a proposal. *Journal of Personality Disorders*, 14(2), 99.
- Cohen, D., Strayer, J. (1996). Empathy in conduct-disordered and comparison youth. *Developmental Psychology*, *32*, 988–998.

- Coie, J. D., Dodge, K. A., & Coppotelli, H. (1982). Dimensions and types of social status. *Developmental Psychology*, 18, 557–570.
- Coie, J., Terry, R., Lenox, K., & Lochman, J. (1995). Childhood peer rejection and aggression as predictors of stable patterns of adolescent disorder. *Development and Psychopathology*, 7, 697–713.
- Cole, P.M., Michel, M.K., & O'Donnell Teti, L. (1994). The development of emotion regulation and dysregulation: A clinical perspective. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, 59, 73–100.
- Coles, M. E., Turk, C. L., & Heimberg, R. G. (2002). The role of memory perspective in social phobia: Immediate and delayed memories for role-played situations. *Behavioral and cognitive psychotherapy*, *30*, 415-425.
- Cole, P. M., Zahn-Waxler, C., Fox, N. A., Usher, B. A., & Welsh, J. D. (1996). Individual differences in emotion regulation and behavior problems in preschool children. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 105(4), 518.
- Collins, W. A., Maccoby, E., Steinberg, L., Hetherington, E. M., & Bornstein, M. (2000). Contemporary research on parenting: The case for nature and nurture. *American Psychologist*, 55, 218–232.
- Compas, B. E., Connor-Smith, J. K., Saltzman, H., Thomsen, A. H., & Wadsworth, M. E. (2001). Coping with stress during childhood and adolescence: Problems, progress, and potential in theory and research. *Psychological Bulletin*, *127*, 87–127.
- Compas, B. E., Malcarne, V. L., & Fondacaro, K. M. (1988). Coping with stressful events in older children and young adolescents. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *56*, 405-411.
- Connor, J. M., Dann, L. N. & Twentyman, C. T. (1982). A self-report measure of assertiveness in young adolescents. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 38 (1), 101-106.
- Cook, D.J. and Lawrence, J.S. St. (1990). Variations in presentation format: Effect on interpersonal evaluations of assertive and unassertive behavior. *Behavior Modification*, 14 (1), 21-36.
- Cook, C. R., Williams, K. R., Guerra, N. G., Kim, T. E., & Sadek, S. (2010). Predictors of bullying and victimization in childhood and adolescence: A meta-analytic investigation. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 25, 65–83.
- Cooke, D. J., & Michie, C. (2001). Refining the construct of psychopath: Towards a hierarchical model. *Psychological Assessment*, 13, 171–188.
- Coolidge, F.L., DenBoer, J.W., & Segal, D. L. (2004). Personality and neuropsychological correlates of bullying behavior. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *36*, 1559–1569.
- Copeland, W., Landry, K., Stanger, C., & Hudziak, J. J. (2004). Multi-informant assessment of temperament in children with externalizing behaviour problems. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, 33(3), 547-556.

- Coplan, R. J., Mila, R. & Rowan, K. (2009). Exploring the associations between maternal personality, child temperament, and parenting: A focus on emotions. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 46, 241-246.
- Costa, P. T., Terracciano, A. & McCrae, R. R. (2001). Gender differences in personality traits across cultures: Robust and surprising findings. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81, 322–331.
- Costa, P. T. Jr., & Mc Crae, R. R. (1992). Revised NEO Personality (NEO-PI-R) and NEO Five factor Inventory (NEO-FFI): Professional Manual.

 Psychological Assessment Resources, Odessa, Florida.
- Crick N.R., Dodge, K.A. (1994). A review and reformulation of social information-processing mechanisms in children's social adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 115, 74–101.
- Crook, K., Beaver, B. P., & Bell, M. (1998). Anxiety and Depression in Children: A Preliminary Examination of the Utility of the PANAS-C. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment*, 20(4), 333-350.
- Cross, S. E. & Madsen, L. (1997). Models of the self: Self-construals and gender. *Psychological Bulletin*, 122, 5–37.
- Chang, L., Schwartz, D., Dodge, K.A., & McBride-Chang, C. (2003). Harsh parenting in relation to child emotion regulation and aggression. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 17, 598–606.
- Chan S.M. (2010). Aggressive behavior in early elementary school children: relations to authoritarian parenting, children's negative emotionality and coping strategies. *Early Child Development and Care*, 180 (9), 1253–1269.
- Chapple, C. L., Tyler, K. A., & Bersani, B. E. (2005). Child neglect and adolescent violence: Examining the effects of self-control and peer rejection. *Violence and Victims*, 20, 39–53.
- Chittenden, G. E. (1942). An Experimental study in measuring and modifying assertive behavior in young children. *Monographs of the society for research in child development*, 3 (1), 1-87.
- Clark, D. M., & Wells, A. (1995). *A cognitive model of social phobia*. In R. Heimberg, M. Liebowitz D.A. Hope, & F.R. Schneier (Eds.), Social phobia: diagnosis, assessment and treatment (pp. 69-93). New York: Guilford Press.
- Crick, N.R., Dodge, K.A. (1994). A review and reformulation of social information-processing mechanisms in children's social adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 115, 74–101.
- Crick, N. R. & Gropeter, J. K. (1995). Relational aggression, gender, and social psychological adjustment. *Child Development*, *54*, 1386-1399.
- Cummings, E. M., Iannotti, R. J., & Zahn-Waxer, C. (1985). Influence of conflict between adults on the emotions and aggression of young children. *Developmental Psychology*, 21, 495-507.
- Dadds, M.R., & Salmon, K. (2003). Punishment insensitivity and parenting: Temperament and Learning as interacting risks for antisocial behavior. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review*, 6, 69–86.

- Darling, N., and Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting style as context: An integrative model. *Psychological Bulletin 113*, 487–496.
- Davey, G. C., Burgess, I., & Rashes, R. (1995). Coping strategies and phobias: The relationship between fears, phobias and methods of coping with stressors. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *34*(3), 423-434.
- Davidson, J. R., Hughes, D. L., George, L. K., & Blazer, D. G. (1993). The epidemiology of social phobia: Findings from the Duke Epidemiological Catchment Area Study. *Psychological Medicine*, *23*, 709–718.
- Davidson, J., Zisook, S., Giller, E. & Helms, M. (1989). Symptoms of interpersonal sensitivity in depression. *Comprehensive Psychiatry*, *30*,357-368.
- Deater-Deckard, K., and Dodge, K. A. (1997). Externalizing behavior problems and discipline revisited: Nonlinear effects and variation by culture, context, and gender. *Psychological Inquiry*, 8, 161–175.
- Deluty, R. H. (1979). Children's Action Tendency Scale: A self-report measure of aggressiveness, assertiveness, and submissiveness in children. *Journal of Consulting Clinical Psychology*, 47, 1061-1071.
- Deluty, R. H. (1981a). Alternative-thinking ability of aggressive, assertive, and submissive children. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, *5*, 309-312.
- Deluty, R. H. (1981b). Assertiveness in children: Some research considerations. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 10, 149-155.
- Deluty, R. H. (1981c). Adaptiveness of aggressive, assertive, and submissive behavior for children. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 155-158.
- Deluty, R.H. (1983). Children's evaluations of aggressive, assertive and submissive responses. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 12 (2), 124-129.
- Denham, S. A. (1986). Social cognition, social behavior, and emotion in preschoolers: Contextual validation. *Child Development*, *57*, 194-201.
- Denham, S. A. (1989). Maternal affect and toddlers' social-emotional competence. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, *59*, 368-376.
- Denham, S. (2001). Dealing with feelings: Foundations and consequences of young children's emotional competence. *Early Education and Development*, 12, 5–10.
- Denham, S. A., Cook, M. C, & Zoller, D. (1992). Baby looks very sad: Discussions about emotions between mother and preschooler. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 10, 301-315.
- Denham, S. A., & Grout, L. (1993). Socialization of emotion: Pathway to preschoolers' emotional and social competence. *Journal of Nonverbal Behavior*, 17, 205-227.
- Denham, S. A., McKinley, M., Couchoud, E. A., & Holt, R. (1990). Emotional and behavioral predictors of peer status in young preschoolers. *Child Development*, *61*, 1145-1152.

- Denham, S.A., Mitchell-Copeland, J., Strandberg, K., Auerbach, S. & Blair, K. (1997). Parental Contributions to Preschoolers' Emotional Competence: Direct and Indirect Effects. *Motivation and Emotion*, 21, (1), 65-86.
- Denham, S. A., Renwick, S., & Holt, R. (1991). Working and playing together: Prediction of preschool social- emotional competence from mother-child interaction. *Child Development*, 62, 242-249.
- Denham, S. A., Workman, E., Cole, P. M., Weissbrod, C., Kendziora, K. T., & Zahn-Waxler, C. (2000). Prediction of externalizing behavior problems from early to middle childhood: The role of parental socialization and emotion expression. *Development and Psychopathology*, 12, 23–45.
- Doane, D. P., & Seward, L. E. (2011). Measuring skewness: a forgotten statistic. *Journal of Statistics Education*, 19(2), 1-18.
- Dobson, K. S. (1985). The relationship between anxiety and depression. *Clinical Psychology Review*, *5*, 307-324.
- Dodge, K.A. (1983). Behavioral antecedents of peer status. *Child Development*, *54*, 1386–1399.
- Dodge, K. A., Pettit, G. S., & Bates, J. E. (1994). Socialization mediators of the relation between socioeconomic status and child conduct problems. *Child development*, 649-665.
- Dornbusch, S. M., Ritter, P. L., Leiderman, P. H., Roberts, D. F., and Fraleigh, M. J. (1987). The relation of parenting style to adolescent school performance. *Child Development*, 58, 1244–1257.
- Duncan, G., Brooks-Gunn, J., & Klebanov, P. (1994). Economic deprivation and early childhood development. *Child Development*, 65, 296–318.
- Donenberg, G., & Baker, B. L. (1993). The impact of young children with externalizing behaviors on their families. *Journal of abnormal child psychology*, 21(2), 179-198.
- Dumas, J. E., LaFreniere, P. J., & Serketich, W. J. (1995). Balance of power: A transactional analysis of control in mother-child dyads involving socially competent, aggressive, and anxious children. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 104, 104-113.
- Durlak, J. A., & Wells, A. M. (1997). Primary prevention mental health programs for children and adolescents: A meta-analytic review. *American journal of community psychology*, 25 (2), 115-152.
- East, P. L. (1991). The parent—child relationships of withdrawn, aggressive, and sociable children: Child and parent perspectives. *Merrill—Palmer Quarterly*, *37*, 425–443.
- Edens, J. F., Skeem, J. L., Cruise, K. R., & Cauffman, E. (2001). Assessment of "juvenile psychopathy" and its association with violence: a critical review. *Behavioral Sciences & the Law*, 19(1), 53-80.
- Eckes, T. & Trauntner, H. M. (2000). Developmental social psychology of gender: An integrative framework. In Eckes, T. & Trauntner, H. M. (Eds). *The developmental social psychology of gender*. pp 3-32. Mahway: Erlbaum.

- Egan, S. K., & Perry, D. G. (1998). Does low self-regard invite victimization? *Developmental psychology, 34(2), 299.*
- Eisenberg, N., Cumberland, A., & Spinrad, T.L. (1998). Parental socialization of emotion. *Psychological Inquiry*, *9*, 241–273.
- Eisenberg, N., Cumberland, A., Spinrad, T.L., Fabes, R.A., Shepard, S.A., Reiser, M., et al. (2001). The relations of regulation and emotionality to children's externalizing and internalizing problem behavior. *Child Development*, 72, 1112–1134.
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., Bernzweig, J., Karbon, M., Poulin, R., & Hanish, L. (1993). The relations of emotionality and regulation to preschoolers' social skills and sociometric status. *Child Development*, 64, 1418-1438.
- Eisenberg, N., & Fabes, R.A. (1994). Mothers' reactions to children's negative emotions: Relations to children's temperament and anger behavior. *Merrill-Palmer*, 40, 138–156.
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., & Murphy, B. C. (1996). Parents' reactions to children's negative emotions: Relations to children's social competence and comforting behavior. *Child development*, 67(5), 2227-2247.
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R.A., Murphy, B., Maszk, P., Smith, M., & Karbon, M. (1995). The role of emotionality and regulation in children's social functioning: A longitudinal study. *Child Development*, 66, 1360–1384.
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., Nyman, M., Bernzweig, J., & Pinuelas, A. (1994). The relations of emotionality and regulation to children's anger-related reactions. *Child development*, 65(1), 109-128.
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R.A., Shepard, S.A., Murphy, B.C., Guthrie, I.K., Jones, S., et al. (1997). Contemporaneous and longitudinal prediction of children's social functioning from regulation and emotionality. *Child Development*, 68, 642–664.
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., & Guthrie, I. K. (1997). Coping with stress: The roles of regulation and development. In S. A. Wolchik & I. N. Sandler (Eds.), *Handbook of children's coping: Linking theory and intervention* (pp. 41–70). NY: Plenum.
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R.A., Guthrie, I.K., & Reiser, M. (2000). Dispositional emotionality and regulation: Their role in predicting quality of social functioning. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 78, 136–157.
- Eisenberg, N., Guthrie, I.K., Fabes, R.A., Shepard, S., Losoya, S., Murphy, B.C., et al. (2000). Prediction of elementary school children's externalizing problem behaviors from attentional and behavioral regulation and negative emotionality. *Child Development*, 71, 1367–1382.
- Eisenberg, N., Gershoff, E. T., Fabes, R. A., Shepard, S. A., Cumberland, A. J., Losoya, S. H., & Murphy, B. C. (2001). Mother's emotional expressivity and children's behavior problems and social competence: Mediation through children's regulation. *Developmental psychology*, *37*(4), 475.
- Eisler, R. M., Miller, P. M., & Hersen, M. (1973). Components of assertive behavior. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 29, 295-299.

- Eley, T. C. (2001). Contributions of behavioral genetics research: Quantifying genetic, shared environmental and non-shared environmental influences. In M. W. Vasey M. R. Dadds (Eds.), *The developmental psychopathology of anxiety* (pp. 45-59). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Elliott, S. N., Malecki, C. K., & Demaray, M. K. (2001). New directions in social skills assessment and intervention for elementary and middle school students. *Exceptionality*, *9*, 19–32.
- Engels, R. C., Deković, M., & Meeus, W. (2002). Parenting practices, social skills and peer relationships in adolescence. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 30(1), 3-17.
- Erwin, B. A., Heimberg, R. G., Juster, H. R., & Mindlin, M. (2002). Comorbid anxiety and mood disorders among persons with social anxiety disorder. *Behavior Research and Therapy*, 40, 19–35.
- Eslea, M., & Mukhtar, K. (2000). Bullying and racism among Asian school children in Britain. *Educational Research*, 42, (2), 207–217.
- Essau, C.A., Sasagawa, S., & Frick, P.J. (2006). Callous-unemotional traits in a community sample of adolescents. *Assessment*, 13, 454–469.
- Evans, S.W., Short, E.J. (1991). A qualitative and serial analysis of social problem solving in aggressive boys. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 19, 331–340.
- Eysenck, H. J. (1967). *The biological Basis of Personality*. Thomas, Springfield, Illinois. Lobel, T. E. (1981). Personality correlates of assertive behavior. *Personality Individual Differences*, 2, 252-254.
- Fabes, R. A., & Eisenberg, N. (1992). Young children's coping with interpersonal anger. *Child Development*, *63*, 116-128.
- Fabes, R. A., Eisenberg, N., Jones, S., Smith, M., Guthrie, I. K., Poulin, R., Shepard, S., & Friedman, J. (1999). Regulation, emotionality, and preschoolers' socially competent peer interactions. *Child Development*, 70, 432–442.
- Fabes, R.A., Leonard, S.A., Kupanoff, K., & Martin, C.L. (2001). Parental coping with children's negative emotions: Relations with children's emotional and social responding. *Child Development*, 72, 907–920.
- Fanti, K. A. (2013). Individual, social, and behavioral factors associated with cooccurring conduct problems and callous-unemotional traits. *Journal of abnormal child psychology*, 41(5), 811-824.
- Fanti, K. A., Brookmeyer, K. A., Henrich, C. C., & Kuperminc, G. (2009a). Aggressive behavior and quality of friendships: Linear and curvilinear associations. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 29, 826–838.
- Fanti, K. A., & Centifanti, L. C. M. (2014). Childhood callous-unemotional traits moderate the relation between parenting distress and conduct problems over time. *Child Psychiatry & Human Development*, 45(2), 173-184.
- Fanti, K. A., Demetriou, A. G., & Hawa, V. V. (2012). A longitudinal study of cyberbullying: Examining risk and protective factors. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 9(2), 168-181.

- Fanti, K. A., Demetriou, C. A., & Kimonis, E. R. (2013). Variants of callous-unemotional conduct problems in a community sample of adolescents. *Journal of youth and adolescence*, 42(7), 964-979.
- Fanti, K. A., Frick, P. J., & Georgiou, S. (2009b). Linking callous-unemotional traits to instrumental and noninstrumental forms of aggression. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment, 31*, 285–298.
- Fanti, K. A., and Georgiou, S. N. (2013). Bullying, Victimization, School Performance, and Mother-Child Relationship Quality: Direct and Transactional Associations. *Journal of Criminology*, 2013, 1-11.
- Fanti, K. A., & Kimonis, E. R. (2012). Bullying and victimization: The role of conduct problems and psychopathic traits. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 22(4), 617-631.
- Fanti, K.A., Kyranides, M. N., Drislane, L. E., Colins, O. F. & Andershed, H. (2015). Validation of the Greek Cypriot Translation of the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 0, 1-9.
- Fanti, K. A., Panayiotou, G., Lombardo, M. V., & Kyranides, M. N. (2016). Unemotional on all counts: evidence of reduced affective responses in individuals with high callous-unemotional traits across emotion systems and valences. *Social neuroscience*, 11(1), 72-87.
- Fanti, K. A., Vanman, E., Henrich, C. C., & Avraamides, M. N. (2009). Desensitization to media violence over a short period of time. *Aggressive Behavior*, *35*, 179–187.
- Farrell, M., Barnes, G. M., & Banerjee, S. (1996). Family cohesion as a buffer against the effects of problem-drinking fathers on psychological distress, deviant behavior, and heavy drinking in adolescents. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 36, 377-385.
- Federoff, I. C., & Taylor, S. (2001). Psychological and pharmacological treatments for social phobia: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Clinical Psychopharmacology*, 21, 311–324.
- Feske, U., & Chambless, D. L. (1995). Cognitive behavioral versus exposure only treatment for social phobia: A meta-analysis. *Behavior Therapy*, 26, 295–720
- Finch, J. (1987) Research note: the vignette technique in survey research. *Sociology*, *21*, 105–114.
- Foa, E. B., & Foa, U. G. (1982). Differentiating between depression and anxiety: Is it possible? Is it useful? *Psychopharmacology Bulletin*, 18, 62-68.
- Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1986). Stress processes and depressive symptomatology. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 95, 107–113.
- Fowles, D. C., & Dindo, L. (2009). Temperament and Psychopathy A Dual-Pathway Model. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 18(3), 179-183.
- Fowles, D.C., & Kochanska, G. (2000). Temperament as a moderator of pathways to conscience in children: The contribution of electrodermal activity. *Psychophysiology*, *37*, 788–795.

- Frick, P. J., & Dantagnan, A. (2005). Predicting the stability of conduct problems in children with and without callous-unemotional traits. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 14, 469–485.
- Frick, P.J. & White, F. (2008). Research Review: The importance of callous-unemotional traits for developmental models of aggressive and antisocial behavior. *The Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 49(4), 359-375.
- Frick, P. J. (2004). *Inventory of callous–unemotional traits*. Unpublished rating scale, University of New Orleans, New Orleans, LA.
- Frick, P. J., & Dantagnan, A. L. (2005). Predicting the stability of conduct problems in children with and without callous unemotional traits. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, *14*(4), 469–485.
- Frick, P.J., Kimonis, E.R., Dandreaux, D.M., & Farrell, J.M. (2003). The 4-year stability of psychopathic traits in non-referred youth. *Behavioral Sciences and the Law*, 21, 713–736.
- Frick, P., & Hare, R. D. (2001). The Antisocial Processes Screening Device. Toronto, ON: Multi-Health Systems.
- Frick, P.J., Lilienfeld, S.O., Ellis, M., Loney, B., & Silverthorn, P. (1999). The association between anxiety and psychopathy dimensions in children. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 27, 383–392.
- Frick, P.J., & Morris, A.S. (2004). Temperament and developmental pathways to conduct problems. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, *33*, 54–68.
- Frick, P. J., Ray, J. V., Thornton, L. C., & Kahn, R. E. (2014). Can callous-unemotional traits enhance the understanding, diagnosis, and treatment of serious conduct problems in children and adolescents? A comprehensive review. *Psychological Bulletin*, *140*, 1–57.
- Frick, P. J. & Viding, E. (2009). Antisocial behavior from a developmental psychopathology perspective. *Development and Psychopathology*, 21, 1111–1131.
- Fullerton, C. S., & Ursano, R. J. (1994). Preadolescent peer friendships: A critical contribution to adult social relatedness? Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 23, 43-63.
- Furman, W., & Buhrmester, D. (1985). Children's perceptions of the personal relationships in their social networks. *Developmental Psychology*, 21, 1016-1024.
- Furmark, T. (2000). *Social phobia. From epidemiology to brain function*. Acta Universitatis Upsaliensis. Comprehensive Summaries of Uppsala Dissertations from the Faculty of Social Sciences 97. Uppsala. 72 p.
- Fyer, A. J., Mannuzza S., Chapman T. F., Liebowitz M R., & Klein D. F. (1993). A direct interview family study of social phobia. *Archives of General Psychiatry* 50, 286–293.
- Gaensbauer, T. J. (1982). Regulation of emotional expression in infants from two contrasting caretaking environment. *Journal of the American Academy of Child Psychiatry*, 21, 163-170.

- Galassi, J. P., Delo, J. S., Galassi, M. D., & Bastien, S. (1974). The College Self-Expression Scale: A measure of assertiveness. *Behavior Therapy*, 5, 165-171.
- Galassi, M. D., & Galassi, J. P. (1978). Assertion: A critical review. *Psychotherapy: Theory, research, practice, 15*, 16-29.
- Galassi, J. P., DeLo, J. S., Galassi, M. D., & Bastien, S. (1974). The College Self-Expression Scale: A measure of assertiveness. *Behavior Therapy*, 5, 165-171.
- Gambrill, E. D., & Richey, C. A. (1975). An assertion inventory for use in assessment and research. *Behavior Therapy*, *6*, 550-561.
- Ganzach, Y. (2000). Parents' education, cognitive ability, educational expectations and educational attainment: Interactive effects. *British Journal of Education Psychology*, 70, (3), 419–441.
- Garcia-Lopez L.J., Diaz-Castela, M.M., Muela-Martinez, J.A., Espinosa-Fernandez, L. (2014). Can parent training for parents with high levels of expressed emotion have a positive effect on their child's social anxiety improvement? *Journal of Anxiety Disorders*, 28, 812–822.
- Garcia-Lopez, L. J., Hidalgo, M. D., Beidel, D. C. & Olivares, J. (2008). Brief Form of the Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory (SPAI-B) for Adolescents. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, 24(3), 150-156.
- Garcia-Lopez, L. J., Olivares, J., Beidel, D., Albano, A. M., Turner, S., & Rosa, A. I. (2006). Efficacy of three treatment protocols for adolescents with social anxiety disorder: A 5-year follow-up assessment. *Journal of Anxiety Disorders*, 20(2), 175-191.
- Garcia-Lopez, L. J., Piqueras, J. A., Diaz-Castela, M. M., & Ingles, C. J. (2008). Social anxiety disorder in childhood and adolescents: current trends, advances, and future directions. *Behavioral Psychology*, *16*, 501–533.
- Garcia-Lopez, L. J., Sáez-Castillo, A. J., Beidel, D., & La Greca, A. M. (2015). Brief measures to screen for social anxiety in adolescents. Journal of Developmental & Behavioral Pediatrics, 36(8), 562-568.
- Garnefski, N., & Kraaij, V. (2006). Cognitive emotion regulation questionnaire—development of a short 18-item version (CERQ-short). *Personality and Individual Differences*, 41(6), 1045-1053.
- Garnefski, N., Kraaij, V., & Spinhoven, Ph. (2001). Negative life events, cognitive emotion regulation and emotional problems. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 30, 1311-1327.
- Garnefski, N., Kraaij, V., & Spinhoven, Ph. (2002). CERQ: Manual for the use of the Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire. Leiderdorp, the Netherlands: DATEC.
- Garner, P.W., & Estep, K.M. (2001). Toddlers' emotion regulation behaviors: The role of social context and family. *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 156, 417–430.
- Gay, M. L., Hollandsworth, J. G., Jr., & Galassi, J. P. f 1975). An assertiveness inventory for adults. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 22, 340-344.

- Ge, X., Conger, R. D., Cadoret, R. J., Neiderhiser, J.M., Yates, W., Troughton, E., et al. (1996). The developmental interface between nature and nurture: A mutual influence model of child antisocial behavior and parent behaviors. *Developmental Psychology*, 32, 574–589.
- Gerlsma, C., Arrindell, W. A., Van der Veen, N., & Emmelkamp, P. M. (1991). A parental rearing style questionnaire for use with adolescents: Psychometric evaluation of the EMBU-A. *Personality and Individual differences*, *12*(12), 1245-1253.
- Gerlsma, C., Snijders, T. A. B., Van Duijn, M. A. J., & Emmelkamp, P. M. G. (1997). Parenting and psychopathology: differences in family members' perceptions of parental rearing styles. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 23, 271–282.
- Gervasio, A.H. and Crawford, M. (1989) Social evaluations of assertiveness: A critique and speech act reformulation. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 13, 1-25.
- Georgiou, S. N., & Stavrinides, P. (2012). Social-psychological profiles of early adolescents involved in bullying activities. *International Journal of Criminology and Sociology*, 1, 60-68.
- Georgiou, S. N. (2008a). Parental style and child bullying and victimization experiences at school. *Social Psychology of Education*, 11, 213 227.
- Georgiou, S. (2008b). Bullying and victimization at school: The role of mothers. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 78, 109–125.
- Georgiou, S. N., & Stavrinides, P. (2008b). Bullies, Victims and Bully-Victims: Psychosocial Profiles and Attribution Styles. *School Psychology International*, 29, (5), 574-589.
- Gilbert, P. & Allan, S. (1994). Assertiveness, submissive behavior and social comparison. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology 33*, 295-306.
- Gilbert, P. (1992). *Depression: The Evolution of Powerlessness*. Hove, Sussex: Erlbaum/New York: Guilford.
- Ginsburg, G. S., Grover, R. L., & Ialongo, N. (2004). Parenting behaviors among anxious and non-anxious mothers: Relation with concurrent and long-term child outcomes. *Child & Family Behavior Therapy*, 26, 23-41.
- Ginsburg, G., La Greca, A. M., & Silverman, W. K. (1998). Social anxiety in children with anxiety disorders: Relations with social and emotional functioning. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 26, 175–185.
- Glasgow, K. L., Dornbusch, S. M., Troyer, L., and Steinberg, L. (1997). Parenting styles, adolescents' attributions, and educational outcomes in nine heterogeneous high schools. *Child Development*, 68, 507–529
- Glueck, K. S., and Glueck, E. Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1950. In Shilling, C. S. (1979). The relationship between the assertive behavior of parents and the behavior of their children. *American Journal of Family Therapy*, 7(3), 59-64.
- Golden, M. (1981). A measure of cognition within the context of assertion. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*. *37*, 253-262.

- Goldsmith, H.H., & Campos, J.J. (1982). Toward a theory of infant temperament. In R.N. Emde & R.J. Harmon (Eds.). *The development of attachment and affiliative systems* (pp. 161–193). New York: Plenum.
- Gorenstein, E. E., & Newman, J. P. (1980). Disinhibitory psychopathology: A new perspective and a model for research. *Psychological Review*, 87, 301-315.
- Graham, S., & Juvonen, J. (1998). Self-blame and peer victimization in middle school: an attributional analysis. *Developmental psychology*, *34*(*3*), 587.
- Greco, L. A., & Morris, T. L. (2002). Paternal child-rearing style and child social anxiety: Investigation of child recollections and actual father behavior. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment*, 24, 259–267.
- Gresham, F. M. (1985). Utility of cognitive-behavioral procedures for social skills training with children: A critical review. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 13(3), 411-423.
- Gresham, F. M., & Elliot, S. N. (1990). *The Social Skills Rating System*. Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Service.
- Gray, J. A. (1987). The psychology of fear and stress. New York: Cambridge University Press. In Newman, J. P., & Wallace, J. F. (1993). Diverse pathways to deficient self-regulation: Implications for disinhibitory psychopathology in children. *Clinical Psychology Review, 13*(8), 699-720.
- Gross, J. J., & Munoz, R. F. (1995). Emotion regulation and mental health. *Clinical Psychology Science and Practice*, 2, 151–164.
- Gross, J. J. (1998). The emerging field of emotion regulation: An integrative review. *Review of General Psychology*, 2, 271–299.
- Gross, J. J. (1999). Emotion Regulation: Past, Present, Future. *Cognition and Emotion*, 13 (5), 551-573.
- Gross, J. J., & Levenson, R.W. (1997). Hiding feelings: The acute effect s of inhibiting positive and negative emotions. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 106, 95-103.
- Gruner, K., Muris, P., & Merckelbach, H. (1999). The relationship between anxious rearing behaviors and anxiety disorders symptomatology in normal children. *Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry*, 30, 27-35.
- Grusec, J. E. (2002). *Parenting socialization and children's acquisition of values*. In Bornstein, M. H. (ed.), Handbook of Parenting: Vol. 5: Practical Issues in Parenting, Erlbaum, Mahwah, NJ, pp. 143–167.
- Gudykunst, W.B. and Nishida, T. (1986). The influence of cultural variability on perceptions of communication behavior associated with relationship terms. *Human Communication Research*, 13(2), 147-166.
- Grych, J. H., & Cardoza-Fernandes, S. (2001). *Understanding the impact of interparental conflict on children: The role of social cognitive processes*. In J. J. Grych & H. Fincham (Eds.), Interparental conflict and child development (pp. 157–187). New York, NY, US: Cambridge University Press.

- Haas, S. M., Waschbusch, D. A., Pelham Jr, W. E., King, S., Andrade, B. F., & Carrey, N. J. (2011). Treatment response in CP/ADHD children with callous/unemotional traits. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, *39*(4), 541-552.
- Hagopian, L. P., & Ollendick, T. H. (1996). Behavioral inhibition and anxiety sensitivity: A reanalysis. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 21(2), 247-252.
- Halford, W. K. & Hayes, R. L. (1995). Social skills in schizophrenia: Assessing the relationship between social skills, psychopathology and community functioning. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology*, 30(1), 14-19.
- Hall, E.T. (1976). Beyond culture. New York: Doubleday.
- Hare, R. D. (1986). 20 years of experience with the Cleckley Psychopath. In W. H. Reid, D. Dorr, J. I. Walker, & J. W. Bonner (Eds.), Unmasking the psychopath (pp. 3–27). New York, NY: Norton.
- Hare, R. D. (1991). *The Hare Psychopathy Checklist—Revised*. Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
- Hare, R. D. (1996). Psychopathy: A clinical construct whose time has come. *Clinical Justice and behavior*, 23, 25-54.
- Hare, R. D., & Neumann, C. S. (2008). Psychopathy as a clinical and empirical construct. Annual Review of Clinical Psychology, 4, 217–246.
- Hare, R. D., & Neumann, C. S. (2010). The role of antisociality in the psychopathy construct: Comment on Skeem and Cooke (2010). *Psychological Assessment*, 22, 446–454.
- Harris, J. R. (1995). Where Is the Child's Environment? A Group Socialization Theory of Development. *Psychological Review*, *102*, 458-489.
- Hart, C. H., Newell, L. D., & Olsen, S. F. (2003). Parenting skills and social-communicative competence in childhood. In J. O. Greene & B. R. Burleson (Eds.),
 Handbook of communication and social interaction skills (pp. 753–797). Mahwah,
 NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Harter, S. (1985). *Manual for the Self-Perception Profile for Children* (Revision of the Perceived Competence Scale for Children). Denver: University of Denver.
- Hayes, S. C., Strosahl, K. D., Wilson, K. G., Bissett, R. T., Pistorello, J., Toarmino, D., et al. (2004). Measuring experiential avoidance: A preliminary test of a working model. *The Psychological Record*, *54*, 553–578.
- Hayes, S. C., Wilson, K. G., Gifford, E. V., Follette, V. M., & Strosahl, K. (1996).
 Experiential avoidance and behavioral disorders: A functional dimensional approach to diagnosis and treatment. *Journal of consulting and clinical psychology*, 64(6), 1152.
- Haynie, D., Nansel, T., Eitel, P., Davis-Crump, A., Saylor, K., Yu, K., & Simons-Morton, B. (2001). Bullies, victims, and bully/victims: Distinct groups of at risk youth. Journal of *Early Adolescence*, 21, 29–49.
- Hayward, C., Varady, S., Albano, A. M., Thienemann, M., Henderson, L., & Schatzberg, A. F. (2000). Cognitive behavioral group therapy for social phobia in female

- adolescents: results of a pilot trial. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 39(6), 721–726.
- Hawes, D. J., & Dadds, M. R. (2005). The treatment of conduct problems in children with callous-unemotional traits. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 73(4), 737–741.
- Hawes, D. J., & Dadds, M. R. (2007). Stability and malleability of callous-unemotional traits during treatment for childhood conduct problems. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, *36*, 347–355.
- Hawes, D.J., Dadds, M.R., Frost, A.D., Hasking, P.A. (2011). Do childhood callous-unemotional traits drive change in parenting practices? *Journal of Clinical Child Adolescent Psychology* 40, 507-518.
- Hawker, D. S. J. & Boulton, M. J. (2000). Twenty years' research on peer victimization and psychosocial maladjustment: meta analytic review of cross sectional studies. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 41, (4), 441-455.
- Hedquist, F. J., & Weinhold, B. K. (1970). Behavioral group counseling with socially anxious and unassertive college students. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 17, 237-242.
- Heimberg, R. G. (2002). Cognitive—behavioral therapy for social anxiety disorder: Current status and future directions. *Biological Psychiatry*, *51*, 101–108.
- Henderson, M. and Furnham, A. (1982). Self-reported and self-attributes scores on personality, social skills, and attitudinal measures as compared between high and low nominated friend and acquaintances. *Psychological Reports*, *50*, 88-90.
- Herringer. L. G. (1998). Facets of extraversion related to life satisfaction. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 24(5), 731-733.
- Herzberger, S.D., Chan, E. & Katz, J. (1984). The development of an Assertiveness Self-Report Inventory. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 48 (3), 317-323.
- Hill, A. L., Degnan, K. A., Calkins, S. D., Keane, S. P. (2006). Profiles of externalizing behavior problems for boys and girls across preschool: The roles of emotion regulation and inattention. *Developmental Psychology*, 42(5), 913-928.
- Hinshaw, S.P. (1987). On the distinction between attentional deficits/hyperactivity and conduct problems/ aggression in child psychopathology. *Psychological Bulletin*, 101, 443–463.
- Hoff, E. (2003). The specificity of environmental influence: Socioeconomic status affects early vocabulary development via maternal speech. *Child Development*, 74, 1368–1378.
- Hofmann S, Gerlach A, Wender A, Roth W (1997): Speech disturbances and gaze behavior during public speaking in subtypes of social phobia. *Journal of Anxiety Disorder*, 11, 573–585.
- Holmbeck, G. N., Johnson, S. Z., Wills, K. E., McKernon, W., Rose, B., Erklin, S., & Kemper, T. (2002). Observed and perceived parental overprotection in relation to psychosocial adjustment in preadolescents with a physical disability: the

- mediational role of behavioral autonomy. *Journal of consulting and clinical psychology*, 70(1), 96.
- Hong, R. Y. (2007). Worry and rumination: Differential associations with anxious and depressive symptoms and coping behaviors. *Behavior Research and Therapy*, 45, 277–290.
- Hopko, D. R., McNeil, D. W., Zvolensky, M. J., & Eifert, G. H. (2001). The relation between anxiety and skill in performance-based anxiety disorders: A behavioral formulation of social phobia. *Behavior Therapy*, 32, 185–207.
- Horn, W. F., & Packard, T. (1985). Early identification of learning problems: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77, 597-607.
- Horowitz, L. M., Rosenberg, S. E., Baer, B. A. Ureno, G. & Villasenor, V S. (1988). Inventory of inter- personal problems: Psychometric properties and clinical applications. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *56*, 885-892.
- Hubbard, J. A., & Coie, J. D. (1994). Emotional correlates of social competence in children's peer relationships. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 40, 1–20.
- Hudson, J. L., & Rapee, R. M. (2001). Parent-child interactions and anxiety disorders: An observational study. *Behavior Research and Therapy*, *39*, 1411-1427.
- Huesmann, L. (1988). An information processing model for the development of aggression. *Aggressive Behavior*, 14, 13-24
- Huesmann, L.R., & Eron, L.D, (1989). Individual differences and the trait of aggression. *European Journal of Personality*, *3*, 95–106
- Hughes, R., & Huby, M. (2002). The application of vignettes in social and nursing research. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *37*, 382-386.
- Houston, B. K., & Vavak, C. R. (1991). Cynical hostility: developmental factors, psychosocial correlates, and health behaviors. *Health Psychology*, 10(1), 9.
- Idle, T., Wood, E., & Desmarais, S. (1993). Gender role socialization in toy play situations: Mothers and fathers with their sons and daughters. *Sex Roles*, 28, 679-691.
- Infante, D. A. (1995). Teaching students to understand and control verbal aggression. *Communication Education*, 44, 51-63.
- Infante, D. A. (1987). Aggressiveness. In J. C. McCroskey & J. A. Daly (Eds.), *Personality and interpersonal communication (pp. 157-192)*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Infante, D. A., & Gorden, W. L. (1991). How employees see the boss: Test of an argumentative and affirming model of supervisors' communicative behavior. *Western Journal of Speech Communication*, *55*, 294-304.
- Infante, D. A., & Rancer, A. S. (1996). Argumentativeness and verbal aggressiveness: A review of recent theory and research. *Communication Yearbook*, 19, 319-351.
- Infante, D. A., & Wigley, C. J. (1986). Verbal aggressiveness: An interpersonal model and measure. *Communication Monographs*, *53*, 61-69.

- Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., Sully de Luque, M., & House, R. J. (2006). In the eye of the beholder: cross-cultural lessons in leadership from Project GLOBE. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 20, 67–90.
- Jakubowski-Spetor, P. (1973). Facilitating the growth of women through assertive training. *The Counseling Psychologist*, *4*, 75-86.
- Jermann, F., Van der Linden, M., d'Acremont, M., & Zermatten, A. (2006). Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (CERQ): Confirmatory factor analysis and psychometric properties of the French translation. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, 22(2), 126-131.
- Jolly, J. B., Dyck, M. J., Kramer, T. A., & Wherry, J. N. (1994). Integration of positive and negative affectivity and cognitive content-specificity: Improved discrimination of anxious and depressed symptoms. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 103, 544-552.
- Jones, S., Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R.A., & MacKinnon, D.P. (2002). Parents' reactions to elementary school children's negative emotions: Relations to social and emotional functioning at school. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 48, 133–159.
- Juvonen, J., Graham, S. & Schuster, M. A. (2003). Bullying among young adolescents: the Strong, the weak, and the troubled. *Pediatrics*, *112*, *(6)*, 1231-1237.
- Juvonen, J., Nishina, A., & Graham, S. (2000). Peer harassment, psychological adjustment, and school functioning in early adolescence. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 92, 349-359.
- Kagan, J. & Snidman, N. (1999). Early childhood predictors of adult anxiety disorders. *Biological Psychiatry*, 46, 1536–1541.
- Kaiser, H. F. (1960). The application of electronic computers to factor analysis. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 20, 141-151.
- Kaltiala-Heino, R., Rimpela, M., Marttunen, M., Rimpela, A., & Rantanen, P. (1999). Bullying, depression, and suicidal ideation in Finnish adolescents: school survey. *British Medicine Journal*, 319, 348–351.
- Karatzias, A., Power, K.G., Swanson, V. (2002). Bullying and victimization in Scottish secondary schools: Same or separate entities? *Aggressive Behavior*, 28, 45–61
- Karekla, M., Forsyth, J. P., & Kelly, M. M. (2004). Emotional avoidance and panicogenic responding to a biological challenge procedure. *Behavior Therapy*, *35*, 725–746.
- Karekla, M., & Panayiotou, G. (2011). Coping and experiential avoidance: Unique or overlapping constructs? *Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry*, 42(2), 163-170.
- Kashdan, T. B., & Breen, W. E. (2008). Social anxiety and positive emotions: A prospective examination of a self-regulatory model with tendencies to suppress or express emotions as a moderating variable. *Behavior Therapy*, 39, 1–12.

- Kashdan T. B. & Herbert J. D. (2001). Social anxiety disorder in childhood and adolescence: Current status and future directions. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review*, *4*, 37–62.
- Keller, B.B., & Bell, R.Q. (1979). Child effects on adults' method of eliciting altruistic behaviors. *Child Development*, *50*, 1004–1009.
- Keltikangas-Järvinen, L. (2001). Aggressive behaviour and social problem-solving strategies: a review of the findings of a seven-year follow-up from childhood to late adolescence. *Criminal Behaviour and Mental Health*, 11, 236–250.
- Kennedy, E., Spence, S. H., & Hensley, R. (1989). An examination of the relationship between childhood depression and social competence amongst primary school children. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 30(4), 561-573.
- Kenny, M. C., Capri, V., Ryan, E. E., & Runyon, M. K. (2008). Child sexual abuse: from prevention to self-protection. *Child Abuse Review*, 17(1), 36-54.
- Kessler, R. C., Berglund, P., Demler, O., Jin, R., Merikangas, K. R., & Walters, E. E. (2005). Lifetime prevalence and age-of-onset distributions of DSM-IV disorders in the National Comorbidity Survey Replication. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 62, 593-602.
- Kessler, R. C., Crum, R. M., Warner, L. A., Nelson, C. B., Schulenberg, J., & Anthony, J. C. (1997). Lifetime co-occurrence of DSM–III–R alcohol abuse and dependence with other psychiatric disorders in the National Comorbidity Survey. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, *54*(4), 313–321.
- Kessler, R. C., McGonagle, K.A., Zhao, S., Nelson, C.B., Hughes, M., Eshleman, S., et. al. (1994). Lifetime and 12-month prevalence of DSM-III-R psychiatric disorders in the United States: Results from the National Comorbidity Survey. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, *51*, 8–19.
- Kessler, R. C., Stang, P., Wittchen, H.-U., Stein, M., & Walters, E. E. (1999). Lifetime comorbidities between social phobia and mood disorders in the US National Comorbidity Survey. *Psychological Medicine*, 29, 555–567.
- Khatri, P., Kupersmidt, J.B., & Patterson, C. (2000). Aggression and peer victimization as predictors of self-reported behavioural and emotional adjustment. *Aggressive Behavior*, 26, 345-358.
- Kim, Y. A. (2003). Necessary social skills related to peer acceptance. *Childhood Education*, 79, 234–236.
- Kimonis, E. R., Fanti, K. A., Isoma, Z., & Donoghue, K. (2013). Maltreatment profiles among incarcerated boys with callous-unemotional traits. *Child maltreatment*, 18(2), 108-121.
- Kimonis, E. R., Frick, P. J., Skeem, J. L., Marsee, M. A., Cruise, K., Munoz, L. C., & Morris, A. S. (2008). Assessing callous—unemotional traits in adolescent offenders: Validation of the Inventory of Callous—Unemotional Traits. *International journal of law and psychiatry*, 31(3), 241-252.

- Kimonis, E.R., Frick, P.J., Fazekas, H., & Loney, B.R. (2006). Psychopathy, aggression, and the emotional processing of emotional stimuli in non-referred girls and boys. *Behavioral Sciences and the Law*, 24, 21–37.
- Kingery, J. N., Erdley, C. A., Marshall, K. C., Whitaker, K. G., & Reuter, T. R. (2010). Peer experiences of anxious and socially withdrawn youth: An integrative review of the developmental and clinical literature. *Clinical child and family psychology review*, *13*(1), 91-128.
- Kliewer, W., Fearnow, M. D., & Miller, P. A. (1996). Coping socialization in middle childhood: Tests of maternal and paternal influences. *Child Development*, 67, 2339–2357.
- Kline, R. B. (1998). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. NY: Guilford.
- Klingzell, I., Fanti, K.A., Colins, O.F., Frogner, L., Andershed, A.K. & Andershed, H. (2015). Early childhood trajectories of conduct problems and callous-unemotional traits: The role of fearlessness and psychopathic personality dimensions. *Child Psychiatry & Human Development*.
- Knappe, S., Lieb, R., Beesdo, K., Fehm, L., Chooi Ping Low, N., Gloster, A.T., Wittchen, H. (2009). The role of parental psychopathology and family environment for social phobia in the first three decades of life. *Depression and Anxiety*, 26, 363-370.
- Knutson, J. F., DeGarmo, D. S., & Reid, J. B. (2004). Social disadvantage and neglectful parenting as precursors to the development of antisocial and aggressive child behavior: Testing a theoretical model. *Aggressive Behavior*, *30*, 187–205.
- Kochanska, G. (1993). Toward a synthesis of parental socialization and child temperament in early development of conscience. *Child Development*, 64, 325–347.
- Kochanska, G., & Aksan, N. (1995). Mother–child mutually positive affect, the quality of child compliance to requests and prohibitions, and maternal control as correlates of early internalization. *Child Development*, 66, 236–254.
- Kochanska, G., Gross, J.N., Lin, M., & Nichols, K.E. (2002). Guilt in young children: Development, determinants, and relations with a broader system of standards. *Child Development*, 73, 461–482.
- Kochanska, G., & Murray K. (2000). Mother–child mutually responsive orientation and conscience development: From toddler to early school age. *Child Development*, 71, 417–431
- Kochanska, G. (1997). Multiple pathways to conscience for children with different temperaments: From toddlerhood to age 5. *Developmental Psychology*, *33*, 228–240.
- Kochanska, G. (1997a). Mutually responsive orientation between mothers and their young children: Implications for early socialization. *Child Development*, 68, 94–112.
- Kogan, E. S., Hersen, M., Kabacoff, R. I. and Van Hasselt, V. B. (1995). Psychometric Properties of the Wolpe-Lazarus Assertiveness Scale with Community-Dwelling

- Older Adults. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment*, 17, (2), 97-109.
- Kokkinos, C. M., & Panayiotou, G. (2004). Predicting bullying and victimization among early adolescents: Associations with disruptive behavior disorders. *Aggressive Behavior*, 30(6), 520-533.
- Kovacs, M., & Devlin, B. (1998). Internalizing disorders in childhood. Journal of Child *Psychology and Psychiatry*, *39* (1), 47-63.
- Krohne, H. W., & Hock, M. (1991). Relationships between restrictive mother-child interactions and anxiety of the child. *Anxiety Research*, *4*, 109-124.
- Kupersmidt, J. B., Coie, J. D., & Dodge, K. A. (1990). Predicting disorder from peer social problems. In S.R. Asher & J.D. Coie (Eds.), *Peer rejection in childhood* (pp. 274-305).
- Kyriakides, L. (2002). A research based model for the development of policy on baseline assessment. *British Educational Research Journal*, 28, 803–824.
- Kyriakides, L., Kaloyirou, C., & Lindsay, G. (2006). An analysis of the Revised Olweus Bully/Victim Questionnaire using the Rasch measurement model. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 76(4), 781–801.
- Kyrios, M. & Prior, M. (1990). Temperament, stress and family factors in behavioral adjustment of 3–5-year-old children. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 13, 67–93.
- La Greca, A. M., Dandes, S. K., Wick, P., Shaw, K., & Stone, W. L. (1988). Development of the Social Anxiety Scale for Children: Reliability and concurrent validity. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 17(1), 84-91.
- La Greca, A. M., & Stone, W. L. (1993). The Social Anxiety Scale for Children-Revised: Factor structure and concurrent validity. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 22, 17-27.
- Ladd, G. W., and Pettit, S. (2002). Parenting and the development of children's peer relationships. In Bornstein, M. H. (ed.) Handbook of Parenting: Vol. 5: Practical Issues in Parenting, Erlbaum, Mahwah, NJ, pp. 269–309.
- Lamborn, S. D., Mounts, N. S., Steinberg, L. D., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1991). Patterns of competence and adjustment among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful families. *Child Development*, 62, 1049–1065.
- Landazabal, M. G. (2006). Psychopathological symptoms, social skills, and personality traits: A study with adolescents. *The Spanish journal of psychology*, *9*(02), 182-192.
- Lao, R. C., Upchurch, W. H., Corwin, B. J. & Grossnickle, W. E. (1975). Biased attitudes towards females as indicated by ratings of intelligence and likeability. *Psychological Reports*, *37*, 1315-1320.
- Larsen, R.J., & Diener, E. (1987). Affect intensity as an individual difference characteristic: A review. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 21, 1–39.
- Lazarus, A. A. (1971). Behavior therapy and beyond. New York: McGraw-Hill

- Lazarus, A. A. (1973). Assertive training: a brief note. *Behavior Therapy*, 4, 697-699.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). Stress, appraisal and coping. New York: Springer.
- Lao, R. C., Uphurch, W. H., Corwin, B. J., & Grossnickle, W. F. (1975). Biased attitudes towards females as indicated by ratings of intelligence and likeability. *Psychological Reports*, *37*, 1315-1320.
- Ledingham, J. E. (1991). Social cognition and aggression. In Pepler, D. J. & Rubin, K.H. (Eds.). *The development and treatment of childhood aggression* (pp. 279–286). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Lee, Y. D., Hallberg, E.T., Slemon, A. G., Haase, R. F. (1985). An assertiveness scale for adolescents. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 41 (1), 51-57.
- Lengua, L.J., & Kovacs, E.A. (2005). Bidirectional associations between temperament and parenting and the prediction of adjustment problems in middle childhood. *Applied Developmental Psychology*, 26, 21–38.
- Lengua, L. J., West, S. G., & Sandler, I. N. (1998). Temperament as a predictor of symptomatology in children: Addressing contamination of measures. *Child Development*, 69, 164–181.
- Lieb, R., Wittchen, H. U., Hofler, M., Fuetsch, M., Stein, M. B., & Merikangas, K. R. (2000). Parental psychopathology, parenting styles, and the risk of social phobia in offspring. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, *57*, 859–866.
- Lin, Y. R., Wu, M. H., Yang, C. I., Chen, T. H., Hsu, C. C., Chang, Y. C., & Chou, K. R. (2008). Evaluation of assertiveness training for psychiatric patients. *Journal of clinical nursing*, 17(21), 2875-2883.
- Lobdell, J., & Perlman, D. (1986). The intergenerational transmission of loneliness: A study of college females and their parents. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 48, 589-595.
- Locke, J. (1689). Essay Concerning Human Understanding, Macmillan, New York.
- Locke, L. M., & Prinz, R. J. (2002). Measurement of parental discipline and nurturance. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 22, 895–930.
- Loeber, R., Burke, J.D., Lahey, B.B., Winters, A., & Zera, M.(2000). Oppositional defiant disorder and conduct disorder: A review of the past 10 years, part I. *Journal of the Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 39, 1468–1484.
- Loeber, R., & Dishion, T. (1983). Early predictors of male delinquency: A review. *Psychological Bulletin*, *94*, 68-98.
- Loney, B. R., Frick, P. J., Clements, C. B., Ellis, M. L., & Kerlin, K. (2003). Callous—unemotional traits, impulsivity, and emotional processing in antisocial adolescents. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, 32, 66–80.
- Lopes, P. N., Salovey, P., Côté, S., Beers, M., & Petty, R. E. (2005). Emotion regulation abilities and the quality of social interaction. *Emotion*, *5*(1), 113.
- Losoya, S., Eisenberg, N., & Fabes, R.A. (1998). Developmental issues in the study of coping. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 22, 287–313.

- Lubke, G. H., & Muthén, B. O. (2004). Applying multigroup confirmatory factor models for continuous outcomes to Likert scale data complicates meaningful group comparisons. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 11(4), 514-534.
- Luby, J.L., Svrakic, D. M., Mccallum, K., Przybeck, T. R., & Cloninger, C. R. (1999). The Junior Temperament and Character Inventory: preliminary validation of a child self-report measure. *Psychological Report*, 84, 1127-38.
- Lykken, D. T. (1957). A study of anxiety in the sociopathic personality. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 55, 6–10.
- Lyoo, I. K., Han, C. H., Lee, S. J., Yune, S. K., Ha, J. H., Chung, S. J., Choi, H., Seo, C. S., & Hong, K. E. (2004). The reliability and validity of the junior temperament and character inventory. *Comprehensive Psychiatry*, 45(2), 121-128.
- Lytton, H. (1990). Child and parent effects in boys' conduct disorder: A reinterpretation. *Developmental Psychology*, 26, 683–697.
- Maccoby, E. E., and Martin, J. A. (1983). Socialization in the context of the family: Parent—child interaction. In Mussen, P. H. (Series ed.) and Heatherington, E. M. (Vol. ed.), Handbook of Child Psychology: Vol. 4. Socialization, Personality, and Social Development, Wiley, New York.
- McDonald, R., Dodson, M. C., Rosenfield, D., & Jouriles, E. N. (2011). Effects of a parenting intervention on features of psychopathy in children. *Journal of abnormal child psychology*, 39(7), 1013-1023.
- Malinckrodt, B. (1992). Childhood emotional bonds with parents, development of adult social competencies, and the availability of social support. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 39, 453-461
- Marshall, L. A. & Cooke, D. J. (1999). The Childhood Experiences of Psychopaths: A Retrospective Study of Familial and Societal Factors. *Journal of Personality Disorders*, 13 (3), 211-225.
- McCord, J. (1991). Family relationships, juvenile delinquency, and adult criminality. *Criminology*, 29, 397-417.
- McCord, W., & McCord, J. (1964). The psychopath: An essay on the criminal mind. Princeton, NJ: Van Nostrand.
- Mair, P., & Hatzinger, R. (2007). Extended Rasch modeling: The eRm package for the application of IRT models in R. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 20(9), 1-20. http://www.jstatsoft.org/v20/i09
- Man, S., & Gilbert, P. (1997). Submissive behavior and psychopathology. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *36*, 447-488.
- Masia, C. L., & Morris, T. L. (1998). Parental factors associated with social anxiety: Methodological limitations and suggestions for integrated behavioral research. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice*, 5, 211–228.
- Mattanah, J. F. (2001). Parental psychological autonomy and children's academic competence and behavioral adjustment in late childhood: More than just limit-setting and warmth. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 47, 355-376.

- Margalit, M., & Eysenck, S. (1990). Prediction of coherence in adolescence: Gender differences in social skills, personality, and family climate. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 24(4), 510-521.
- Markus M, Lindhout I, Boer F, Hoogendijk T, Arrindell W. (2003). Factors of perceived parental rearing styles: the EMBU-C examined in a sample of Dutch primary school children. *Personality and Individual Differences*, (34), 503–519.
- Martin, M. M., & Anderson, C. M. (1996). Argumentativeness and verbal aggressiveness. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 11, 547-554
- Martin, M. M. & Anderson, C.M. (1997). Aggressive Communication Traits: How Similar are Young Adults and their Parents in Argumentativeness, Assertiveness, and Verbal Aggressiveness. *Western Journal of Communication*, 61(3), 299-314.
- Matthiesen, S.B., Einarsen, S. (2001). MMPI-2 configurations among victims of bullying at work. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology* 10, 467–484.
- Mathison, D. L. & Tucker, R. K. (1982). Sex differences in assertive behavior: A research extension. *Psychological Reports*, *51*, 943–948.
- Mayer, D. P. (1999). Measuring instructional practice: Can policymakers trust survey data? *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 21, 29–45.
- McCord, W., McCord, J., & Howard, A. (1961). Familial correlates of aggression in non-delinquent male children. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 62, 79-93.
- McCoy M.B., Firck, P.J., Loney, B.R., Ellis, M.L. (1999). The potential mediating role of parenting practices in the development of conduct problems in a clinic-referred sample. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 8, 477–94.
- McFall, R. M., & Lillesand, D. B. (1971). Behavior rehearsal with modeling and coaching in assertion training. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 77, 313-323.
- McFall, R. M., Twetyman, C. T. (1973). Four experiments on the relative contributions of rehearsal, modeling, and coaching to assertion training. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 81, 199-218.
- McLeod, B. D., Weisz, J. R., & Wood, J. J. (2007). Examining the association between parenting and childhood depression: A meta-analysis. *Clinical psychology review*, 27(8), 986-1003.
- Meesters, C., Muris, P., & Esselink, T. (1995). Hostility and perceived parental rearing behaviour. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 18, 567–570.
- Melby, J. N., Conger, R. D., Conger, J. K., & Lorenz, F. O. (1993). Effects of parental behavior on tobacco use by young male adolescents. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 55, 439-454.
- Menderes, A. (2003). Self-reported assertiveness in Swedish and Turkish adolescents: A cross-cultural comparison. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 44, 7–12.
- Mennin, D. S., McLaughlin, K. A., & Flanagan, T. J. (2009). Emotion regulation deficits in generalized anxiety disorder, social anxiety disorder, and their co-occurrence. *Journal of anxiety disorders*, 23(7), 866-871.

- Milgram, S. (1970). The experience of living in cities. *Science*, 167, 1461–1468.
- Miller, P. A., Kliewer, W., Hepworth, J. T., & Sandler, I. N. (1994). Maternal socialization of children's post-divorce coping: Development of a measurement model. *Journal of Applied Developmental psychology*, *15*, 457–487.
- Moore, P. S., Whaley, S. E., & Sigman, M. (2004). Interactions between mothers and children: Impacts of maternal and child anxiety. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 113, 471-476.
- Mohr, A. (2006). Family variables associated with peer victimization: Does family violence probability of being victimized by peers? *Swiss Journal of Psychology*, 65, 107–116.
- Morris, T. L. & Masia, C.L. (1998). Psychometric Evaluation of the Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory for Children: Concurrent Validity and Normative Data. Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 27 (4), 452-458.
- Mowder, B. A. (1993). Parent role research. Early Childhood Interests, 8(3), 6.
- Munoz, L.C., & Frick, P.J. (2007). The reliability, stability, and predictive utility of the self-report version of the Antisocial Process Screening Device. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 48, 299–312.
- Muñoz, L.C., Pakalniskiene, V., Frick, P.J. (2011). Parental monitoring and youth behavior problems: moderation by callous-unemotional traits over time. *European Child Adolescent Psychiatry*, 20, 261-269.
- Muris, P., & Merckelbach, H. (1998) Perceived parental rearing behaviour and anxiety disorders symptoms in normal children. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 25, 1199-1206.
- Muris, P., Bogels, S., Meesters, C., van der Kamp, N., and van Oosten, A. (1996). Parental rearing practices, fearfulness, and problem behavior in clinically referred children. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 21, 813–818.
- Muris, P., Loxton, H., Neumann, A., du Plessi, M., King, N., Ollendick, T. (2006). DSM-defined anxiety disorder symptoms in South African youths: their assessment and relationship with perceived parental rearing behaviors. *Behavior Research and Therapy*, 44, 883–896.
- Muris, P., Meesters, C., & Fijen, P. (2003). The self-perception profile for children: Further evidence for its factor structure, reliability, and validity. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 35(8), 1791-1802.
- Muris, P., Meesters, C., Merckelback, H., & Hollenbeck, P. (2000). Worry in children is related to perceived parental rearing and attachment. *Behavior Research and Therapy*, 38, 487-497.
- Muris, P., & Merckelback, H. (1998). Perceived parental rearing behavior and anxiety disorders symptoms in normal children. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 25, 1199-1206.
- Muris, P., Meesters, C., & Van den Berg, S. (2003) Internalizing and externalizing problems as correlates of self-reported attachment style and perceived parental rearing in normal adolescents. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 12, 171-183.

- Musa, C. Z. & Lepine, J. P. (2000). Cognitive aspects of social phobia: a review of the theories and experimental research. *European Psychiatry*, 15, 59-66.
- Neapolitan, J. (1981). Parental influences on aggressive behavior: A social learning approach. *Adolescence*, *16*, 831-840.
- Neiderhiser, J. M., Reiss, D., Lichtenstein, P., Spotts, E. L., & Ganiban, J. (2007). Father-adolescent relationships and the role of genotype-environment correlation. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 21, 560–571.
- Nelson, D.A., Hart, C.H., Yang, C., Olson, J.A., & Jin, S. (2006). Aversive parenting in China: Association with child physical and relational aggression. *Child Development*, 77, 554–572.
- Newcomb, A.F., Bukowski, W.M., Pattee, L. (1993). Children's peer relations: a metaanalytic review of popular, rejected, neglected, controversial and average sociometric status. *Psychological Bulletin 113*, 99–128.
- Newman, J.P. (1987). Reaction to punishment in extraverts and psychopaths: Implications for the impulsive behavior of disinhibited individuals. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 21, 464–480.
- Nezu, C. M., Nezu, A. M., & Arean, P. (1991). Assertiveness and problem-solving training for mildly mentally retarded persons with dual diagnoses. *Research in Developmental Disabilities*, 12(4), 371-386.
- Nicotera, A. M., & Rancer, A. S. (1994). The influence of sex on self-perceptions and social stereotyping of aggressive communication predispositions. *Western Journal of Communication*, *58*, 283-307.
- Noble, T., & McGrath, H. (2005). Emotional growth: helping children and families' bounce back'. *Australian family physician*, *34*(9), 749-752.
- Nolen-Hoeksema, S., Wisco, B. E., & Lyubomirsky, S. (2008). Rethinking rumination. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *3*, 400–424.
- Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights. Article 19 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. Adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by UN. General Assembly resolution 2200A (XXI) of 16 December 1966, entry into force 23 March 1976.
- Ogilvy, C. M. (1994). Social skills training with children and adolescents: A review of the evidence on effectiveness. *Educational Psychology*, *14*(1), 73-83.
- Ohene, S. A., Ireland, M., McNeely, C., & Borowsky, I. W. (2006). Parental expectations, physical punishment and violence among adolescents who score positive on a psychosocial screening test in primary care. *Pediatrics*, *117*, 441–447.
- Ollendick T.H. (1983). Reliability and validity of the revised fear survey schedule for children (FSSC-R). *Behavior Research Therapy 21*, 685–692.
- Ollendick, T.H. (1984). Development and validation of Children's Assertiveness Inventory. *Child and Family Behavior Therapy*, *5*(*3*), 1-15.

- Ollendick, T. H., Francis, G., & Hart, K. J. (1985). Correlates of adult and child perceptions of social competency. *Journal of abnormal child psychology*, 13(1), 129-141.
- Ollendick, T. H., Meador, A. E., & Villanis, C. (1986). Relationship between the Children's Assertiveness Inventory (CAI) and the Revised Behaviorial Assertiveness Test for Children (BAT-CR). *Child & family behavior therapy*, 8(3), 27-36.
- Olweus, D. (1980). Familial and temperamental determinants of aggressive behavior in adolescent boys: A causal analysis. *Developmental Psychology*, 16, 644-660.
- Olweus, D. (1986). The Olweus bully/victim questionnaire. Mimeo. Bergen, Norway.
- Olweus, D. (1991). Bully/victim problems among schoolchildren: Basic facts and effects of a school-based intervention program. In D. Pepler & K. Rubin (Eds.), *The development and treatment of childhood aggression* (pp. 411-448). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Olweus, D. (1992). Bullying among school children: Intervention and prevention. In R.DeV. Peters, R.I. McMahon, & V.L. Quinsey (Eds.), Aggression and violence throughout the life span (pp. 100-125). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Olweus, D. (1993). *Bullying at school: What we know and what we can do*. Oxford, England: Blackwell.
- Olweus D. (1996). *The Revised Olweus Bully/Victim Questionnaire*. Mimeo. Bergen, Norway: Research Center for Health Promotion (HEMIL Center), University of Bergen.
- Olweus, D. (2010). Understanding and researching bullying: Some critical issues. In Jimerson, S.R., Swearer, S.M., & Espelage, D.L. (Eds.), *Handbook of bullying in schools: An international perspective*, 9-33. New York: Routledge.
- Olweus, D. (2013). School bullying: Development and some important challenges. *Annual Review of Clinical Psychology*, *9*, 751–780.
- Orth, L. C. & Martin, R. P. (1994). Interactive effects of student temperament and instruction method on classroom behavior and achievement. *Journal of School Psychology*, *32*, 149-166.
- Overbeek, G., ten Have, M., Vollebergh, W., & de Graaf, R. (2007). Parental lack of care and overprotection. *Social psychiatry and psychiatric epidemiology*, 42(2), 87-93.
- Owens, E. B., Hinshaw, S. P., Kraemer, H. C., Arnold, L. E., Abikoff, H. B., Cantwell, D. P., et al. (2003). Which treatment for whom for ADHD? Moderators of treatment response in the MTA. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 71, 540 –552.
- Panayiotou, G. (2014). Maternal neuroticism predicts social anxiety in Cypriot youth: the mediating role of child personality and anxiety sensitivity. *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth*, 1–11.
- Panayiotou, G., & Karekla, M. (2013). Perceived social support helps, but does not buffer the negative impact of anxiety disorders on quality of life and perceived stress. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology*, 48, 283-294.

- Panayiotou, G., Karekla, M., & Mete, I. (2014). Dispositional coping in individuals with anxiety disorder symptomatology: Avoidance predicts distress. *Journal of Contextual Behavioral Science*, *3*(4), 314-321.
- Panayiotou, G., Karekla, M., & Panayiotou, M. (2014). Direct and indirect predictors of social anxiety: The role of anxiety sensitivity, behavioral inhibition, experiential avoidance and self-consciousness. *Comprehensive psychiatry*, 55(8), 1875-1882.
- Pardini, D.A. (2006). The callousness pathway to severe violent delinquency. *Aggressive Behavior*, 32, 1–9.
- Pardini, D.A., Byrd, A.L. (2012). Perceptions of aggressive conflicts and others' distress in children with callous-unemotional traits: "I'll show you who's boss, even if you suffer and I get in trouble". *Child Psychology Psychiatry*, 53, 283-291.
- Pardini, D. A., Lochman, J. E., & Powell, N. (2007). The development of callousunemotional traits and antisocial behavior in children: Are there shared or unique predictors? *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, *36*, 319–333.
- Park, H. S., & Bauer, S. (2002). Parenting practices, ethnicity, socioeconomic status and academic achievement in adolescents. *School Psychology International*, 23, 386–396.
- Parke, R. D. (1994). Progress, paradigms, and unresolved problems: A commentary on recent advances in our understanding of children's emotions. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 40, 157-169.
- Parker, G. (1979). Reported parental characteristics of agoraphobics and social phobics. *British Journal of Psychiatry, 135*, 555-560.
- Parker, J., & Asher, S. (1987). Peer relations and later personal adjustment: Are low-accepted children at risk? *Psychological Bulletin*, 102, 357-389
- Patterson, G. R. (1986). Performance Models for Antisocial Behavior. *American Psychologist*, 41, 432-444.
- Patterson, G. R. (1982). *Coercive family process: A social learning approach*. Eugene, Oregon: Castalia.
- Patterson, C. J., Kupersmidt, J. B., & Vaden, N. A. (1990). Income level, gender, ethnicity, and household composition as predictors of children's school-based competence. *Child development*, 61(2), 485-494.
- Patterson, G.R., Reid, J. B., & Dishion, T. J. (1992). *Antisocial boys*. Eugene, OR: Castalia.
- Patrick, C. J. (2010). Operationalizing the triarchic conceptualization of psychopathy: Preliminary description of brief scales for assessment of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition. Unpublished manual, Department of Psychology, Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL. Retrieved from http://www.phenxtoolkit.org
- Patrick, C. J., Fowles, D. C., & Krueger, R. F. (2009). Triarchic conceptualization of psychopathy: Developmental origins of disinhibition, boldness, and meanness. *Development and psychopathology, 21(3),* 913-938.

- Paul, J. J., & Cillessen, A. H. N. (2003). Dynamics of peer victimization in early adolescence. *Journal of Applied School Psychology*, 19, 25 –43.
- Pearlin, L. I., & Schooler, C. (1978). The structure of coping. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 19, 2–21.
- Penelo, E., Viladrich, C., & Domènech, J. M. (2010) Perceived parental rearing style in childhood: internal structure and concurrent validity on the Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran–Child Version in clinical settings. *Comprehensive Psychiatry*, 51, 434-442
- Penelo, E., Viladrich, C., Domènech, J. M. (2012). Adolescents' perceptions of parental behavior: psychometric properties of the short Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran–Adolescent version (S-EMBU-A) in a clinical sample. *Comprehensive Psychiatry 53*, 87–94.
- Pereira, A., Canavarro, C., Cardoso, M., & Mendonca, D. (2009). Patterns of Parental Rearing Styles and Child Behaviour Problems among Portuguese School-Aged Children. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 18, 454–464.
- Pettit, G. S., & Bates, J. E. (1989). Family interaction patterns and children's behavior problems from infancy to 4 years. *Developmental Psychology*, 25, 413–420.
- Pettit, G.S., Dodge, K.A., Brown, M.M. (1988). Early family experience, social problem solving patterns, and children's social competence. *Child Development*, *59*, 815–829.
- Petz, B. (1992). Psihologijski rječnik (Psychological Dictionary). Zagreb: Prosvjeta.
- Phillips, D. R.; & Groves, G. A. (1979). Assertive training with children. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research, and Practice, 16*, 171-177.
- Piajet, J. (1932, 1965). The Moral Judgment of the Child. New York: The free Press.
- Piatigorsky, A., & Hinshaw, S. P. (2004). Psychopathic traits in boys with and without attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder: concurrent and longitudinal correlates. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, *32*(5), 535–550.
- Plax, T. G., Kearney, P., & Beatty, M. J. (1985). Modeling parents' assertiveness: A retrospective analysis. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, *146*, 449-457.
- Podolski, C.L., Nigg, J.T. (2001). Parent stress and coping in relation to child hyperactivity severity and associated child disruptive behavior problems. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, *30*, 501-511.
- Ponderotto, J. G., & Pedersen, P. B. (1993). *Preventing prejudice: A guide for counselors and educators*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Power, T. G. (2004). Stress and coping in childhood: The parents' role. Parenting: Science and Practice, 4, 271–317.
- Price, J., Sloman, L., Gardner, R., Gilbert, P & Rhode, P (1994). The social competition hypothesis of depression. *British Journal of Psychiatry*, 164, 309-3 15.

- Prinzie, P., Onghena, P., Hellinckx, W., Grietens, H., Ghesquie`re, P., & Colpin, H. (2003). The additive and interactive effects of parenting and children's personality on externalizing behavior. European Journal of Personality, 17, 95–117.
- Puig-Antich, J. K., Lukens, E., Davies, M., Goetz, D., Brennan-Quattrock, J., & Todak, G. (1985). Psychosocial functioning in prepubertal major depressive disorders. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 42, 500-508.
- Putallaz, M. (1987). Maternal behavior and children's sociometric status. *Child Development*, *58*, 324-340.
- Raine, A. (1993). The psychopathology of crime: Criminal behavior as a clinical disorder. San Diego: Academic Press.
- Raine, A. (2002). Biosocial studies of antisocial and violent behavior in children and adults: A review. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, *30*, 95–113.
- Rathus, S. A. (1973). A 30-item schedule for assessing assertive behavior. *Behavior Therapy*, *4*, 398-406.
- Rapee, R. M. (1995). Descriptive psychopathology of Social Phobia. In Heimberg, R.G.,
- Liebowitz, M.R., Hope, A.D., & Schneier, F.R. (Eds.). Social Phobia: Diagnosis, Assessment, and Treatment (Chapter Three). Guildford press.
- Rapee, R. M. (1997). Potential role of childrearing practices in the development of anxiety and depression. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 17, 47–67.
- Rapee, R. M. (2001). The development of generalized anxiety. In M. W. Vasey & M. R. Dadds (Eds.), *The developmental psychopathology of anxiety* (pp. 481-503). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Rapee, R. M., & Abbott, M. J. (2006). Mental representation of observable attributes in people with social phobia. Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry, 37(2), 113-126.
- Rapee, R. M., & Heimberg, R. (1997). A cognitive-behavioral model of anxiety in social phobia. Behavior Research and Therapy, 35, 741-756.
- Rapee, R. M., & Lim, L. (1992). Discrepancy between self and observer ratings of performance in social phobics. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 101(4), 728–731.
- Reardon, R. C., Hersen, M., Bellack, A. S., & Foley, J. M. (1979). *Measuring social skill in grade school boys*. Journal of Behavioral Assessment, 1, 87-105.
- Repetti, R. L., Taylor, S. E., & Seeman, T. E. (2002). Risky families: family social environments and the mental and physical health of offspring. *Psychological bulletin*, 128(2), 330-366.
- Revelle, W. (2015). Psych: Procedures for Personality and Psychological Research, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, USA.
- Rich, A. R., & Schroeder, H. E. (1976). Research issues in assertiveness training. *Psychological Bulletin*, *83*, 1081-1096.

- Richter, J., Krecklow, B., & Eisemann, M. (2002). Interrelations between temperament, character, and parental rearing among delinquent adolescents: A cross-validation. *Comprehensive psychiatry*, 43(3), 210-214.
- Richmond, V. P., & McCroskey, J. C. (1990). Reliability and separation of factors on the assertiveness-responsiveness measure. *Psychological Reports*, *67*, 449-450.
- Richmond, V. P., & McCroskey, J. C. (1992). *Communication: Apprehension, avoidance, and effectiveness*. Scottsdale, AZ: Gorsuch Scarisbrick.
- Roberts, W., & Strayer, J. (1987). Parents' responses to the emotional distress of their children: Relations with children's competence. *Developmental Psychology*, 23, 415-432.
- Robinson, C.C., Mandleco, B., Olsen, S.F., & Hart, G.H. (1995). Authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting practices: Development of a new measure. Psychological Reports, 77(3, Pt. 1), 819–830. Rousseau, J. J. (1762). The Social Contract, Penguin Books, London.
- Robinson, C. C., Mandleco, B., Frost Olsen, S., & Hart, C. H. (2001). The Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ). In B. F. Perlmutter, J. Touliatos, & G. W. Holden (Eds.), Handbook of family measurement techniques. Vol. 2: Instruments and index (p. 190). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Roose, A., Bijttebier, P., Decoene, S., Claes, L., & Frick, P. J. (2009). Assessing the affective features of psychopathy in adolescence: a further validation of the inventory of callous and unemotional traits. Assessment, 17(1), 44-57.
- Rothbart, M.K., Ahadi, S.A., & Hershey, K.L. (1994). Temperament and social behavior in childhood. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 40, 21–39.
- Rothbaum, F., & Weisz, J. R. (1994). Parental caregiving and child externalizing behavior in nonclinical samples: a meta-analysis. *Psychological bulletin*, 116 (1), 55.
- Rotheram, M. J., Armstrong, M., & Booraem, C. (1982). Assertiveness training in fourth and fifth-grade children. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 10, 567-582.
- Richter, J., Krecklow, B., & Eisemann, M. (2002). Interrelations between temperament, character, and parental rearing among delinquent adolescents: A cross-validation. *Comprehensive psychiatry*, *43*(*3*), 210-214.
- Rimm, D. C., & Masters, J. C. (1979). *Behavior therapy techniques and empirical findings* (2nd ed). New York Academic Press.
- Rudman, L. A., & Glick, P. (2001). Prescriptive Gender Stereotypes and Backlash Toward Agentic Women. *Journal of Social Issues*, *57*, *(4)*, 743–762.
- Rubin, K. H., Burgess, K. B., & Hastings, P. D. (2002). Stability and Social-Behavioral Consequences of Toddlers' Inhibited Temperament and Parenting Behaviors. *Child Development*, 73, (2), 483-495.
- Rubin, K. H., Chen, X., & Hymel, S. (1993). Socioemotional characteristics of withdrawn and aggressive children. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly* (1982), 518-534.

- Rubin, K. H., Coplan, R. J., Fox, N. A., & Calkins, S. D. (1995). Emotionality, emotion regulation, and preschoolers' social adaptation. *Development and Psychopathology*, 7, 49-62.
- Rubin, K. H., Hastings, P. D., Stewart, S. L., Henderson, H. A., & Chen, X. (1997). The consistency and concomitants of inhibition: Some of the children, all of the time. *Child Development*, 68, 467–483.
- Ruchkin, V. V., Eisemann, M., Hägglöf, B., & Cloninger, C. R. (1998). Interrelations between temperament, character, and parental rearing in male delinquent adolescents in Northern Russia. *Comprehensive Psychiatry*, 39(4), 225-230.
- Sanson, A., Hemphill, S. A., Yagmurlu, B., & McClowry, S. (2011). *Temperament and social development*. Wiley-Blackwell handbook of childhood social development, 227-245.
- Salekin, R. T., Debus, S. A., & Barker, E. D. (2010). Adolescent psychopathy and the five-factor model: Domain and facet analysis. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment*, 32, 501–514.
- Salmivalli, C., & Nieminen, E. (2002). Proactive and reactive aggression among school bullies, victims, and bully-victims. *Aggressive Behavior*, 28, 30–44.
- Scarpa, A.S., & Raine, A. (1997). Psychophysiology of anger and violent behavior. *Psychiatric Clinics of North America*, 20, 375–394.
- Skarpness, L. R. & Carson, D. K. (1986). Temperament, communicative competence and the psychological adjustment of kindergarten children. *Psychological Reports*, *59*, 1299–1306.
- Schneier, F. R., Johnson, J., Hornig, C. D., Liebowitz, M. R., & Weissman, M. M. (1992). Social phobia: Comorbidity and morbidity in an epidemiologic sample. Archives of General Psychiatry, 49, 282–288.
- Schwartz, D., Chang, L., & Farver, J. M. (2001). Correlates of victimization in Chinese children's peer groups. *Developmental Psychology*, *37*(4), 520.
- Schwartz, D., Dodge, K. A., & Cowie, J. D. (1993). The emergence of chronic peer victimization in boy's play groups. *Child Development*, *64*, 1755–1772.
- Schwartz, D., Dodge, K.A., Pettit, G. S., and Bates, J. E. (1997). The early socialization of aggressive victims of bullying. *Child Development*, 68(4), 665–675.
- Schwartz, R. M. (1986). The internal dialogue: On the asymmetry between positive and negative coping thoughts. Cognitive Therapy and Research, 10, 591-605.
- Schwartz, R.M. and Caramoni, G. (1989). Cognitive balance and psychopathology: evaluation of an information processing model of positive and negative states of mind. *Clinical Psychology Review*, *9*, 271-294.
- Schwartz, R. M., & Gottman, J. M. (1976). Toward a task analysis of assertive behavior. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 44, 910-920.
- Schwartz, D., Proctor, L. J. & Chien, D. H. (2001). The Aggressive Victim of Bullying: Emotional and Behavioural Dysregulation as a Pathway to Victimization by Peers.

- In Juvonen, J. & Graham, S. (Eds.). *Peer Harassment in School: The Plight of the Vulnerable and Victimized* (pp. 147-174). New York: Guilford Press.
- Schwartz, D., Dodge, K. A., Coie, J. D., Hubbard, J. A., Cillessen, A. H., Lemerise, E. A., & Bateman, H. (1998). Social-cognitive and behavioral correlates of aggression and victimization in boys' play groups. *Journal of abnormal child psychology*, 26(6), 431-440.
- Schwartz, C. E., Snidman, N., & Kagan, J. (1999). Adolescent social anxiety as an outcome of inhibited temperament in childhood. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 38, 1008–1015.
- Seals, D. and Young, J. (2003). Bullying and victimization: prevalence and relationship to gender, grade level, ethnicity, self-esteem, and depression. *Adolescence*, 38(152), 735–747.
- Sears, R. R., Macoby, E., and Levin, H. (1957). Patterns of Child Rearing, Row, Peterson, Evanston, IL. In Sears, R.R., Maccoby, E.E., & Levin, H. Segrin, C., & Flora, J. (2000). Poor social skills are a vulnerability factor in the development of psychosocial problems. *Human Communication Research*, 26(3), 489–515.
- Sebanc, A. M., Pierce, S. L., Cheatham, C. L., & Gunnar, M. R. (2003). Gendered social worlds in preschool: Dominance, peer acceptance and assertive social skills in boys' and girls' peer groups. *Social Development*, 12(1), 91-106.
- Seguin, C. A. & Ambrosio, A. L. (2002). Multicultural vignettes for teacher preparation. *Multicultural Perspectives*, 4, 10-16.
- Schaffer, H. R. (1999). Understanding socialization: From unidirectional to bidirectional connections. In M. Bennett (Ed.), Developmental psychology: Achievements and prospects (pp. 272–288). Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press. In Sanson, A., Hemphill, S. A., Yagmurlu, B., & McClowry, S. (2011). Temperament and social development. Wiley-Blackwell handbook of childhood social development, 227-245.
- Shamir-Essakow, G., Ungerer, J. A., Rapee, R. M., & Safier, R. (2004). Caregiving representations of mothers of behaviorally inhibited and uninhibited preschool children. *Developmental Psychology*, 40, 899–910.
- Sharabany, R., Eshel, Y., & Hakim, C. (2008). Boyfriend, girlfriend in a traditional society: Parenting styles and development of intimate friendships among Arabs in school. International Journal of Behavioral Development, 32, 66–75.
- Shekar, S. N., Luciano, M., Duffy, D. L., & Martin, N. G. (2005). Genetic and environmental influences on skin pattern deterioration. *Journal of Investigative Dermatology*, 125(6), 1119–1129.
- Shields, A., & Cicchetti, D. (1997). Emotion regulation among school-age children: The development and validation of a new criterion Q-sort scale. Developmental Psychology, 33, 906–917.
- Shields, A., & Cicchetti, D. (2001). Parental maltreatment and emotion dysregulation as risk factors for bullying and victimization in middle childhood. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, *30*, 349–363.

- Shilling, C. S. (1979). The relationship between the assertive behavior of parents and the behavior of their children. *American Journal of Family Therapy*, 7, 59-64.
- Shiina, A., Nakazato, M., Mitsumori, M., Koizumi, H., Shimizu, E., Fujisaki, M. & Iyo, M. (2005). An open trial of outpatient group therapy for bulimic disorders: combination program of cognitive behavioral therapy with assertive training and self-esteem enhancement. *Psychiatry and Clinical Neurosciences*, *59*, 690–696.
- Shure, M. B., Newman, S., & Silver, S. (1973). Problem-solving thinking among adjusted, impulsive, and inhibited head start children. Paper presented at the Eastern Psychological Association, Washington, D.C., 1973.
- Shure, M. B., Spivack, G., & Jaeger, M. A. (1971). Problem-solving thinking and adjustment among disadvantaged preschool children. *Child Development*, 42, 1791-1803.
- Singhal, A. & Nagao, M. (1993). Assertiveness as communication competence. A comparison of the communication styles of American and Japanese students. Asian Journal of Communication 3(1), 1-18.
- Skeem, J. L., &Cooke, D. J. (2010). Is criminal behavior a central component of psychopathy? Conceptual directions for resolving the debate. *Psychological Assessment*, 22, 433–445.
- Skeem, J. L., Polaschek, D. L. L., Patrick, C. J., & Lilienfeld, S. O. (2011). Psychopathic personality: Bridging the gap between scientific evidence and public policy. Psychological Science in the Public Interest, 12, 95–162.
- Slaby, R.G., Guerra, N.G. (1988). Cognitive mediators of aggression in adolescent offenders, I: Assessment. *Developmental Psychology* 24, 580–588.
- Slater, M. D. (2003). Alienation, aggression, and sensation seeking as predictors of adolescent use of violent film, computer, and website content. *Journal of Communication*, 53(1), 105-121.
- Slee, P. T. (1995). Peer victimization and its relationship to depression among Australian primary school students. *Personal and Individual Differences*, *18*, 57-62.
- Sloman, L., Price, J., Gilbert, I. & Gardner, R. (1994). Adaptive function of depression. Therapeutic interventions. *American Journal of Psychotherapy*, 48, (3), 1-16.
- Smith, C.L., Eisenberg, N., Spinrad, T.L., Chassin, L., Morris, A.S., Kupfer, A., et al. (2006). Children's coping strategies and coping efficacy: Relations to parent socialization, child adjustment, and familial alcoholism. Development and Psychopathology, 18, 445–469.
- Smith, P. K. & Hart, C. H. (Eds), Handbook of childhood social development (pp. 97–116). London, UK: Blackwell. In Sanson, A., Hemphill, S., & Smart, D. (2002). Temperament and social development.
- Solberg, M., & Olweus, D. (2003). Prevalence estimation of school bullying with the Olweus Bully/ Victim Questionnaire. Aggressive Behavior, 29(3), 239–268.
- Spence, S.H., Donovan, C. & Brechman-Toussaint, M. (1999). Social skills, social outcomes and cognitive features of childhood phobia. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 108 (2), 211-221.

- Spence, S. H., Donovan, C., & Brechman-Toussaint, M. (2000). The treatment of childhood social phobia: the effectiveness of a social skills training based, cognitive-behavioral intervention, with and without parental involvement. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 41(6), 713–726.
- Spera, C. (2005). A review of the relationship among parenting practices, parenting styles, and adolescent school achievement. *Educational Psychology Review*, 17(2), 125-146.
- Spira, A. P., Zvolensky, M. J., Eifert, G. H., & Feldner, M. T. (2004). Avoidance-oriented coping as a predictor of anxiety-based physical stress: A test using biological challenge. *Journal of Anxiety Disorders*, 18, 309–323.
- Spitzberg. B. H. and Cupach, W.R. (1984). Interpersonal communication competence. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Spokas, M. & Heimberg, R. G. (2009). Overprotective Parenting, Social Anxiety, and External Locus of Control: Cross-sectional and Longitudinal Relationships. *Cognitive Therapy Research*, *33*, 543–551
- St Lawrence, J. S. (1987). Assessment of assertion, In M. Hersen, R M. Eider & P. M. Miller (Eds), Progress in Behavior Modification, vol. 21. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Stott, D., H. (1982). *Delinquency. The problem and prevention*. New York: SP Medical and Scientific Books, Stavrinides, P., Georgiou, S., & Theophanous, V. (2010). Bullying and empathy: a short term longitudinal investigation. *Educational Psychology*, *30*, (7), 793-802.
- Stansbury, K., & Zimmermann, L.K. (1999). Relations among child language skills, maternal socialization of emotion regulation and child behaviors problems. *Child Psychiatry and Human Development*, *30*, 121–142.
- Stebbins, C. A., Kelly, B. R., Tolor, A. & Power, M-E. (1977). Sex differences in assertiveness in college students. *Journal of Psychology*, *95*, 309–315.
- Steinberg, L., Lamborn, S. D., Darling, N., Mounts, N. S., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1994). Over-time changes in adjustment and competence among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful families. *Child Development*, 65, 754–770.
- Stevenson, M. R. (1991). Perceptions of relationship with father and sex-typed characteristics of offspring. *Sex Roles*, *24*, 239-244.
- Stocker, C., & Dunn, J. (1990). Sibling relationships in childhood: Links with friendships and peer relationships. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 9, 227-244
- Stocker, C. M., & Youngblade, L. (1999). Marital conflict and parental hostility: and peer relationships. *Journal of Family Psychology*, *13*, 598–609.
- Stormshak, E. A., Bierman, K. L., McMahon, R. J., & Lengua, L. J. (2000). Parentingpractices and child disruptive behavior problems in early elementary school. *Journal of clinical child psychology*, 29(1), 17-29.

- Strauss, C. C, Lease, C. A., Kazdin, A. E., Dulcan, M. K., & Last, C. G. (1989). Multimethod assessment of the social competence of children with anxiety disorders. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 18, 184-189.
- Strahan, E. Y. (2003). The effects of social anxiety and social skills on academic performance. Personality and Individual Differences, 34, 347–366.
- Strahan, E., & Conger, A. J. (1998). Social anxiety and its effects on performance and perception. Journal of Anxiety Disorders, 12(4), 293–305.
- Sullivan, M. J., Bishop, S. R., & Pivik, J. (1995). The pain catastrophizing scale: development and validation. *Psychological assessment*, *7*(*4*), 524.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2000). Using multivariate statistics. New York, NY: Allyn & Bacon.
- Tanaka, T. (2001). The identity formation of the victim of shunning. *School Psychology International*, 22, 463–476.
- Tavris, C. (1984). On the wisdom of counting to ten. Personal and social dangers of anger expression. *Review of Personality and Social Psychology*, *5*, 170–191.
- Temple, S., & Robson, P. (1991). The effect of assertiveness training on self-esteem. British Journal of Occupational Therapy, 54, 329–332.
- Thomas, A., Chess, S., Birch, H. G., Hertzig, M. E., & Korn, S. (1963). Behavioral Individuality in early childhood. New York: New York University Press. In Sanson, A., Hemphill, S. A., & Smart, D. (2004). Connections between temperament and social development: A review. *Social Development*, *13*(1), 142-170.
- Thomas, A. & Chess, S. (1977). Temperament and development. New York: Bruner/Mazel. In Sanson, A., Hemphill, S. A., & Smart, D. (2004). Connections between temperament and social development: A review. *Social Development*, *13*(1), 142-170.
- Thompson, R. A. (1994). Emotion regulation: a theme in search of definition.

 Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 59, 24–52.
- Thorndike, R. M. (1997). *Measurement and evaluation in psychology and education* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Trapnell, P. D., & Campbell, J. D. (1999). Private self-consciousness and the five-factor model of personality: Distinguishing rumination from reflection. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76, 284–304.
- Triandis, H. C. (1986). Collectivism vs. individualism: A reconceptualization of a basic concept in cross-cultural psychology, pp. 47-89 in Bagley, C., and Verma, G. Personality, cognition and values. London: Macmillan.
- Trower, P., & Gilbert, P. (1989). New theoretical conceptions of social anxiety and social phobia. *Clinical Psychology Review (Special Issue: social phobia)*, *9*, 19-35.
- Turk, C. L., Heimberg, R. G, Orsillo, S. M., Holt, C. S., Gitow, A., Street, L. L., et al. (1998). An investigation of gender differences in social phobia. Journal of Anxiety Disorders, 12, 209–223.

- Turner, S. M., Beidel, D. C., Dancu, C. V., & Stanley, M. A. (1989). An empirically derived inventory to measure social fears and anxiety: The Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory. *Psychological Assessment*, 1, 35–40.
- Turner, S.M., Beidel, D. C., & Townsley R.M. (1992). Social phobia: a comparison of specific and generalized subtypes and avoidant personality disorder. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 101(2), 326-31.
- Tuvblad, C., Narusyte, J., Comasco, E., Andershed, H., Andershed, A. K., Colins, O. F., Fantis, A. C. & Nilsson, K. W. (2016). Physical and verbal aggressive behavior and COMT genotype: Sensitivity to the environment. *American journal of medical genetics*. Part B, Neuropsychiatric genetics: the official publication of the International Society of Psychiatric Genetics, 1-11.
- Twenge, J. M. (2001). Changes in women's assertiveness in response to status and roles: A cross-temporal meta-analysis, 1931–1993. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81, 133–145.
- Twenge, J. M., Campbell, W. K. (2002). Self-esteem and socioeconomic status: A metaanalytic review. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 6, 59–71.
- Van den Boom, D. C. (1994). The influence of temperament and mothering on attachment and exploration: An experimental manipulation of sensitive responsiveness among lower-class mothers with irritable infants. *Child Development*, 65, 1457–1477.
- Vangberg, H. C. B., Eisemann, M., Waterloo, K., Richter, J., Rozsa, S., & Cloninger, C. R. (2013). The Norwegian Junior Temperament and Character Inventory (JTCI): An assessment of its psychometric properties. *Comprehensive psychiatry*, *54*(7), 904-910.
- Varjas, K., Meyers, J., & Hunt, M. H. (2006). Student Survey of Bullying Behavior Revised 2 (SSBB-R2). Atlanta: Georgia State University, Center for Research on School Safety, School Climate and Classroom Management.
- Verlaan, P., & Schwartzman, A. E. (2002). Mother's and father's parental adjustment: Links to externalizing behavior problems in sons and daughters. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 26, 214–224.
- Vernberg, E. M., Abwender, D. A., Ewell, K. K., & Beery, S. H. (1992). Social anxiety and peer relationships in early adolescents: A prospective analysis. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 21, 189-196.
- Viding, E., Simmonds, E., Petrides, K. V., & Frederickson, N. (2009). The contribution of callous-unemotional traits and conduct problems to bullying in early adolescence. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 50, 471–481.
- Vuchinich, S., Vuchinich, R., & Coughlin, C. (1992). Family talk and parent-child relationships: Toward integrating deductive and inductive paradigms. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, *38*, 69-93.
- Wahl, K. & Metzner, C. (2012). Parental Influences on the Prevalence and Development of Child Aggressiveness. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 21, 344–355.
- Wason, K.D., Polonsky, M.J., & Hyman, M.R. (2002). Designing vignette studies in marketing. *Australasian Marketing Journal*, 10, 41-58.

- Watkins, E. (2008). Constructive and unconstructive repetitive thought. *Psychological Bulletin*, 134, 163–206.
- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Carey, G. (1988). Positive and negative affectivity and their relation to anxiety and depressive disorders. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 97, 346-353.
- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *54*, 1063-1070.
- Weber, H., Wiedig, M., Freyer, J. & Gralher, J. (2004). Social Anxiety and Anger Regulation. *European Journal of Personality*, 18, 573–590.
- Webster, G. D., DeWall, C. N., Pond, R. S., Deckman, T., Jonason, P. K., Le, B. M., Nichols, A.L., Shember, T.O., Crysel, L.C., Crosier, B.S. & Smith, C. V. (2014). The brief aggression questionnaire: Psychometric and behavioral evidence for an fficient measure of trait aggression. *Aggressive behavior*, 40(2), 120-139.
- Weinman, B., Gelbart, P., Wallace, M., & Post, M. (1972). Inducing assertive behavior in chronic schizophrenics: A comparison of socioenvironmental, desensitization, and relaxation therapies. *Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 39, 246-252.
- Weist, D. M., and Ollendick, T. H. (1991). Toward empirically valid target selection. The case of Assertiveness in children. *Behavior modification*, 5(2), 213-227.
- Weitlauf, J. C., Smith, R. E., & Cervone, D. (2000). Generalization effects of coping-skills training: influence of self-defense training on women's efficacy beliefs, assertiveness, and aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(4), 625.
- Wenar, C., & Kerig, P. (2000). Developmental psychopathology: From infancy through adolescence (4th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Wentzel, K. R. (1999). Social-motivational processes and interpersonal relationships: Implications for understanding students' academic success. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *91*, 76–97.
- Wenzlaff, R. M., & Wegner, D. M. (2000). Thought suppression. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 51, 59–91.
- Whaley, S. E., Pinto, A., & Sigman, M. (1999). Characterizing interactions between anxious mothers and their children. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 67, 826-836.
- Widom, C. S. (1989). Child abuse, neglect, and adult behavior. *American journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 59(3), 355-367.
- Wiggins, J. S., & Pincus, A. L. (1989). Conceptions of personality disorders and dimensions of personality. *Psychological Assessment: A Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 1, 305-316.
- Wilson, K., & Gallois, C. (1993). Assertion and its social context. Elmsford, NY: Pergamon Press. In Ames, D. R., & Flynn, F. J. (2007). What breaks a leader: the curvilinear relation between assertiveness and leadership. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 92(2), 307.

- Wise, K. L., Bundy, K. A., Bundy, E. A., & Wise, L. A. (1991). Social skills training for young adolescents. *Adolescence*, 26 (101), 233-241.
- Wolpe, J. (1951). *Psychotherapy by Reciprocal Inhibition*. Stanford University Press, Stanford, California. In Orenstein, H., Orenstein, E. and Carr, J. N. (1975). Assertiveness and anxiety: a correlational study. Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry, 6, 203-207.
- Wolpe, J. (1973). *The Practice of Behavior Therapy*. Pergamon Press, New York. In Orenstein, H., Orenstein, E. and Carr, J. N. (1975). Assertiveness and anxiety: a correlational study. *Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry*, 6, 203-207.
- Wolpe, J., & Lazarus, A. A. (1966). *Behavior therapy techniques*. New York: Pergamon Press.
- Wood, J. J., McLeod, B. D., Sigman, M., Wei-Chin, H., & Chu, B. C. (2003). Parenting and childhood anxiety: Theory, empirical findings, and future directions. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, and Allied Disciplines*, 44, 134–151.
- Wood, R., & Michelson, L. (1978). Assessment of assertive behavior in elementary school children. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association for the Advancement of Behavior Therapy, Chicago.
- Zakahi, W.R. (1985). The relationship of assertiveness to communication competence and communication satisfaction: A dyadic assessment. *Communication Research Reports*, 2(i), 36-40.
- Zeidner, M. (1994). Personal and contextual determinants of coping and anxiety in an evaluative situation: a prospective study. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 16, 899–918.
- Zeman, J., Cassano, M., Perry-Parrish, C., & Stegall, S. (2006). Emotion regulation in children and adolescents. *Journal of Developmental & Behavioral Pediatrics*, 27(2), 155-168.
- Zeman, J., Shipman, K., & Suveg, C. (2002). Anger and sadness regulation: Predictions to internalizing and externalizing symptoms in children. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, 31(3), 393-398.
- Zeman, J., Shipman, K., & Penza-Clyve, S. (2001). Development and initial validation of the Children's Sadness Management Scale. *Journal of Nonverbal Behavior*, 25, 540–547.
- Zuckerman, M., & Cloninger, C. R. (1996). Relationships between Cloninger's, Zuckerman's, and Eysenck's dimensions of personality. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 21, 283–285.

APPENDIX A INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARENTS





Αγαπητή/ε κυρία/ε,

Στα πλαίσια ερευνητικού προγράμματος του Τμήματος Ψυχολογίας του Πανεπιστημίου Κύπρου, το σχολείο του παιδιού σας έχει επιλεγεί τυχαία να συμμετάσχει σε έρευνα που αφορά στη μελέτη των κοινωνικών συμπεριφορών των παιδιών. Στόχος είναι ο καθορισμός των παραγόντων που καθιστούν τα παιδιά πιο αποτελεσματικά κοινωνικά αλλά και στον εντοπισμό μεθόδων ανάπτυξης των κοινωνικών δεξιοτήτων, οι οποίες μπορούν να προάγουν τη μαθησιακή διαδικασία και να αποτελέσουν παράγοντα πρόληψης της ανάπτυξης ψυχολογικών δυσκολιών στα παιδιά. Η συμβολή σας, με τη συμμετοχή εσάς και του παιδιού σας θα είναι πολύ σημαντική για την επίτευξη των πιο πάνω στόχων.

Η συμμετοχή σας στην έρευνα δεν εγκυμονεί οποιοδήποτε κίνδυνο για εσάς ή το παιδί σας και πρόσβαση στα δεδομένα της έρευνας θα έχουν μόνο οι επιστήμονες μέλη της ερευνητικής ομάδας. Όλα τα δεδομένα θα διατηρούνται ανώνυμα. Το όφελος από μια τέτοια έρευνα θα είναι η παραγωγή νέας γνώσης για την προαγωγή της κοινωνικής, γνωστικής και συναισθηματικής ανάπτυξης των παιδιών. Η έρευνα θα γίνει σε μαθητές της πέμπτης και έκτης δημοτικού καθώς και μαθητές Γυμνασίου και τους γονείς τους. Στα παιδιά θα δοθεί ένα σύνολο ερωτηματολογίων τα οποία έχουν περάσει από την έγκριση του Υπουργείου Παιδείας και Πολιτισμού. Η συμπλήρωση τους θα γίνει στα σχολεία. Η συμπλήρωση των ερωτηματολογίων θα γίνει σε 2 φάσεις. Η πρώτη φάση θα γίνει εντός των ημερών και η δεύτερη σε 6 μήνες περίπου με τη συμπλήρωση των ίδιων ερωτηματολόγιων, μόνο από τα παιδιά, για σκοπούς μελέτης των εξελικτικών αλλαγών που συμβαίνουν. Στους γονείς αποστέλλεται ο παρών φάκελος <u>με δυο σετ</u> ερωτηματολογίων, έναν για κάθε γονέα, και ένα έντυπο συγκατάθεσης. Ο κάθε γονέας θα πρέπει να συμπληρώσει το ερωτηματολόγιο ανεξάρτητα χωρίς να επηρεαστεί από τον άλλον. Η έρευνα αυτή είναι ΕΜΠΙΣΤΕΥΤΙΚΗ και φροντίζουμε πάντα για τη διασφάλιση των προσωπικών δεδομένων των παιδιών καθώς και των δικών σας. Τονίζουμε ότι για τη σωστή διεξαγωγή της έρευνας χρειαζόμαστε τη συμβολή και των δύο γονιών με την επιστροφή συμπληρωμένων και των δύο ερωτηματολογίων.

Είμαστε πάντα στη διάθεσή σας για οποιαδήποτε ερώτηση θα επιθυμούσατε να μας υποβάλετε ως προς τους στόχους και το περιεχόμενο της έρευνας επικοινωνώντας με την κ Αγγελική Ανδρέου (email: agkeliki.andreou@gmail.com, τηλ. 99697009). Παρακαλούμε λοιπόν, όπως επιτρέψετε στο παιδί σας να συμμετέχει στην έρευνα ΑΝΩΝΥΜΑ με τη συμπλήρωση της συγκατάθεσης στο κάτω μέρος της επιστολής. Σας παρακαλούμε επίσης όπως συμπληρώσετε τα ερωτηματολόγια που αφορούν στους γονείς και τα αποστείλετε με το παιδί σας σε κλειστό φάκελο στο σχολείο. Σε περίπτωση που δεν επιθυμείτε να συμμετάσχετε στην έρευνα παρακαλούμε όπως και πάλι επιστρέψετε το φάκελο με τα ασυμπλήρωτα ερωτηματολόγια πίσω στο σχολείο μέσω του παιδιού σας εντός μιας βδομάδας. Στηριζόμαστε στην ευαισθησία σας για το πιο πάνω θέμα και ευελπιστούμε στη θετική σας ανταπόκριση.

Σας ευχαριστούμε, εκ των προτέρων, για τη συνεργασία.			
aRaun			
Με εκτίμηση,			
Δρ. Γεωργία Παναγιώτου Αγγελική Ανδρέου	Δρ.	Κώστας	Φάντης

Αν. Καθηγήτρια Κλινική Ψυχολογίας Επίκουρος Καθηγητής Αναπτυξιακής Ψυχολογίας Υπ. Διδάκτωρ Ψυχολογίας
Τμήμα Ψυχολογίας, Παν. Κύπρου Τμήμα Ψυχολογίας, Παν. Κύπρου Τμήμα Ψυχολογίας, Παν. Κύπρου Ονοματεπώνυμο

Ονοματεπώνυμ	0							
Παιδιού:								
Τάξη και σχοί	λείο στο	χ						
οποία φοιτά								
ή								•
Ονοματεπώνυμ	o							
Πατέρα:								
Υπογραφή:				Ημερομ	ιηνία:			
ή								
Ονοματεπώνυμ	o							
Μητέρας:								
Υπογραφή:				Ημερομ	ιηνία:			
ή								
Ονοματεπώνυμ	O 0	έχων τη						
γονική μέριμνο	ı):							
Υπογραφή:					Ημερομηνί	α:		
Επιθυμώ να ενη	<u>μερωθώ</u>	για τα αποτε	ελέσματα τη	ις έρευνας			NAI	OXI
Επιθυμώ το πο	πδί μου	να συμμετ	έχει μελλον	ντικές φάσ	σεις της έρε	ευνας αν	NAI	OXI
vocinotci (An ex	musooA	ώ σνετικά κα	yı Au EnthAs	i Eavá n é	rkojan nom)	-		

Τα στοιχεία επικοινωνίας σας θα φυλαχθούν με ασφάλεια και θα χρησιμοποιηθούν αποκλειστικά για την ενημέρωση σας για τα αποτελέσματα της έρευνας, σε περίπτωση που το έχετε δηλώσει πιο πάνω ή για να καλέσουμε το παιδί σας να συμμετέχει σε κάποια άλλη φάση της έρευνας, αν εσείς το επιθυμείτε.

Τηλέφωνο γονέα ή κηδεμόνα: Ταχυδρομική Διεύθυνση:

Ηλεκτρονική Διεύθυνση (Email)

APPENDIX B QUESTIONAIRES FOR CHILDREN

ΔΟΚΙΜΙΟ ΑΞΙΟΛΟΓΗΣΗΣ ΠΑΙΔΙΩΝ

	0	1	2	3	4	(5)	6	7	8	9		
	0	1	2	3	4	(5)	6	7	8	9		
	0	1	2	3	4	(5)	6	7	8	9		
	0	1	2	3	4	(5)	6	7	8	9		
απαντήσει απαντήσει σωστή και που θα ήτ	ια από τις 1 ων α και β. ις για κάθε τ ι λάθος απά αν σωστό ν Χ πάνω στ	Κυκλώσ περίπτω ιντηση. Ι α κάνεις	ττε μια α ιση. Προ Κύκλωσ ς. Σημεία	πάντηση σπάθησ ε αυτό π	η από το τε να είσα του θα έκ	κάθε ζεύ αι όσο πι ανες σε	ιγος α ή β ο ειλικριν μια τέτοια	3, δήλωσε είς μπορε α περίπτω	ε δηλαδή είς, δεν ι υση και ά	υπάρχει όχι αυτό		
1. Παίζεις ένα παιχνίδι με κάποιον φίλο σου. Προσπαθείς πολύ αλλά συνεχώς κάνεις λάθη. Ο												
α. Π	φίλος σου αρχίζει να σε πειράζει και να σε χαρακτηρίζει με διάφορα επίθετα. Τι κάνεις; α. Παρατώ το παιχνίδι και πάω σπίτι. ή β. Δίνω μια μπουνιά στο παιδί που με πειράζει περισσότερο.											
α. Παρατώ το παιχνίδι και πάω σπίτι ή β. Του λέω να σταματήσει επειδή ούτε σε αυτόν θα άρεσε αν του έκανα το ίδιο.												
έκανα το	α. Του λέω να σταματήσει επειδή ούτε σε αυτόν θα άρεσε αν του έκανα το ίδιο. ή β. Δίνω μια μπουνιά στο παιδί που με πειράζει περισσότερο											
	και ένας φί <i>ι</i> ίς σου όμω									ιστασία, ο		
α. Και β. Ζητ	γονείς σου όμως ρίχνουν το φταίξιμο σε σένα και σε τιμωρούν. Τι θα έκανες; α. Καθαρίζω την ακαταστασία. ή β. Ζητώ από το φίλο μου να με βοηθήσει να καθαρίσω την ακαταστασία											
	θαρίζω την α σύμαι να μι				ή ; γονείς μ	ιου την ε	πόμενη	(α	β		
ακαταστ	ο από το φίλ ασία. ή ύμαι να μιλι	-			-	-	·όμενη	(χ) (β)		

3. Ενα πρωι πριν από το μαθημα, ενα φιλός ερχεται κοντά σου και σε ρωτό αντιγράψει την κατ' οίκον εργασία. Σου λέει ότι αν δεν του δώσεις τις από σε όλους ότι είσαι πολύ κακός/ή. Τι θα έκανες;	•
α. Του δίνω τις απαντήσεις. ή	\cap
β. Του λέω τα κάνει μόνος του.	(α) (β) ()
α Του δίνω τις απαντήσεις. ή	\bigcirc
β. Του λέω ότι θα πω σε όλους ότι είναι απατεώνας.	α) (B)
α. Του λέω να τα κάνει μόνος του. ή	$\cap \cap \cap$
β. Του λέω ότι θα πω σε όλους ότι είναι απατεώνας.	(a) (B)
4. Στέκεσαι στην ουρά για ένα νερό. Ένα παιδί της ηλικίας σου και του μεγ προς τα πάνω σου και σε σπρώχνει έξω από τη γραμμή. Τι θα έκανες; α. Του λέω «Δεν έχεις κανένα δικαίωμα να το κάνεις αυτό». ή	έθους σου περπατό
	\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc
β. Σπρώχνω το παιδί πίσω εκτός γραμμής.	
α. Θα πήγαινα στο τέλος της γραμμής. ή	\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc
β. Σπρώχνω το □αιδί πίσω εκτός γραμμής.	
α. Θα πήγαινα στο τέλος της γραμμής. ή	
β. Του λέω «Δεν έχεις κανένα δικαίωμα να το κάνεις αυτό».	
5. Δανείζεις σε ένα φίλο το αγαπημένο σου βιβλίο. Μερικές μέρες αργότερο μερικές από τις σελίδες είναι σχισμένες και το εξώφυλλό είναι λερωμένο εκτός σχήματος. Τι θα έκανες; α. Το αγνοώ. ή	• •
β. Ρωτώ τον φίλο μου, «Πως έγινε;»	(α)(β)()
α. Ρωτώ τον φίλο μου, «Πως έγινε;». ή β. Αποκαλώ το παιδί διάφορα επίθετα.	(α) (β)
α. Το αγνοώ. ή β. Αποκαλώ το παιδί διάφορα επίθετα.	α (β
6. Βγαίνεις από το σχολείο. Ένα παιδί που είναι μικρότερο και νεαρότερο α πετά μια μπάλα ακριβώς πάνω στο κεφάλι. Τι θα έκανες;	ιπό ότι εσύ είσαι σο
α. Το αγνοώ. ή β. Ξυλοφορτώνω το παιδί	α (β
α. Λέω στο παιδί ότι το να την πετάς στο κεφάλι κάποιου είναι πολύ επικίνδυνο. ή β. Ξυλοφορτώνω το παιδί.	(α) (β)
α. Το αγνοώ. ή β. Λέω στο παιδί ότι το να την πετάς στο κεφάλι κάποιου είναι πολύ	α β

7. Βλέπεις κάποια παιδιά να παίζουν ένα παιχνίδι. Περπατάς προς τα πάν μπορείς να συμμετέχεις και εσύ. Σου λένε ότι δεν μπορείς να παίξεις μα είσαι αρκετά καλός/η. Τι θα έκανες;	
α. Φεύγω, νιώθοντας πληγωμένος/η. ή β. Παρεμβαίνω στο παιχνίδι τους, έτσι ώστε να μην είναι σε θέση να παίξουν.	α (β)
α. Φεύγω, νιώθοντας πληγωμένος/η. ή β. Τους ζητώ να μου δώσουν μια ευκαιρία.	α β
α. Τους ζητώ να μου δώσουν μια ευκαιρία. ή β. Παρεμβαίνω στο παιχνίδι τους, έτσι ώστε να μην είναι σε θέση να παίξουν.	(α) (β)
8. Παρακολουθείς ένα πραγματικά ωραίο σώου στην τηλεόραση. Στη μέση σου, σου λένε ότι είναι ώρα για ύπνο και σβήνουν την τηλεόραση. Τι θα	
α. Υπόσχομαι να πάω για ύπνο νωρίς αύριο βράδυ αν με αφήσουν να μείνω ξύπνιος/α αργά σήμερα. ή β. Ουρλιάζω σε αυτούς «Δεν θέλω».	(a) (b)
α. Ξεκινώ να κλαίω. ή β. Ουρλιάζω σε αυτούς «Δεν θέλω».	α (β)
α. Ξεκινώ να κλαίω. ή β. Υπόσχομαι να πάω για ύπνο νωρίς αύριο βράδυ αν με αφήσουν να μείνω ξύπνιος/α αργά σήμερα.	α β
9. Τρως το σάντουιτς σου στο διάλειμμα. Ο φίλος σου έχει μια μεγάλη τσάν σοκολάτες για επιδόρπιο. Ρωτάς αν μπορείς να έχεις μόνο μια, όμως ο τι θα έκανες;	
α. Προσφέρομαι να ανταλλάξω κάτι δικό μου για τη σοκολάτα. ή β. Αποκαλώ το παιδί κακό και εγωιστή.	(a) (b)
α. Το ξεχνώ και συνεχίζω να τρώω το σάντουιτς μου. ήβ. Προσφέρομαι να ανταλλάξω κάτι δικό μου για τη σοκολάτα.	α β
α. Το ξεχνώ και συνεχίζω να τρώω το σάντουιτς μου. ή β. Αποκαλώ το παιδί κακό και εγωιστή.	α) β
10. Ένα παιδί στην τάξη σου καυχιέται ότι είναι πολύ πιο έξυπνο από σένα. στα σίγουρα ότι το παιδί έχει λάθος και ότι στην πραγματικά εσύ είσαι εξ έκανες;	
α. Εισηγούμαι να ρωτήσουμε ο ένας τον άλλο ερωτήσεις να δούμε ποιος είναι ο πιο έξυπνος/η. ή β. Λέω στο παιδί να κλείσει το στόμα του.	(α) (β)
α. Αγνοώ το παιδί και φεύγω. ή β. Λέω στο παιδί να κλείσει το στόμα του.	αβ
α. Αγνοώ το παιδί και φεύγω. ή β. Εισηγούμαι να ρωτήσουμε ο ένας τον άλλο ερωτήσεις να δούμε ποιος είναι ο πιο έξυπνος/η.	α β <u></u>

α. Εξασκούμαι, ούτως ώστε να κερδίσω την επόμενη φορά. ή	
β. Λέω στο παιδί ότι με εξαπάτησε.	(α) (β
α. Πάω σπίτι και κλαίω. ή	\bigcirc
β. Λέω στο παιδί ότι με εξαπάτησε.	α) (β
α. Πάω σπίτι και κλαίω. ή	
β. Εξασκούμαι, ύτως ώστε να κερδίσω την επόμενη φορά.	(a) (B) (
12. Ένας από τους γονείς σου κάνει κάτι που πραγματικά σε ενοχλεί. Το ξέ αλλά αγνοεί το πώς νιώθεις και συνεχίζει να το κάνεις έτσι κι αλλιώς. Τι	
α. Προσπαθώ να το αγνοήσω. ή β. Του λέω ότι με ενοχλεί.	α β
α. Προσπαθώ να το αγνοήσω. ή β. Τον εκδικούμαι με το να κάνω κάτι που τον ενοχλεί.	α (β
α. Του λέω ότι με ενοχλεί. ή β. Τον εκδικούμαι με το να κάνω κάτι που τον ενοχλεί.	(α) (β
13. Παίζεις με ένα φίλο/η στο σπίτι σου και κάνετε πολλή φασαρία. Οι γονε θυμώνουν και αρχίζουν να σου φωνάζουν για την τόση φασαρία. Τι θα	
α. Τους λέω «Συγνώμη, αλλά δεν μπορώ να παίζω το παιχνίδι χωρίς να κάνω φασαρία». ή β. Αγνοώ τις φωνές τους και συνεχίζω να κάνω φασαρία.	(α) (β
α. Βρίσκω κάτι άλλο να κάνω. ή β. Τους λέω «Συγνώμη, αλλά δεν μπορώ να παίζω το παιχνίδι χωρίς να κάνω φασαρία».	α β
α. Βρίσκω κάτι άλλο να κάνω. ή β. Αγνοώ τις φωνές τους και συνεχίζω να κάνω φασαρία.	α (β

11. Εσύ και ένα άλλο παιδί παίζεται ένα παιχνίδι. Ο νικητής/τρια του παιχνιδιού θα κερδίζει ένα ωραίο βραβείο. Προσπαθείς πολύ σκληρά, αλλά χάνεις μόνο για ένα πόντο. Τι θα έκανες;

Παρακαλώ απάντησε αυτές τις ερωτήσεις σημειώνοντας NAI ή ΟΧΙ. Μην αφήσεις καμία δήλωσr
αβαθμολόγητη. Σημείωσε την απάντηση σου μαυρίζοντας τον κύκλο 🌑 ή βάζοντας 🛽 πάνω
στον κύκλο 🔯

		NAI	OXI
1.	Όταν συναντήσεις για πρώτη φορά κάποιο άτομο της ηλικίας σου, αρχίζεις να του μιλάς;	0	0
2.	Όταν κάποιο άτομο της ηλικίας σου, σου πει ότι είσαι όμορφος/η, διαφωνείς μαζί του;	0	0
3.	Όταν κάποιο άτομο της ηλικίας σου, σου πει ότι κάνεις καλή δουλειά, συμφωνείς μαζί του;	0	0
4.	Όταν ένα άτομο της ηλικίας σου, σου πει ότι θέλει να παίξει ένα παιχνίδι αλλά εσύ δεν έχεις διάθεση, παίζεις μαζί του έτσι κι αλλιώς;	0	0
5.	Όταν θυμώσεις με κάποιο άτομο της ηλικίας σου, του το λες;	0	0
6.	Όταν ένα άτομο της ηλικίας σου, σο□ ζητά να δανειστεί κάτι ξεχωριστό για σένα και εσύ προτιμάς να μην το δανείσεις, το δανείζεις έτσι κι αλλιώς;	0	0
7.	Όταν σου αρέσει κάποιο άτομο της ηλικίας σου, του το λες;	0	0
8.	Όταν κάποιο άτομο της ηλικίας σου μπαίνει μπροστά σου στην γραμμή, □ου λες να πάει στο τέλος της γραμμής;	0	0
9.	Όταν κάποιο άτομο της ηλικίας σου κάνει κάτι καλά, του το λες;	0	0
10.	Όταν κάποιο άτομο της ηλικίας σου παίρνει κάτι δικό σου, το αφήνεις να το πάρει έτσι κι αλλιώς;	0	0
11.	Όταν κάποιο άτομο της ηλικίας σο□, σου ζητά να κάνεις πολλά πράγματα και εσύ έχεις κουραστεί να τα κάνεις, συνεχίζεις να τα κάνεις έτσι κι αλλιώς;	0	0
12.	Όταν κάποιο άτομο της ηλικίας σου, σου συμπεριφέρεται με άδικο τρόπο, δεν κάνεις θέμα και ούτε του λες πως νιώθεις;	0	0
13.	Όταν κάνει κάτι καλό, το λες σε κάποιο άτομο της ηλικίας σου;	0	0
14.	Όταν κάνεις κάτι λάθος προς κάποιο άτομο της δικής σου ηλικίας και το φταίξιμο είναι δικό σου, ζητάς συγνώμη.	0	0

	Ποτέ	Σπάνια	Μερικές φορές	Συχνά	Πάντα
1. Νιώθω αγχωμένος/η όταν βρίσκομαι σε μια κοινωνική κατάσταση και γίνομαι το επίκεντρο της προσοχής	1	2	3	4	(5)
 Νιώθω αγχωμένος/η όταν βρίσκομαι σε μια κοινωνική κατάσταση και αναμένεται με περιμένουν να εμπλακώ σε μια δραστηριότητα 	1	2	3	4	(5)
3. Νιώθω άγχος όταν κάνω μια ομιλία μπροστά σε κοινό.	1	2	3	4	(5)
 Νιώθω αγχωμένος/η όταν βρίσκομαι σε μια συνάντηση μιας μικρής παρέας με άλλους ανθρώπους 	1	2	3	4	(5)
5. Νιώθω αγχωμένος/η όταν βρίσκομαι σε μια συνάντηση μιας μεγάλης παρέας με άλλους ανθρώπους	1	2	3	4	(5)
6. Νιώθω αγχωμένος/η και δεν ξέρω τι να κάνω όταν βρίσκομαι σε μια κατάσταση που πρέπει να έρθω αντιμέτωπος/η με κάποιον	1	2	3	4	(5)
7. Νιώθω αγχωμένος/η όταν συζητώ προσωπικά συναισθήματα με άλλους	1	2	3	4	(5)
8. Νιώθω αγχωμένος/αγχωμένη όταν λέω την άποψη μου σε άλλους	1	2	3	4	(5)
9. Νιώθω αγχωμένος/η όταν μιλώ για τα πράγματα που κάνω γενικώς σε άλλους	1	2	3	4	(5)
 Νιώθω αγχωμένος/η όταν πλησιάζω ή/και ξεκινώ μια συζήτηση με άλλους ανθρώπους 	1	2	3	4	(5)
11. Νιώθω αγχωμένος/η όταν μου εξασκούν κριτική ή με απορρίπτουν	1	2	3	4	(5)
12. Προσπαθώ να αποφεύγω κοινωνικές καταστάσεις	1	2	3	4	(5)
13. Νιώθω αγχωμένος/η πριν μπω σε μια κοινωνική κατάσταση	1	2	3	4	(5)
14. Η φωνή μου αλλάζει η την χάνω εντελώς όταν μιλώ σε μια κοινωνική κατάσταση	1	2	3	4	(5)
15. Έχω σκέψεις ανησυχίας όταν βρίσκομαι σε μια κοινωνική κατάσταση και σκέφτομαι τα εξής:	1	2	3	4	(5)
 Αν τα κάνω θάλασσα πάλι πραγματικά θα χάσω την αυτοπεποίθηση μου 	1	2	3	4	(5)
• Τι εντύπωση δίνω;	1	2	3	4	(5)
 Οτιδήποτε και αν πω το πιο πιθανό είναι ότι θα ακουστεί ηλίθιο 	1	2	3	4	(5)

16. Νιώθω τα πιο κάτω όταν βρίσκομαι σε μια κοινωνική κατάσταση:	1	2	3	4	(5)
• Ιδρώνω	1	2	3	4	(5)
• Κοκκινίζω	1	2	3	4	(5)
• Τρέμω	1	2	3	4	(5)
• Νιώθω συχνά την ανάγκη να ουρήσω	1	2	3	4	(5)
Νιώθω την καρδιά μου να χτυπά γρήγορα	1	2	3	4	(5)

Οι ερωτήσεις στις επόμενες σελίδες αφορούν στο πώς αισθάνεσαι για τον τρόπο με τον οποίο σου συμπεριφέρονται οι γονείς σου. Αυτή η συμπεριφορά είναι διαφορετική για κάθε παιδί. Αυτός είναι ο λόγος για τον οποίο θέλουμε να σου ζητήσουμε να απαντήσετε σε όλες αυτές τις ερωτήσεις για τον εαυτό σου. Καμία απάντηση δεν είναι λανθασμένη. Αυτό δεν είναι σχολικό διαγώνισμα. Συνήθως, ξέρεις πολύ καλά ποιοι είναι οι κανόνες και οι συνήθειες στο σπίτι σου και πώς εσύ και η οικογένειά σου λειτουργείτε. Προσπάθησε να δώσεις την καλύτερη απάντηση στα ερωτήματα με τη βοήθεια των γεγονότων που θυμάσαι. Αυτό που είναι σημαντικό είναι αυτό που αισθάνεσαι για τα πράγματα, και όχι ότι άλλοι άνθρωποι σκέφτονται γι' αυτά. Θα πρέπει να δώσεις μία απάντηση σε κάθε ερώτηση.

Σημείωσε την απάντηση σου μαυρίζοντας τον κύκλο 🛡 ή βάζοντας Χ πάνω στον κύκλο

×	}		Όχι, ποτέ	Ναι, μερικές φορές	Ναι, συχνά	Ναι, σχεδόν πάντοτε
	1.	Έτυχε οι γονείς μου να είναι σκληροί ή θυμωμένοι μαζί μου χωρίς να μου πουν το λόγο	1	2	3	4
	2.	Οι γονείς μου με επαινούν, μου λένε μπράβο	1	2	3	4
	3.	Έτυχε να ευχηθώ οι γονείς μου να ανησυχούσαν λιγότερο για το τι κάνω	1	2	3	4
	4.	Έτυχε οι γονείς μου να μου δώσουν περισσότερη σωματική τιμωρία από ότι μου άξιζε	1	2	3	4
	5.	Όταν επιστρέφω σπίτι πρέπει να λογοδοτήσω, στους γονείς μου, για το τι έκανα	1	2	3	4
	6.	Πιστεύω ότι οι γονείς μου προσπάθησαν να κάνουν την εφηβεία και τα παιδικά μου χρόνια πιο ενδιαφέροντα και διδακτικά (για παράδειγμα με το να μου δίνουν καλά βιβλία, να διευθετούν να πηγαίνω σε κατασκηνώσεις ή άλλα οργανωμένα σύνολα).	1	2	3	4
	7.	Οι γονείς μου, μου εξασκούν κριτική και μου λένε πόσο τεμπέλης/α και άχρηστος/η είμαι μπροστά σε άλλους.	1	2	3	4
	8.	Έτυχε οι γονείς μου να μου απαγορεύσουν να κάνω πράγματα τα οποία επιτρέπονταν σε άλλα παιδιά επειδή φοβόντουσαν ότι κάτι μπορεί να μου συμβεί.	1	2	3	4

Έτυχε οι γονείς μου να μου δημιουργήσουν αισθήματα ενοχής όταν ήταν λυπημένοι επειδή συμπεριφέρθηκα λάθος.	1	2	3	4
Πιστεύω ότι το άγχος των γονιών μου για το ότι κάτι μπορεί να μου συμβεί είναι υπερβολικό.	1	2	3	4
Οι γονείς μου προσπάθησαν να με παρηγορήσουν και να με ενθαρρύνουν όταν τα πράγματα δεν πήγαιναν καλά για μένα.	1	2	3	4
Οι γονείς μου με μεταχειρίστηκαν ως το «μαύρο πρόβατο» ως κάτι ξεχωριστό από την υπόλοιπη οικογένεια.	1	2	3	4
Οι γονείς μου, μου έδειξαν με λόγια και με χειρονομίες ότι με αγαπούν.	1	2	3	4
Ένιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου προτιμούσαν τα αδέλφια μου περισσότερο από εμένα.	1	2	3	4
Οι γονείς μου με μεταχειρίστηκαν με τέτοιο τρόπο που ένιωσα ντροπή.	1	2	3	4
Είχα το δικαίωμα να πάω όπου θέλω χωρίς οι γονείς μου να δείχνουν ιδιαίτερο ενδιαφέρον.	1	2	3	4
Ένιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου επενέβαιναν σε ότι έκανα.	1	2	3	4
Ένιωσα ότι υπήρχε ζεστασιά και τρυφερότητα μεταξύ μου και των γονιών μου.	1	2	3	4
Οι γονείς μου έβαζαν ξεκάθαρα όρια για το τι διακαιόμουν να κάνω και τι όχι και τα ακολουθούσαν αυστηρά.	1	2	3	4
Οι γονείς μου με τιμώρησαν σκληρά, ακόμα και για μικροπράγματα και μικροπαραπτώματα.	1	2	3	4
Οι γονείς μου θέλουν να αποφασίζουν για το πώς πρέπει να ντύνομαι και να φαίνομαι.	1	2	3	4
Ένιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου ήταν περήφανοι όταν πετύχαινα σε κάτι που αναλάμβανα.	1	2	3	4
	αισθήματα ενοχής όταν ήταν λυπημένοι επειδή συμπεριφέρθηκα λάθος. Πιστεύω ότι το άγχος των γονιών μου για το ότι κάτι μπορεί να μου συμβεί είναι υπερβολικό. Οι γονείς μου προσπάθησαν να με παρηγορήσουν και να με ενθαρρύνουν όταν τα πράγματα δεν πήγαιναν καλά για μένα. Οι γονείς μου με μεταχειρίστηκαν ως το «μαύρο πρόβατο» ως κάτι ξεχωριστό από την υπόλοιπη οικογένεια. Οι γονείς μου, μου έδειξαν με λόγια και με χειρονομίες ότι με αγαπούν. Ένιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου προτιμούσαν τα αδέλφια μου περισσότερο από εμένα. Οι γονείς μου με μεταχειρίστηκαν με τέτοιο τρόπο που ένιωσα ντροπή. Είχα το δικαίωμα να πάω όπου θέλω χωρίς οι γονείς μου να δείχνουν ιδιαίτερο ενδιαφέρον. Ένιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου επενέβαιναν σε ότι έκανα. Ένιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου και των γονιών μου. Οι γονείς μου έβαζαν ξεκάθαρα όρια για το τι διακαιόμουν να κάνω και τι όχι και τα ακολουθούσαν αυστηρά. Οι γονείς μου με τιμώρησαν σκληρά, ακόμα και για μικροπράγματα και μικροπαραπτώματα. Οι γονείς μου θέλουν να αποφασίζουν για το πώς πρέπει να ντύνομαι και να φαίνομαι.	αισθήματα ενοχής όταν ήταν λυπημένοι επειδή συμπεριφέρθηκα λάθος. Πιστεύω ότι το άγχος των γονιών μου για το ότι κάτι μπορεί να μου συμβεί είναι υπερβολικό. Οι γονείς μου προσπάθησαν να με παρηγορήσουν και να με ενθαρρύνουν όταν τα πράγματα δεν πήγαιναν καλά για μένα. Οι γονείς μου με μεταχειρίστηκαν ως το «μαύρο πρόβατο» ως κάτι ξεχωριστό από την υπόλοιπη οικογένεια. Οι γονείς μου, μου έδειξαν με λόγια και με χειρονομίες ότι με αγαπούν. Ένιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου προτιμούσαν τα αδέλφια μου περισσότερο από εμένα. Οι γονείς μου με μεταχειρίστηκαν με τέτοιο τρόπο που ένιωσα ντροπή. Είχα το δικαίωμα να πάω όπου θέλω χωρίς οι γονείς μου να δείχνουν ιδιαίτερο ενδιαφέρον. Ένιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου επενέβαιναν σε ότι έκανα. Ένιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου και των γονιών μου. Οι γονείς μου έβαζαν ξεκάθαρα όρια για το τι διακαιόμουν να κάνω και τι όχι και τα ακολουθούσαν αυστηρά. Οι γονείς μου με τιμώρησαν σκληρά, ακόμα και για μικροπράγματα και μικροπαραπτώματα. Οι γονείς μου θέλουν να αποφασίζουν για το πώς πρέπει να ντύνομαι και να φαίνομαι. Ένιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου ήταν περήφανοι	αισθήματα ενοχής όταν ήταν λυπημένοι επειδή συμπεριφέρθηκα λάθος. Πιστεύω ότι το άγχος των γονιών μου για το ότι κάτι μπορεί να μου συμβεί είναι υπερβολικό. Οι γονείς μου προσπάθησαν να με παρηγορήσουν και να με ενθαρρύνουν όταν τα πράγματα δεν πήγαιναν καλά για μένα. Οι γονείς μου με μεταχειρίστηκαν ως το «μαύρο πρόβατο» ως κάτι ξεχωριστό από την υπόλοιπη οικογένεια. Οι γονείς μου, μου έδειξαν με λόγια και με χειρονομίες ότι με αγαπούν. Ένιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου προτιμούσαν τα αδέλφια μου περισσότερο από εμένα. Οι γονείς μου με μεταχειρίστηκαν με τέτοιο τρόπο που ένιωσα ντροπή. Είχα το δικαίωμα να πάω όπου θέλω χωρίς οι γονείς μου να δείχνουν ιδιαίτερο ενδιαφέρον. Ένιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου επενέβαιναν σε ότι έκανα. Ένιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου επενέβαιναν σε ότι έκανα. Ένιωσα ότι υπήρχε ζεστασιά και τρυφερότητα μεταξύ μου και των γονιών μου. Οι γονείς μου ξβαζαν ξεκάθαρα όρια για το τι διακαιόμουν να κάνω και τι όχι και τα ακολουθούσαν αυστηρά. Οι γονείς μου με τιμώρησαν σκληρά, ακόμα και για μικροπράγματα και μικροπράγματα και μικροπράγματα και μικροπαραπτώματα. Οι γονείς μου θέλουν να αποφασίζουν για το πώς πρέπει να ντύνομαι και να φαίνομαι. Ένιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου ήταν περήφανοι	αισθήματα ενοχής όταν ήταν λύπημένοι επειδή συμπεριφέρθηκα λάθος. Πιστεύω ότι το άγχος των γονιών μου για το ότι κάτι μπορεί να μου συμβεί είναι υπερβολικό. Οι γονείς μου προσπάθησαν να με παρηγορήσουν και να με ενθαρρύνουν όταν τα πράγματα δεν πήγαιναν καλά για μένα. Οι γονείς μου με μεταχειρίστηκαν ως το «μαύρο πρόβατο» ως κάτι ξεχωριστό από την υπόλοιπη οικογένεια. Οι γονείς μου, μου έδειξαν με λόγια και με χειρονομίες ότι με αγαπούν. Ενιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου προτιμούσαν τα αδέλφια μου περισσότερο από εμένα. Οι γονείς μου με μεταχειρίστηκαν με τέτοιο τρόπο που ένιωσα ντροπή. Είχα το δικαίωμα να πάω όπου θέλω χωρίς οι γονείς μου να δείχνουν ιδιαίτερο ενδιαφέρον. Ενιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου επενέβαιναν σε ότι έκανα. Ένιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου επενέβαιναν σε ότι έκανα. Το γονείς μου έβαζαν ξεκάθαρα όρια για το τι διακαιόμουν να κάνω και τι όχι και τα ακολουθούσαν αυστηρά. Οι γονείς μου με τιμώρησαν σκληρά, ακόμα και για μικροπράγματα και μικροπαραπτώματα. Οι γονείς μου θέλουν να αποφασίζουν για το πώς πρέπει να ντύνομαι και να φαίνομαι. Ενιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου θέλουν να αποφασίζουν για το πώς πρέπει να ντύνομαι και να φαίνομαι. Ενιωσα ότι οι γονείς μου ήταν περήφανοι

Αυτό το ερωτηματολόγιο περιέχει δηλώσεις τις οποίες, διαφορετικοί άνθρωποι θα μπορούσαν να χρησιμοποιήσουν για να περιγράψουν τον εαυτό τους. Για κάθε δήλωση, σημείωσε την επιλογή που σε περιγράφει καλύτερα. Δεν υπάρχουν σωστές ή λάθος απαντήσεις. Απλά επίλεξε την απάντηση που σε περιγράφει καλύτερα. Παρακαλούμε συμπλήρωσε γρήγορα το ερωτηματολόγιο και μην ξοδεύεις πάρα πολύ χρόνο σε οποιαδήποτε πρόταση. Σημείωσε μόνο μία απάντηση σε κάθε πρόταση.

Σημείωσε την απάντηση σου μαυρίζοντας τον κύκλο lacktriangled ή βάζοντας X πάνω στον κύκλο

	Αλήθεια	Κάπως αλήθεια	Κάπως λάθος	Λάθος
1. Είμαι αισιόδοξος/η τον περισσότερο καιρό	1	2	3	4
2. Είναι σημαντικό για εμένα το πώς αισθάνονται οι άλλοι	1	2	3	4

3.	Συχνά ενεργώ για τις άμεσες ανάγκες μου	1	2	3	4
4.	Δεν έχω καμία έντονη επιθυμία να πέσω με αλεξίπτωτο από αεροπλάνο	1	2	3	4
5.	Συχνά δεν παρευρίσκομαι εκεί που υπόσχομαι ότι θα πάω	1	2	3	4
6.	Θα απολάμβανα να ήμουν σε ένα υψηλής ταχύτητας κυνηγητό με το αυτοκίνητο	1	2	3	4
7.	Έχω καλές στρατηγικές για να αντιμετωπίσω το άγχος	1	2	3	4
8.	Δε με πειράζει αν κάποιος που δε συμπαθώ πληγωθεί	1	2	3	4
9.	Οι βιαστικές μου αποφάσεις μου έχουν δημιουργήσει προβλήματα με τα άτομα που αγαπώ	1	2	3	4
10	. Φοβάμαι εύκολα	1	2	3	4
	. Δείχνω συμπόνια για τα προβλήματα των άλλων	1	2	3	4
12	. Μερικές φορές, έχω λείψει από το σχολείο μου ή το μάθημα και δεν μπήκα στον κόπο να τους ενημερώσω	1	2	3	4
13	. Είμαι γεννημένος/η ηγέτης	1	2	3	4
14	. Απολαμβάνω ένα καλό σωματικό καβγά	1	2	3	4
15	. Ορμάω σε καταστάσεις χωρίς να το σκεφτώ	1	2	3	4
16	. Δυσκολεύομαι να κάνω τα πράγματα να εξελιχθούν με τον τρόπο που θέλω	1	2	3	4
17	. Ανταποδίδω τις προσβολές	1	2	3	4
	. Αντιμετώπισα πρόβλημα διότι απουσίαζα αρκετές φορές από το σχολείο	1	2	3	4
19	. Έχω το ταλέντο στο να επηρεάζω τους ανθρώπους	1	2	3	4
20	. Δε με ενοχλεί να βλέπω κάποιον άλλο να πονά	1	2	3	4
	. Έχω καλό αυτοέλεγχο	1	2	3	4
22	. Λειτουργώ καλά σε νέες καταστάσεις, ακόμη και αν είμαι απροετοίμαστος/η	1	2	3	4
	. Μου αρέσει μερικές φορές να υποδεικνύω στους άλλους ανθρώπους τι να κάνουν	1	2	3	4
24	. Έχω πάρει χρήματα από τη τσάντα ή το πορτοφόλι κάποιου χωρίς να ρωτήσω	1	2	3	4
25	. Δε θεωρώ τον εαυτό μου ταλαντούχο	1	2	3	4
26	. Χλευάζω τους άλλους μόνο για να ταράξω τα πράγματα	1	2	3	4
27	. Οι άνθρωποι συχνά εκμεταλλεύονται την εμπιστοσύνη μου	1	2	3	4
28	. Φοβάμαι πολύ λιγότερα πράγματα από ό, τι οι περισσότεροι άνθρωποι	1	2	3	4
29	. Δε βρίσκω κάποιο καλό λόγο στο να ανησυχώ αν κάποιος πληγωθεί από αυτό που κάνω	1	2	3	4
30	. Τηρώ τα ραντεβού που δίνω	1	2	3	4
	. Συχνά βαριέμαι γρήγορα και χάνω το ενδιαφέρον	1	2	3	4
20	μου		\circ	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
32	. Μπορώ να ξεπεράσω πράγματα, τα οποία θα τραυμάτιζαν ψυχολογικά κάποιους άλλους	1	2	3	4

33	. Είμαι ευαίσθητος/η στα συναισθήματα των άλλων	1	2	3	4
34	. Εξαπάτησα ανθρώπους για να πάρω χρήματα από αυτούς	1	2	3	4
35	. Με ανησυχεί να εμπλακώ σε μια άγνωστη κατάσταση χωρίς να γνωρίζω όλες τις λεπτομέρειες για αυτήν	1	2	3	4
	. Δεν έχω πολύ συμπόνια για τους ανθρώπους	1	2	3	4
37	΄. Μερικές φορές, βρίσκω τον μπελά μου γιατί δε λαμβάνω υπόψη μου τις συνέπειες των πράξεών μου	1	2	3	4
38	. Μπορώ να πείσω τους ανθρώπους να κάνουν ό, τι θέλω	1	2	3	4
	. Για μένα, πράγματι, η τιμιότητα είναι η καλύτερη πολιτική	1	2	3	4
40	. Έχω τραυματίσει ανθρώπους για να τους δω να πονούν	1	2	3	4
	. Δεν μου αρέσει να αναλαμβάνω ηγετικό ρόλο σε ομάδες	1	2	3	4
42	. Κάποιες φορές προσβάλλω τους ανθρώπους σκόπιμα για να δω την αντίδρασή τους	1	2	3	4
43	ε. Έχω πάρει πράγματα από κατάστημα χωρίς να τα πληρώσω	1	2	3	4
44	. Είναι εύκολο να με φέρουν σε αμηχανία	1	2	3	4
45	. Τα πράγματα είναι πιο διασκεδαστικά όταν υπάρχει και λίγος κίνδυνος	1	2	3	4
46	. Δυσκολεύομαι να περιμένω υπομονετικά για πράγματα που θέλω	1	2	3	4
47	. Μένω μακριά από φυσικούς κινδύνους όσο περισσότερο μπορώ	1	2	3	4
48	. Δε με νοιάζει πολύ, αν αυτό που κάνω βλάπτει τους άλλους	1	2	3	4
	. Έχω χάσει φίλο, λόγω των ανεύθυνων πραγμάτων που έχω κάνει	1	2	3	4
	. Δε θεωρώ τον εαυτό μου τόσο ικανό/ή, όσο οι περισσότεροι άνθρωποι	1	2	3	4
	. Κάποιοι μου έχουν εκφράσει την ανησυχία τους για την έλλειψη αυτοελέγχου μου	1	2	3	4
52	. Είναι εύκολο για μένα να κατανοώ και να ανταποκρίνομαι στα συναισθήματα των άλλων ανθρώπων	1	2	3	4
53	. Έχω κλέψει κάποιον	1	2	3	4
54	. Δεν ανησυχώ ποτέ για το αν θα φανώ ανόητος μπροστά στους άλλους	1	2	3	4
	. Δεν με ενοχλεί όταν οι άνθρωποι γύρω μου πονάνε	1	2	3	4
56	. Έχω προβλήματα στο σχολείο γιατί είμαι ανεύθυνος/η	1	2	3	4
57	. Δεν είμαι πολύ καλός/ή στο να επηρεάζω τους ανθρώπους	1	2	3	4
58	. Έχω κλέψει κάτι μέσα από ένα όχημα	1	2	3	4

Σημείωσε την απάντηση σου μαυρίζοντας τον κύκλο ή βάζοντας Χ πάνω στον κύκλο του αριθμού που περιγράφει καλύτερα τη συμπεριφορά σου. Απάντησε την κάθε ερώτηση όσο καλύτερα μπορείς.

	Ποτέ	Μερικές Φορές	Συχνά	Πολύ Συχνά
΄ Απουσιάζω από το σχολείο χωρίς λόγο	0	1	2	3
2 Μένω έξω το βράδυ ενώ δε μου επιτρέπεται	0	1	2	3
΄ Λέω ψέματα για να γίνεται το δικό μου και για να αποφεύγω να κάνω πράγματα	0	1	2	3
· Απειλώ να κάνω κακό σε άλλους	0	1	2	3
ł Αρχίζω καυγάδες	0	1	2	3
Φεύγω κρυφά από το σπίτι κατά τη διάρκεια της νύχτας	0	1	2	3
Παίρνω πράγματα ενώ οι άλλοι δεν κοιτούν	0	1	2	3
Καταστρέφω τα πράγματα ή την περιουσία των άλλων	0	1	2	3
! Βάζω φωτιές	0	1	2	3
· Εξαναγκάζω άλλα άτομα να μου δίνουν τα λεφτά τους ή άλλα αντικείμενα	0	1	2	3
΄ Παραβιάζω ή μπαίνω παράνομα σε σπίτια, κτίρια ή αυτοκίνητα	0	1	2	3
΄ Χρησιμοποιώ κάποιο αντικείμενο όταν καυγαδίζω (π.χ ρόπαλο, μπουκάλι, μαχαίρι κτλ)	0	1	2	3
΄ Προσπαθώ να κάνω κακό σε ζώα	0	1	2	3
΄ Προσπαθώ να τραυματίσω σωματικά άλλα άτομα	0	1	2	3

Οι επόμενες ερωτήσεις έχουν να κάνουν με τις σχέσεις σου με άλλα άτομα. Σημείωσε Χ στον κύκλο με τον αριθμό που εκφράζει το τι ισχύει στην περίπτωση σου.

Σημείωσε την απάντηση σου μαυρίζοντας τον κύκλο 🌑 ή βάζοντας Χ πάνω στον κύκλο 🔀

	Καθόλου αλήθεια	Λίγο αλήθεια	Αρκετά αλήθεια	Σίγουρα αλήθεια
[·] Αισθάνομαι κοντά στους ανθρώπους του σχολείου μου	0	1	2	3
:Αισθάνομαι πως είμαι μέλος του σχολείου μου	0	1	2	3
:Αισθάνομαι ευτυχισμένος/η που είμαι σε αυτό το σχολείο	0	1	2	3
Οι δάσκαλοι στο σχολείο μου συμπεριφέρονται δίκαια στους μαθητές	0	1	2	3
!Αισθάνομαι ασφαλής στο σχολείο μου	0	1	2	3
(Αισθάνομαι πως οι δάσκαλοι μου νοιάζονται για μένα	0	1	2	3

Οι επόμενες ερωτήσεις έχουν να κάνουν με τη συμπεριφορά άλλων παιδιών προς εσένα. Σημείωσε την απάντηση σου μαυρίζοντας τον κύκλο ή βάζοντας Χ πάνω στον κύκλο στον αριθμό που εκφράζει το τι ισχύει στην περίπτωση σου.

Πόσο συχνά ΑΛΛΑ παιδιά που είναι μεγαλύτερα σε ηλικία, πιο μεγαλόσωμα, πιο δημοφιλή, ή πιο δυνατά από σένα σε πειράζουν με το να	Ποτέ	Μία ή δύο φορές το χρόνο	Μία φορά το μήνα	Μία φορά την εβδομάδα	Σχεδόν κάθε μέρα
1. σε χτυπάνε ή να σε κλωτσάνε	0	1	2	3	4
2. σε σπρώχνουν	0	1	2	3	4
3. λένε άσχημα λόγια για σένα	0	1	2	3	4
4. λένε ψεύτικες ιστορίες για σένα	0	1	2	3	4
5. σε απειλούν ότι θα σου κάνουν κακό	0	1	2	3	4
6. σου παίρνουν τα πράγματα σου	0	1	2	3	4
7. σε πειράζουν	0	1	2	3	4
8. σε αγνοούν	0	1	2	3	4
9. προσπαθούν να κάνουν τους φίλους σου να στραφούν εναντίον σου	0	1	2	3	4
10. σε αποφεύγουν	0	1	2	3	4
11 σε κοροϊδεύουν κάνοντας γκριμάτσες	0	1	2	3	4
12. σε φωνάζουν με διάφορα προσβλητικά επίθετα	0	1	2	3	4

Διάβασε κάθε μια από τις ακόλουθες δηλώσεις και αποφάσισε αν συμφωνείς ή αν διαφωνείς και σε ποιο βαθμό. Εάν Συμφωνείς Απόλυτα, μαύρισε τον κύκλο που αντιστοιχεί. Εάν Διαφωνείς Απόλυτα, μαύρισε τον κύκλο που αντιστοιχεί. Εάν αισθάνεσαι ότι είσαι κάπου στη μέση, μαύρισε τον κύκλο που αντιστοιχεί στην απάντηση που περιγράφει καλύτερα το πώς αισθάνεσαι. Εάν δεν είσαι σίγουρος/η ή δεν γνωρίζεις, μαύρισε τον αντίστοιχο κύκλο.

Σημείωσε την απάντηση σου μαυρίζοντας τον κύκλο 🌑 ή βάζοντας Χ πάνω στον κύκλο 🔀

		Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	Διαφωνώ	Ούτε συμφωνώ ούτε διαφωνώ	Συμφωνώ	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
1.	Συχνά σκέφτομαι την εγκατάλειψη του σχολείου	1	2	3	4	(5)
2.	Σκοπεύω να εγκαταλείψω το σχολείο	1	2	3	4	(5)
3.	Κάποιες φορές δεν νιώθω σίγουρος/η με το να συνεχίσω το σχολείο μου χρόνο με το χρόνο	1	2	3	4	(5)

 Θα ήθελα να έχω περισσότερους φίλους 	1	2	3	4	(5)
 Είμαι δημοφιλής με άλλα άτομα της ηλικίας μου 	1	2	3	4	(5)
 Πάντα κάνω πράγματα με πολλούς συνομήλικους μου 	1	2	3	4	(5)
 Εύχομαι να με συμπαθούσαν πιο πολλά παιδιά της ηλικίας μου 	1	2	3	4	(5)
^{5.} Έχω πολλούς φίλους	1	2	3	4	(5)
6. Μου είναι δύσκολο να κάνω φίλους	1	2	3	4	5

Ευχαριστούμε πολύ για τη συμμετοχή σου!

APPENDIX C QUESTIONAIRES FOR PARENTS

ΔΟΚΙΜΙΟ ΑΞΙΟΛΟΓΗΣΗΣ ΓΙΑ ΓΟΝΕΙΣ

Αριθμός Συμμετέχοντα

Πολύ καλή

0	1	2	3	4	(5)	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	(5)	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	(5)	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	(5)	6	7	8	9

Δημογραφικά στοιχεία – Μέρος Α

Σας παρακαλούμε να συμπληρώσετε το ερωτηματολόγιο αυτό που περιέχει στοιχεία για το παιδί και την οικογένεια σας. Υπάρχουν ερωτήσεις που απαιτούν περιγραφική απάντηση και άλλες που απαντώνται σημειώνοντας Χ στο αντίστοιχο κυκλάκι. Τα στοιχεία που θα μας δώσετε θα παραμείνουν εμπιστευτικά.

Οι πιο κάτω απαντήσει δίνονται από: Ο Μητέρα ο Πατέρα 4. Τόπος διαμονής 1. Πόσων χρονών είστε; Πόλη 2. Μορφωτικό επίπεδο Χωριό (1) Δεν τελείωσα το Δημοτικό **(0)** (1) 5. Επαρχία διαμονής Απόφοιτος Δημοτικού 0 2 Απόφοιτος Γυμνασίου Λευκωσία (1) 3 Απόφοιτος Λυκείου Λεμεσός (2) 4 Απόφοιτος Πανεπιστημίου Πάφος (3) (5) Κάτοχος Μεταπτυχιακού Τίτλου Λάρνακα **(4**) Κάτοχος Διδακτορικού Τίτλου **(6)** Αμμόχωστος 3. Ποια είναι η οικονομική κατάσταση της οικογένειας σας; 6. Πόσα παιδιά έχετε; ____ (1) Πολύ κακή (2) 7. Εθνικότητα Αρκετά κακή (3) Κυπριακή Κακή Άλλη (παρακαλώ σημειώστε πιο **4**) Μέτρια κάτω) (5) Καλή **(6)** Αρκετά καλή (7)

Παρακαλώ συμπληρώστε τα πιο κάτω στοιχεία που αφορούν <u>το παιδί σας που</u> συμμετέχει στην έρευνα:

1. Πόσων χρονών είναι το παιδί;		7. Παίρνει κάποια φάρμακα σε συστηματική βάση;	
		NAI	0
2. Ποιο είναι το φύλο του παιδιού σας (για το οποίο συμπληρώνετε το ερωτηματολόγιο);		OXI	0
Αγόρι	1	Αν ναι συμπληρώστε το είδος φαρμάκου και το λόγο που το παίρνει:	
Κορίτσι	2	_	
•	O	8. Έχει επαναλάβει κάποια τάξη;	
3. Σειρά γέννησης του στην οικογένεια		NAI	0
Πρώτο	1	OXI	0
		Αν ναι, ποια τάξη;	
	2	Για ποιους λόγους;	
Δεύτερο			
Τρίτο	3	9. Περίπου πόσους στενούς	
Τέταρτο ή άλλη	4	φίλους έχει;	
		Κανένα	1
4. Σε ποια τάξη πάει το παιδί σας;		1	2
Δημοτικό		2-3	3
Γυμνάσιο		4 ή περισσότερους	4
5. Τρέχουσα οικογενειακή κατάσταση		10. Το παιδί σας παρουσιάζει δυσκολία	
Οι γονείς ζουν μαζί	0	Στην ανάγνωση	1
Διαζευγμένοι/ Σε διάσταση	1	Στο γραπτό λόγο	2
Ζει με τον ένα γονέα	2	Στα μαθηματικά	3
Δε ζει με τους φυσικούς του γονείς	3		
	C	11. Βρίσκεται σε ειδική αγωγή, πρόγραμμα ενισχυτικής διδασκαλίας;	
6. Έχει κάποιο πρόβλημα υγείας ή κάποια αναπηρία (ψυχική, νοητική ή σωματική);		NAI	0
ΝΑΙ	0	OXI	0
OXI	(Αν ναι περιγράψτε:	Ŭ
	(0)		

Παρακάτω υπάρχει ένας κατάλογος με ενέργειες των γονιών σε σχέση με τη συμπεριφορά των παιδιών τους. Γενικά, πόσο συχνά κάνετε εσείς τα παρακάτω όταν το παιδί σας συμπεριφέρεται ανάρμοστα ή φρόνιμα. Σημειώστε την απάντηση σας μαυρίζοντας τον κύκλο ή βάζοντας Χ πάνω στον κύκλο

1. Όταν το παιδί μου κάνει αταξίες προσέχω τη
συμπεριφορά του αλλά δεν κάνω τίποτε.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Συχνά

(άποτε

- 2. Όταν το παιδί μου κάνει αταξίες υψώνω τον τόνο της φωνής μου (το μαλώνω ή φωνάζω.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 3. Όταν το παιδί μου κάνει αταξίες το βάζω να διορθώσει το πρόβλημα ή να επανορθώσει το λάθος του.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 4. Όταν το παιδί μου κάνει αταξίες απειλώ ότι θα το τιμωρήσω (αλλά στην πραγματικότητα δεν το τιμωρώ).
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 5. Όταν το παιδί μου κάνει αταξίες του επιβάλλω προσωρινά περιορισμό στο δωμάτιό του.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 6. Όταν το παιδί μου κάνει αταξίες του απαγορεύω τις εξόδους.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 7. Όταν το παιδί μου κάνει αταξίες του στερώ προνόμια (όπως το να δει τηλεόραση ή να παίξει με φίλους).
- 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 8. Όταν το παιδί μου κάνει αταξίες του δίνω ξύλο στον πισινό.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 9. Όταν το παιδί μου κάνει αταξίες το χαστουκίζω ή το χτυπώ (αλλά δεν του δίνω ξύλο στον πισινό).
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 10. Όταν το παιδί μου κάνει αταξίες του αναθέτω επιπλέον δουλειές.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 11. Όταν το παιδί μου κάνει αταξίες συζητώ το πρόβλημα μαζί του ή του κάνω ερωτήσεις.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 12. Αν ζητήσω από το παιδί μου να κάνει κάτι και δεν το κάνει, παραιτούμαι από το να προσπαθώ να το πείσω να το κάνει.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

- 13. Όταν προειδοποιώ το παιδί μου ότι θα το πειθαρχήσω αν δεν σταματήσει, τελικά του επιβάλλω την πειθαρχία αν συνεχίσει να συμπεριφέρεται ανάρμοστα.
- 14. Το παιδί μου τη γλιτώνει για πράγματα για τα οποία πιστεύω ότι θα έπρεπε να είχε πειθαρχηθεί.
- 15. Αν αποφάσιζα να τιμωρήσω το παιδί μου, θα μπορούσα να αλλάξω τη γνώμη μου με βάση τις εξηγήσεις, τις δικαιολογίες ή τα επιχειρήματά του.
- 16. Δείχνω θυμό όταν πειθαρχώ το παιδί μου.
- 17. Οι λογομαχίες με το παιδί μου κλιμακώνονται και καταλήγω να κάνω ή να λέω πράγματα που δεν εννοούσα.
- 18. Το παιδί μου καταφέρνει να ξεφεύγει από τους κανόνες που έχω θέσει.
- 19. Το είδος της τιμωρίας που επιβάλλω στο παιδί μου εξαρτάται από τη διάθεσή μου.
- 20. Όταν το παιδί μου είναι φρόνιμο ή τα καταφέρνει σε κάτι το προσέχω αλλά δεν κάνω τίποτε.
- 21. Όταν το παιδί μου είναι φρόνιμο ή τα καταφέρνει σε κάτι το επαινώ ή το εκθειάζω.
- 22. Όταν το παιδί μου είναι φρόνιμο ή τα καταφέρνει σε κάτι το αγκαλιάζω, το φιλώ, το χτυπώ ελαφρά στην πλάτη για να το συγχαρώ, ή το χαϊδεύω.
- 23. Όταν το παιδί μου είναι φρόνιμο ή τα καταφέρνει σε κάτι, του αγοράζω κάτι (όπως το αγαπημένο φαγητό, ένα μικρό παιχνίδι) ή του δίνω χρήματα για την καλή του συμπεριφορά.
- 24. Όταν το παιδί μου είναι φρόνιμο ή τα καταφέρνει σε κάτι, του παρέχω ένα επιπλέον προνόμιο (όπως γλυκό, κινηματογράφο, μια δραστηριότητα που του αρέσει) για την καλή του συμπεριφορά.
- 25. Όταν το παιδί μου είναι φρόνιμο ή τα καταφέρνει σε κάτι του δίνω βαθμούς ή αστεράκια.
- 26. Όταν το παιδί μου είναι φρόνιμο ή τα καταφέρνει σε κάτι δεν το προσέχω καν.



- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4

(5)

(6)

3

- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7
- (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Με τις παρακάτω ερωτήσεις σας ζητούμε να αναφέρετε οτιδήποτε γενικά πιστεύετε ότι σκέφτεται το παιδί σας στις πιο κάτω περιπτώσεις. Σημειώστε την απάντηση σας μαυρίζοντας τον κύκλο \bigcirc ή βάζοντας X πάνω στον κύκλο \bigotimes

		Καθόλου αλήθεια	Λίγο αλήθεια	Αρκετά αλήθεια	Σίγουρα αλήθεια
Κατην 1. λάθη	γορεί τους άλλους για τα δικά του/της	0	1	2	3
2. Κάνει	κάτι χωρίς να σκέφτεται τις συνέπειες	0	1	2	3
2	υναισθήματα του/της φαίνονται ανειακά και όχι ειλικρινή	0	1	2	3
4	φανεύεται καλά για τις ικανότητες, τα ύγματα ή τα υπάρχοντα του/της.	0	1	2	3
_{5.} Βαριέ	ται εύκολα	0	1	2	3
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	τιμοποιεί ή εξαπατά άλλα άτομα για να ι αυτό που θέλει.	0	1	2	3
7. Πειρό	ιζει ή κοροϊδεύει άλλα άτομα.	0	1	2	3
O .	έκεται σε ριψοκίνδυνες και επικίνδυνες τηριότητες.	0	1	2	3
9 και με	κές φορές συμπεριφέρεται καλότροπα ε γοητεία, αλλά με επιφανειακό και ικρινή τρόπο.	0	1	2	3
Θυμά 10. τιμωρ	ύνει όταν τον/την διορθώνουν ή ρούν.	0	1	2	3
11. και πι	εται να σκέφτεται ότι είναι καλύτερος/η ιο σημαντικός/η από τους άλλους ώπους.	0	1	2	3
40	ει τα πράγματα που πρέπει να κάνει την τελευταία στιγμή.	0	1	2	3

Σε αυτό το ερωτηματολόγιο θα βρείτε προτάσεις που άνθρωποι μπορεί να χρησιμοποιήσουν για να περιγράψουν τις συμπεριφορές, απόψεις, ενδιαφέροντα και άλλα προσωπικά συναισθήματα. Κάθε πρόταση μπορεί να απαντηθεί με ΣΩΣΤΟ ή ΛΑΘΟΣ. Διαβάστε τις προτάσεις και αποφασίστε ποια επιλογή ταιριάζει καλύτερα στο παιδί που περιγράφετε σε αυτό το ερωτηματολόγιο. Προσπαθήστε να περιγράψετε το άτομο όπως είναι ΣΥΝΗΘΩΣ ή δρα γενικά και νιώθει, όχι μόνο το πώς νιώθει τώρα. Διάβασε την κάθε πρόταση προσεκτικά, όμως μην σπαταλήσεις πολύ χρόνο για να αποφασίσεις την απάντηση. Παρακαλώ απαντήστε κάθε πρόταση, ακόμα και αν δεν είστε εντελώς σίγουροι για την απάντηση. Να θυμάστε δεν υπάρχουν σωστές και λάθος απαντήσεις. Σημειώστε την απάντηση σας μαυρίζοντας τον κύκλο βάζοντας Χ πάνω στον κύκλο

	Σωστό	Λάθος
 Το παιδί μου έχει λιγότερη ενέργεια και κουράζεται πιο γρήγορα από τα περισσότερα παιδιά. 	0	0
 Το παιδί μου συνήθως μπορεί ν' αποδέχεται τα άλλα παιδιά όπως είναι, ακόμα και αν είναι διαφορετικά από αυτό. 	0	0
3. Το παιδί μου χάνει την ψυχραιμία του πιο εύκολα από τα άλλα παιδιά.	0	0
 Το παιδί μου δε φαίνεται να καταλαβαίνει τα οφέλη του να βάζει στόχους. 	0	0
5. Το παιδί μου συνήθως προσπαθεί να κάνει το ίδιο σε κάποιον που τον έχει πληγώσει.	0	0
6. Το παιδί μου προσπαθεί πιο σκληρά από τα άλλα παιδιά στο σχολείο (ξοδεύει περισσότερο χρόνο στην κατ' οίκον εργασία του, στο να εξασκείται σε αθλήματα ή σ' ένα μουσικό όργανο, κλπ).	0	0
7. Το παιδί μου χρειάζεται ένα υπνάκο ή επιπλέον χρόνο ξεκούρασης, επειδή κουράζεται πιο εύκολα από άλλα παιδιά.	0	0
 Ακόμα και όταν το παιδί μου έχει πολλά λεφτά, προτιμά να τα φυλάξει παρά να τα ξοδέψει για τον εαυτό του. 	0	0
9. Το παιδί μου εύχεται να ήταν μεγαλύτερο και δεν αποδέχεται την ηλικία του.	0	0
 Το παιδί μου συνήθως βοηθά να βρεθούν λύσεις σε προβλήματα, ώστε όλοι να επωφεληθούν. 	0	0
11. Στο παιδί μου αρέσει να προγραμματίζεται πολύ, ακόμα και για συνηθισμένα πράγματα.	0	0
 Όταν το παιδί μου δοκιμάζει κάτι καινούργιο, συνήθως νιώθει πολλή νευρικότητα. 	0	0
13. Το παιδί μου κάνει μόνο ότι είναι αναγκαίο, παρόλο που είναι ικανό να τα καταφέρει πολύ καλύτερα.	0	0
14. Το παιδί μου εύχεται να ήταν εξυπνότερο από όλους τους άλλους.	0	0
 Το παιδί μου θα έκανε ακόμη και άσχημα πράγματα αν αυτό το έκανε πιο δημοφιλές. 	0	0

	16.	Το παιδί μου πιστεύει ότι γίνονται θαύματα.	0	0
	17.	Το παιδί μου φαίνεται να είναι ντροπαλό με καινούργιους ανθρώπους.	0	0
Π	18.	Το παιδί μου είναι ικανοποιημένο με τα επιτεύγματά του και έχει λίγη επιθυμία να τα πάει καλύτερα.	0	0
	19.	Το παιδί μου μερικές φορές νιώθει ότι μπορεί να προβλέψει το μέλλον.	0	0
	20.	Το παιδί μου σκέφτεται τα πράγματα πριν πάρει μια απόφαση.	0	0
	21.	Το παιδί μου πιστεύει ότι δεν χρειάζεται να είσαι ανέντιμος για να πετύχεις.	0	0
	22.	Το παιδί μου είναι πολύ ντροπαλό όταν συναντά καινούργιους συνομήλικους του.	0	0
	23.	Το παιδί μου εύχεται να ήταν πιο δυνατό από όλους τους άλλους.	0	0
	24.	Το παιδί μου πιστεύει ότι μπορεί να διαισθάνεται πράγματα	0	0
	25.	Το παιδί μου συνήθως δεν μοιράζεται τα συναισθήματά του με άλλους.	0	0
	26.	Το παιδί μου προτιμά να κάνει τις επιλογές του μόνο αφού έχει μελετήσει όλες τις εναλλακτικές.	0	0
	27.	Το παιδί μου δε φοβάται να δοκιμάσει ακόμη και την πιο τρομακτική κούρσα στο λούνα παρκ.	0	0
	28.	Παρακαλώ μαυρίστε το κυκλάκι που αντιστοιχεί στην απάντηση σωστό	0	0
	29.	Το παιδί μου είναι ευαίσθητο στα συναισθήματα των άλλων.	0	0
	30.	Το παιδί μου φαίνεται να έχει πνευματικές συνδέσεις με άλλους.	0	0
	31.	Το παιδί μου συχνά περιμένει από κάποιον άλλο να δώσει λύση στα προβλήματά του.	0	0
	32.	Το παιδί μου δεν θα ολοκληρώσει ένα έργο αν του παίρνει πολύ χρόνο.	0	0
	33.	Το παιδί μου συνήθως ακολουθεί τους κανόνες.	0	0
Π	34.	Το παιδί μου ανησυχεί περισσότερο από τους άλλους ότι θα συμβούν άσχημα πράγματα.	0	0
	35.	Στο παιδί μου αρέσει πραγματικά να βοηθά τους άλλους.	0	0
	36.	Το παιδί μου εύχεται να είναι πιο δυνατό από τα άλλα παιδιά.	0	0
	37.	Το παιδί μου προτιμά να μην ακολουθεί καθόλου κανόνες.	0	0
	38.	Νομίζω ότι το παιδί μου αναρρώνει πιο αργά από αρρώστια ή άγχος σε σχέση με άλλα παιδιά.	0	0

39.	Δε θα πείραζε το παιδί μου να είναι μόνο του όλη την ώρα.	0	0
40.	Το παιδί μου στεναχωριέται για πολλή ώρα όταν συμπεριφέρεται άσχημα σε άλλα παιδιά, ακόμη και αν αυτά ήταν κακά μαζί του.	0	0
41.	Το παιδί μου εύχεται να είχε ειδικές δυνάμεις όπως τον Σούπερμαν.	0	0
42.	Το παιδί μου είναι πολύ αυταρχικό.	0	0
43.	Το παιδί μου αισθάνεται χαλαρό όταν έχει να συναντήσει άλλους ανθρώπους.	0	0
44.	Το παιδί μου σκέφτεται τους άλλους, ακόμη και αυτούς που του συμπεριφέρθηκαν άσχημα στο παρελθόν.	0	0
45.	Το παιδί μου πιστεύει ότι πνευματικές δυνάμεις κατευθύνουν κάποιες φορές τη ζωή του.	0	0
46.	Το παιδί μου δεν ξέρει τι να κάνει όταν αντιμετωπίζει ένα πρόβλημα.	0	0
47.	Το παιδί μου συνήθως συνεννοείται με κάποιον άλλον προτού αρχίσει κάποια δραστηριότητα.	0	0
48.	Το παιδί μου δεν φαίνεται να επηρεάζεται συναισθηματικά από λυπημένα τραγούδια ή ταινίες.	0	0
49.	Το παιδί μου είναι πιο ενεργητικό και κουράζεται λιγότερο γρήγορα από τα περισσότερα παιδιά της ηλικίας του.	0	0
50.	Στο παιδί μου αρέσει να μοιράζεται με άλλα παιδιά όσα έμαθε.	0	0
51.	Το παιδί μου σπρώχνει τον εαυτό του στα άκρα όταν κυνηγά ένα στόχο.	0	0
52.	Το παιδί μου συνήθως μπορεί να λύσει τα περισσότερα προβλήματα και παζλς.	0	0
53.	Στο παιδί μου αρέσει να φυλάει λεφτά παρά να τα ξοδεύει.	0	0
54.	Το παιδί μου φαίνεται να μιλά για προσωπικά του θέματα με τους φίλους του.	0	0
55.	Το παιδί μου χρειάζεται πολύ ντάντεμα και επιβεβαίωση όταν είναι άρρωστο.	0	0
56.	Το παιδί μου καταλαβαίνει ότι μπορεί να μάθει και από άλλα παιδιά.	0	0
57.	Το παιδί μου είναι πιο υπεύθυνο σύγκριτικά με άλλα παιδιά.	0	0
58.	Το παιδί μου θέλει τα πράγματα να γίνονται με αυστηρό και δομημένο τρόπο.	0	0
59.	Παίρνει περισσότερο χρόνο στο παιδί μου να ξεπεράσει την ντροπή του για κάτι.	0	0
60.	Το παιδί μου αποφεύγει ακόμη και στενά του άτομα όταν είναι	0	0

αναστατωμένο.

6	1. Το παιδί μου είναι καλό στο να κρατά τις υποσχέσεις του.	0	0
62	2. Παρακαλώ μαύρισε το κυκλάκι που αντιστοιχεί στο λάθος	0	0
6	3. Το παιδί μου επιμένει ότι τα άλλα παιδιά κάνουν τα πράγματα με το δικό του τρόπο.	0	0
64	4. Το παιδί μου ονειροπολεί όλη την ώρα.	0	0
6	5. Είναι πιο εύκολο για το παιδί μου να κάνει καινούργια και διασκεδαστικά πράγματα όταν είναι κοντά του δικά του άτομα.	0	0
60	 Το παιδί μου σχεδόν πάντα παραμένει ήρεμο και ξέγνοιαστο ακόμα και αν τα περισσότερα παιδιά είναι φοβισμένα ή αναστατωμένα. 	0	0
6	7. Το παιδί μου δεν φαίνεται να επηρεάζεται συναισθηματικά από λυπημένα τραγούδια ή ταινίες.	0	0
68	 Το παιδί μου πιέζεται από καταστάσεις ή ανθρώπους να κάνει πράγματα ενάντια στη θέλησή του. 	0	0
69	9. Το παιδί μου σέβεται άλλα παιδιά που είναι διαφορετικά από το ίδιο.	0	0
70	 Το παιδί μου κάποιες φορές νιώθει ότι όλοι οι ζωντανοί οργανισμοί συνδέονται μεταξύ τους. 	0	0
7	 Το παιδί μου παίρνει αποφάσεις γρήγορα επειδή δεν του αρέσει να περιμένει. 	0	0
7:	2. Το παιδί μου δεν κατηγορεί άλλους ανθρώπους ή καταστάσεις για τις επιλογές του.	0	0
7:	3. Το παιδί μου ανησυχεί εκ των προτέρων πριν δοκιμάσει καινούργια πράγματα.	0	0
74	 Το παιδί μου δεν φαίνεται να καταλαβαίνει τα συναισθήματα των άλλων παιδιών. 	0	0
7:	5. Το παιδί μου θα σπάσει τους κανόνες αν θα τη γλιτώσει.	0	0
70	6. Το παιδί μου είναι τελειομανές.	0	0
7	7. Το παιδί μου δεν φαίνεται να κατανοεί τη σημαντικότητα του να βάζεις στόχους.	0	0
78	 Το παιδί μου καταλαβαίνει ότι όλοι κερδίζουν όταν ο ένας βοηθά τον άλλο. 	0	0
79	9. Το παιδί μου σπάνια ονειροπολεί.	0	0
80	 Το παιδί μου συχνά φοβάται να δοκιμάσει καινούργια πράγματα. 	0	0
8	 Το παιδί μου δεν φαίνεται να καταλαβαίνει γιατί πρέπει να εργαστεί για να γίνει καλύτερο. 	0	0

82.	Το παιδί μου αντιμετωπίζει όλους με ευγένεια και σεβασμό ανεξάρτητα από το πόσο σημαντικοί ή κακοί είναι.	0	С
83.	Στο παιδί μου δεν αρέσει να μένει μόνο όταν είναι αναστατωμένο.	0	С
84.	Το παιδί μου φαίνεται ότι έχει ένταση και νευρικότητα σε μη οικείες καταστάσεις.	0	C
85.	Το παιδί μου δυσκολεύεται να πει ψέμα ακόμη και αν αυτό θα βοηθούσε κάποιον να νιώσει καλύτερα.	0	C
86.	Το παιδί μου συνήθως περιμένει άλλα παιδιά να πάρουν πρωτοβουλία όταν χρειάζεται να γίνει κάτι.	0	С
87.	Το παιδί μου πιστεύει ότι μπορεί να διαισθάνεται πράγματα	0	С
88.	Το παιδί μου επανέρχεται εύκολα από ασήμαντες ασθένειες ή άγχος.	0	С
89.	Στο παιδί μου δεν αρέσει να ενοχλείται από τα προβλήματα των άλλων παιδιών.	Ο	С
90.	Το παιδί μου φαίνεται να επηρεάζεται συναισθηματικά από λυπημένα τραγούδια ή ταινίες.	0	С
91.	Φαίνεται ότι το παιδί μου θα μπορούσε να παίζει όλη μέρα και νύχτα χωρίς ξεκούραση.	0	С
92.	Όταν χρειάζεται μια γρήγορη απόφαση, το παιδί μου δυσκολεύεται περισσότερο από τα περισσότερα παιδιά.	0	C
93.	Το παιδί μου συνήθως επιλέγει να μη βοηθά άλλα παιδιά.	0	C
94.	Το παιδί μου είναι πολύ ντροπαλό όταν συναντά καινούργιους ενήλικες.	0	C
95.	Το παιδί μου κατανοεί ότι η εξάσκηση το βοηθά να γίνει πιο πετυχημένο.	0	C
96.	Είπα πολλά ψέματα σε αυτό το ερωτηματολόγιο.	0	C
97.	Φαίνεται ότι η δικαιοσύνη και η εντιμότητα έχουν λίγη σημασία σε κάποιες πτυχές της ζωής του παιδιού μου.	0	C
98.	Το παιδί μου είναι καλό στο να υπερβάλλει ή να παρατραβά την αλήθεια.	0	С
99.	Το παιδί μου δεν είναι καθόλου ντροπαλό με ξένους.	0	C
100	Το παιδί μου απολαμβάνει να βοηθά τους άλλους ακόμη και αν του συμπεριφέρονται άσχημα.	0	C
101	Το παιδί μου γενικά βάζει στόχους και τους ακολουθεί (κατάκτηση νέων δεξιοτήτων, καλοί βαθμοί, γνωριμία με νέους ανθρώπους).	0	C
102	Όταν το παιδί μου έχει να συναντήσει νέα πρόσωπα, ανησυχεί πολύ εκ των προτέρων.	0	С

103 Ακόμη και αν το παιδί μου γνωρίζει τους πιθανούς κινδύνους, εξακολουθεί να παίρνει ρίσκα.	0	0
104 Επειδή το παιδί μου δεν εξασκείται, δεν είναι τόσο επιτυχημένο όσο θα μπορούσε να είναι.	0	0
105 Στο παιδί μου δεν αρέσει να εμπιστεύεται κανένα.	0	0
106 Το παιδί μου φαίνεται να νιώθει τυχερό.	0	0
107 Το παιδί μου αναφέρει ότι έχει εμπειρίες σε σχέση με τη θρησκεία.	0	0
108 Το παιδί μου εύχεται να είχε την καλύτερη εμφάνιση στον κόσμο.	0	0

Οι επόμενες ερωτήσεις έχουν να κάνουν με τη συμπεριφορά και τα συναισθήματα του παιδιού σας. Σημείωσε X στον κύκλο με τον αριθμό που εκφράζει το τι ισχύει στην περίπτωσή του δικού σας παιδιού. ΠΡΟΣΟΧΗ στις αρνητικές ερωτήσεις (π.χ. «Δεν νοιάζεται πόσο καλά θα κάνει κάτι», σημειώνοντας X στον κύκλο με το 0 σημαίνει ότι νοιάζεται πόσο καλά θα κάνει κάτι).

			•			•	
			Καθόλου αλήθεια	Λίγο αλήθεια	Αρκετά αλήθεια	Σίγουρα αλήθεια	
П	1.	Εκφράζει εύκολα τα συναισθήματά του	0	1	2	3	
	2.	Δεν φαίνεται να ξεχωρίζει το «σωστό» από το «λάθος»	0	1	2	3	
	3.	Νοιάζεται για τη σχολική του εργασία	0	1	2	3	
	4.	Δεν το νοιάζει ποιον θα πληγώσει για να πάρει αυτό που θέλει	0	1	2	3	
	5.	Αισθάνεται άσχημα ή νιώθει ενοχές όταν κάνει κάτι που δεν είναι σωστό	0	1	2	3	
	6.	Δεν δείχνει τα συναισθήματά του	0	1	2	3	
П	7.	Δεν το νοιάζει αν είναι ή όχι στην ώρα του	0	1	2	3	
	8.	Ανησυχεί για τα συναισθήματα των άλλων	0	1	2	3	
П	9.	Δεν το νοιάζει αν βρει τον μπελά του	0	1	2	3	
	10.	Δεν αφήνει τα συναισθήματά του να το ελέγχουν	0	1	2	3	
	11.	Δεν το νοιάζει για το πόσο καλά κάνει κάτι	0	1	2	3	
	12.	Φαίνεται να είναι ψυχρό και να μην νοιάζεται για τους άλλους	0	1	2	3	
П	13.	Αναγνωρίζει εύκολα τα λάθη του	0	1	2	3	
	14.	Είναι εύκολο για τους άλλους να καταλάβουν πως αισθάνεται	0	1	2	3	
	15.	Πάντα κάνει ότι καλύτερο μπορεί	0	1	2	3	

	16.	Ζητά συγγνώμη ή απολογείται σε αυτούς που έβλαψε ή έκανε κάτι κακό	0	1	2	3
	17.	Προσπαθεί να μην πληγώνει τα συναισθήματα των άλλων	0	1	2	3
	18.	Δεν αισθάνεται μετανιωμένο όταν κάνει κάτι λάθος	0	1	2	3
П	19.	Είναι πολύ εκφραστικό και συναισθηματικό	0	1	2	3
	20.	Δεν του αρέσει να αφιερώνει χρόνο για να κάνει ότι καλύτερο μπορεί	0	1	2	3
	21.	Τα συναισθήματα των άλλων είναι ασήμαντα για αυτό	0	1	2	3
	22.	Κρύβει τα συναισθήματά του από τους άλλους	0	1	2	3
	23.	Δουλεύει σκληρά σε οτιδήποτε κάνει	0	1	2	3
	24.	Κάνει πράγματα για να νιώθουν οι άλλοι καλά	0	1	2	3

Το κάθε παιδί αντιμετωπίζει καθημερινά αρνητικά ή δυσάρεστα γεγονότα με το δικό του τρόπο. Αναφέρετε ό, τι γενικά πιστεύετε ότι σκέφτεται το παιδί σας, όταν βιώνει αρνητικά ή δυσάρεστα γεγονότα. Σημειώστε την απάντηση σας μαυρίζοντας τον κύκλο $\stackrel{\frown}{\boxtimes}$ ή βάζοντας $\stackrel{\frown}{\boxtimes}$ πάνω στον κύκλο $\stackrel{\frown}{\boxtimes}$

	Σχεδόν ποτέ	Μερικές φορές	Τακτικά	Συχνά	Σχεδόν πάντα
 Σκέφτεται ότι πρέπει να αποδεχτεί αυτό που συνέβηκε 	1	2	3	4	(5)
2. Συχνά σκέφτεται για το πώς νιώθει για αυτό που βίωσε	1	2	3	4	(5)
3. Σκέφτεται ότι μπορεί να μάθει κάτι μέσα από ένα γεγονός	1	2	3	4	(5)
4. Σκέφτεται ότι εκείνο είναι υπεύθυνο για αυτό που συνέβηκε	1	2	3	4	(5)
5. Σκέφτεται ότι πρέπει να αποδεχτεί την κατάσταση	1	2	3	4	(5)
6. Είναι απασχολημένο με αυτό που σκέφτεται και νιώθει για αυτό που βίωσε	1	2	3	4	(5)
 Σκέφτεται ευχάριστα πράγματα που δεν έχουν τίποτα να κάνουν με αυτόν/ή 	1	2	3	4	(5)
8. Σκέφτεται ότι μπορεί να γίνει πιο δυνατό άτομο ως αποτέλεσμα των όσων έχουν συμβεί	1	2	3	4	(5)
9. Σκέφτεται για το πόσο απαίσιο είναι αυτό που συνέβηκε	1	2	3	4	(5)
10. Νιώθει ότι οι άλλοι είναι υπεύθυνοι για ότι έχει συμβεί	1	2	3	4	(5)
11. Σκέφτεται κάτι ωραίο αντί για εκείνο που συνέβηκε	1	2	3	4	(5)

12. Σκέφτεται για το πώς να αλλάξει μια κατάσταση	1	2	3	4	(5)
13. Σκέφτεται ότι δεν ήταν πολύ άσχημα σε σχέση με άλλα πράγματα	1	2	3	4	(5)
14. Σκέφτεται ότι βασικά η αιτία πρέπει να οφείλεται στον εαυτό του	1	2	3	4	(5)
15. Σκέφτεται ένα πλάνο του τι είναι το καλύτερο να κάνει	1	2	3	4	(5)
16. Λέει στον εαυτό του ότι έχει και χειρότερα πράγματα στη ζωή	1	2	3	4	(5)
17. Συνεχώς σκέφτεται πόσο απαίσια ήταν η κατάσταση	1	2	3	4	(5)
18. Νιώθει ότι βασικά η αιτία οφείλεται σε άλλους	1	2	3	4	(5)

APPENDIX D

VIGNIETTES

	<u></u>							
Διάβας	ε προσεκτικό	ά τις πιο κά	τω ιστορίες κ	αι στη	συνέχεια	απάντησε	τις ερωτή	σεις ποι

Αριθμός

ακολουθούν. Να σκέφτεσαι πώς αντιδράς ΕΣΥ συνήθως και όχι τι πιστεύεις ότι θα ήταν σωστό να κάνεις. Να θυμάσαι δεν υπάρχουν σωστές και λάθος απαντήσεις – κάθε άτομο αντιδρά διαφορετικά σε συγκεκριμένες καταστάσεις.

ΒΑΛΕ ΣΕ ΚΥΚΛΟ Στον αριθμό που περιγράφει πόσο πιθανόν θα ήταν να έκανες κάθε μια από τις πιο κάτω συμπεριφορές, με το 1 να σημαίνει καθόλου πιθανό και το 5 να σημαίνει πολύ πιθανόν.

Μετά που θα βαθμολογήσεις τις πιο κάτω 3 επιλογές γράψε σε τι άλλο θα έκανες αν ήσουν ΕΣΥ ΣΤΗ ΘΕΣΗ ΤΟΥ ΠΑΙΔΙΟΥ ΠΟΥ ΑΝΑΦΕΡΕΤΑΙ ΣΤΗΝ ΕΡΩΤΗΣΗ



Ο Δημήτρης πάει στην Α' Γυμνασίου και είναι άριστος μαθητής. Οι βαθμοί στον έλεγχό του ήταν όλοι εξαιρετικοί εκτός από το μάθημα της Ιστορίας. Στο διαγώνισμα πήρε 20, πάντα πάει διαβασμένος, συμμετέχει στο μάθημα και έκανε και εργασία. Παρόλα αυτά, η καθηγήτρια του έβαλε 18. Ο Δημήτρης πιστεύει ότι η καθηγήτρια τον αδίκησε.

Τι θα έκανες ΕΣΥ στη θέση του ΔΗΜΗΤΡΗ, σε αυτή την περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα πήγαινα να ρωτήσω την καθηγήτρια αν έκανε κάποιο λάθος και αν όχι γιατί μου έβαλε αυτό το βαθμό.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα πήγαινα στην καθηγήτρια πολύ θυμωμένος και θα ζητούσα εξηγήσεις.	1	2	3	4	5
Δεν θα έκανα τίποτα και θα το άφηνα να περάσει.	1	2	3	4	5

Τι άλλο θα έκανες ι	και γιατί;			

Ο Σπύρος κατάγεται από μια φτωχή οικογένεια και παρόλο που θέλει να πάει στην τελική σχολική εκδρομή της έκτης δημοτικού δεν έφερε τη δήλωση συμμετοχής λόγω του ότι δεν έχει τα χρήματα να πληρώσει το ποσό που αναγράφεται. Ένας συμμαθητής του, ο Αντρέας ξεκινά να γελά και να εξηγεί σε όλους τους συμμαθητές τους το λόγο που θα χάσει ο Σπύρος την εκδρομή και τότε γίνεται μεγάλη φασαρία με γέλια και κοροϊδίες.

Αν ήσουν ΕΣΥ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΟΥ ΣΠΥΡΟΥ, τι θα έκανες σε αυτή την περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα ντρεπόμουν πολύ και θα έμενα μέσα στην τάξη όλο το διάλειμμα μέχρι να σταματήσουν να με κοροϊδεύουν.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα μιλούσα στον Αντρέα και θα του έλεγα να σταματήσει να με κοροϊδεύει γιατί με πληγώνει και θα του ζητούσα να μην το ξανακάνει.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα εκνευριζόμουν με τη συμπεριφορά του Αντρέα και των υπολοίπων και θα του φώναζα: «Σταμάτα να ανακατεύεσαι εσύ!» και θα τον έδιωχνα.	1	2	3	4	5

Γι άλλο θα έκανες και γιατί;						



Ο Χρίστος και ο Νικόλας βρέθηκαν τυχαία σε μια παιγνιδούπολη. Και οι δύο ήθελαν να παίξουν στο φουσκωτό, αλλά ο Νικόλας δεν ήθελε να παίζουν άλλα παιδιά μαζί του. Ήθελε να είναι μόνος του στο φουσκωτό. Ανέβηκε στο παιγνίδι και έδιωχνε όποιον προσπαθούσε να ανέβει.

Αν ήσουν ΕΣΥ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΟΥ ΧΡΙΣΤΟΥ, τι θα έκανες σε αυτή την περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα έλεγα στο Νικόλα ότι τα παιγνίδια είναι για όλους και πως δεν μπορεί να με διώξει	1	2	3	4	5
Δε θα έλεγα τίποτα στο Νικόλα και θα πήγαινα να παίξω σε κάποιο άλλο παιγνίδι.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα θύμωνα πολύ και θα τον χτυπούσα	1	2	3	4	5

Τι άλλο θα έκανες και γιατί;		



Ο Σάββας πήγε στην καντίνα του σχολείου για να αγοράσει το καθημερινό του φαγητό για το διάλειμμα. Αφού πήρε αυτό που ζήτησε, πλήρωσε και πήρε τα ρέστα. Αμέσως πρόσεξε ότι τα ρέστα ήταν λιγότερα από ότι θα έπρεπε.

Αν ήσουν ΕΣΥ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΟΥ ΣΑΒΒΑ, τι θα έκανες σε αυτή τη περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου Πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα έφευγα στεναχωρημένος χωρίς να πω κάτι γιατί ντρέπομαι να ζητήσω χρήματα πίσω.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα πήγαινα πίσω στην καντίνα να αναφέρω το λάθος και να ζητήσω να μου επιστραφούν τα σωστά ρέστα.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα εκνευριζόμουν και έβαζα τις φωνές για να μου δώσει τα σωστά ρέστα και άλλη φορά να προσέχει τι κάνει.	1	2	3	4	5

Τι άλλο θα έκανες και γιατί;						



Η Μαρία και η Ελένη πήραν τον ίδιο αριθμό ψήφων στις εκλογές για τη θέση του προέδρου της τάξης. Θα πρέπει να συζητήσουν και να αποφασίσουν μόνες τους ποια τελικά θα πάρει τη θέση του προέδρου. Η Ελένη ήταν πρόεδρος της τάξης και την προηγούμενη σχολική χρονιά.

Αν ήσουν ΕΣΥ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΗΣ ΜΑΡΙΑΣ, τι θα έκανες σε αυτή τη περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα συζητούσα μαζί με την Ελένη και παρόλο που θα ήθελα τη θέση του προέδρου θα την άφηνα να πάρει την θέση.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα συζητούσα μαζί με την Ελένη και θα της έλεγα να μου δώσει την ευκαιρία να πάρω αυτή τη θέση αφού εγώ δεν είχα την ευκαιρία ποτέ ξανά να είμαι πρόεδρος.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα άφηνα την Ελένη να πάρει τη θέση του προέδρου αλλά θα ένιωθα θυμωμένη που δεν μου πρότεινε να την πάρω εγώ αφού φέτος είναι η σειρά μου.	1	2	3	4	5

Γι άλλο θα έκανες και γιατί;						
		-				



Ο Κώστας και ο Ανδρέας είναι φίλοι και παίζουν συχνά μαζί ποδόσφαιρο. Αυτή τη φορά ήτανε σε αντίπαλες ομάδες. Ο Κώστας κατάφερε να βάλει ένα γκολ για την ομάδα του και το πανηγύρισε. Στη συνέχεια του παιχνιδιού ο Ανδρέας είχε ζηλέψει και εκνευριστεί με το φίλο του γι' αυτό του έβαλε τρικλοποδιά για να σκοντάψει. Ο Κώστας κατάλαβε ότι ήτανε επίτηδες.

Αν ήσουν εσύ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΟΥ ΚΩΣΤΑ τι θα έκανες σε αυτή την περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα του 'ριχνα μια μπουνιά, επειδή του αξίζει και για να μην το ξανακάνει.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα θύμωνα, αλλά δεν θα του έλεγα τίποτα γιατί δεν θέλω να τσακωθούμε και να τον χάσω.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα συνέχιζα το παιχνίδι, αλλά μετά θα του έλεγα ότι με πείραξε και ότι δε θέλω να ξανακάνει κάτι τέτοιο.	1	2	3	4	5

Τι άλλο θα έκανες και γιατί;						



Όταν ο Στέφανος μετακόμισε με την οικογένειά του σε άλλη περιοχή, αναγκάστηκε να πάει σε διαφορετικό σχολείο. Την πρώτη μέρα στο καινούργιο του σχολείο παρατήρησε ότι τα άλλα παιδιά τον έβλεπαν παράξενα και έκαναν διάφορα σχόλια για εκείνον. Όλοι τον κορόιδευαν επειδή ήταν καινούριος στο σχολείο τους.

Αν ήσουν εσύ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΟΥ ΣΤΕΦΑΝΟΥ τι θα έκανες σε αυτή την περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα ανεχόμουν σιωπηλά τα σχόλια των παιδιών.	1	2	3	4	5
Δεν θα έκανα κάτι αρχικά, όμως αν τα παιδιά συνέχιζαν να με κοροϊδεύουν θα το έλεγα στη δασκάλα.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα αντιδρούσα με θυμό και θα προσπαθούσα να βρω και εγώ τρόπο να τους πληγώσω.	1	2	3	4	5

Γι άλλο θα έκανες και γιατί;	



Η Εύη και η Αντριάνα είναι φίλες εδώ και 6 χρόνια. Ξαφνικά, η Αντριάνα σταμάτησε να μιλά στην Εύη. Άρχισε να κάνει παρέα με άλλα κορίτσια, να την αγνοεί και να μην της δίνει καμία σημασία. Η Εύη στεναχωριόταν πολύ, γιατί αγαπούσε τη φίλη της και δεν ήθελε να τη χάσει. Δεν ήξερε όμως τι να κάνει.

Αν ήσουν εσύ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΗΣ ΕΥΗΣ τι θα έκανες σε αυτή την περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα λυπόμουν πολύ, αλλά θα άφηνα τη φίλη μου να επιλέξει μόνη της.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα θύμωνα πάρα πολύ μαζί της και θα την απέφευγα και εγώ.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα συζητούσα μαζί της και θα προσπαθούσα να λύσω το πρόβλημα	1	2	3	4	5

Γι άλλο θα έκανες και γιατί;	



Ο Γιώργος και ο αδελφός του ο Νίκος πήγαν με τους γονείς τους στον Πρωταρά για τις καλοκαιρινές τους διακοπές. Άρεσε και στους δυο να κάνουν διάφορα θαλάσσια σπορ, γι' αυτό και ζήτησαν από τους γονείς τους να κάνουν «θαλάσσια μπανάνα». Όταν πήγαν στο κιόσκι ο υπεύθυνος τους ενημέρωσε ότι σε λίγο θα ξεκινούσε η τελευταία διαδρομή στην οποία υπήρχε μόνο μια θέση. Ο Γιώργος επέμενε να κάνει εκείνος πρώτος και να κάνει ο αδελφός του μια άλλη φορά.

Αν ήσουν ΕΣΥ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΟΥ ΝΙΚΟΥ του αδελφού του Γιώργου, τι θα έκανες σε αυτή τη περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα λυπόμουν πολύ, αλλά δεν θα έλεγα κάτι και θα άφηνα τον αδελφό μου το Γιώργο να κάνει εκείνος μπανάνα.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα λυπόμουν πολύ και θα έλεγα στον αδελφό μου το Γιώργο ότι αφού θέλουμε και οι δυο να κάνουμε μπανάνα θα ήταν πιο δίκαιο να μην κάνει κανένας και να περιμένουμε αύριο να κάνουμε μαζί.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα λυπόμουν πολύ και θα έλεγα στον αδελφό μου το Γιώργο θυμωμένα ότι θέλω να κάνω εγώ σήμερα και θα έτρεχα να προλάβω να πάω πρώτος στην μπανάνα.	1	2	3	4	5

Τι άλλο θα έκανες;		





Στο σχολείο του Χρίστου την προηγούμενη βδομάδα κάποιοι μπήκαν και έσπασαν τα τζάμια. Το επόμενο πρωί ο διευθυντής του σχολείου πήγε στην τάξη του Χρίστου και κατηγόρησε τον Μιχάλη, ένα παιδί ζωηρό που συχνά δεχόταν παρατηρήσεις. Ο Μιχάλης αρνήθηκε τις κατηγορίες του διευθυντή αλλά ο διευθυντής επέμενε ότι αυτός ήταν ο υπεύθυνος. Ο Χρίστος ήξερε ότι ο Μιχάλης δεν ήταν ένοχος αφού ήταν μαζί του την ώρα που έγινε το γεγονός.

Αν ήσουν ΕΣΥ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΟΥ ΧΡΙΣΤΟΥ, τι θα έκανες σε αυτή τη περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα σήκωνα το χέρι μου και θα έλεγα στο διευθυντή ότι ο Μιχάλης δεν ήταν ένοχος αφού ήταν μαζί μου την ώρα που έγινε το περιστατικό.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα θύμωνα με το διευθυντή και θα του έλεγα ότι δεν πρέπει να κρίνει χωρίς να γνωρίζει, αφού ο Μιχάλης ήταν μαζί μου την ώρα που έγινε το περιστατικό.	1	2	3	4	5
Δεν θα μιλούσα, ίσως από ντροπή, ίσως από φόβο μην μπλέξω και εγώ.	1	2	3	4	5

Τι άλλο θα έκανες;	

224





Ο Δημήτρης βρήκε το διάλειμμα τους φίλους του στην αυλή του σχολείου να συζητούν για την σχολική εκδρομή που θα πήγαιναν. Όλα τα παιδιά μιλούσαν για το τι να φέρει ο καθένας για την εκδρομή, ο ένας θα έφερνε μια μπάλα, ο άλλος μουσική κλπ. Ο Δημήτρης είχε πολλές απορίες, γιατί ήρθε στη μέση της συζήτησης και δεν είχε ούτε πολλή ώρα γιατί τον περίμενε ο γυμναστής να του μιλήσει.

Αν ήσουν ΕΣΥ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΟΥ ΔΗΜΗΤΡΗ, τι θα έκανες σε αυτή τη περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα άκουγα όσα πιο πολλά μπορούσα και δεν θα διέκοπτα για να ρωτήσω.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα διέκοπτα ευγενικά και θα τους έλεγα να μου διευκρινίσουν τις απορίες μου γιατί βιάζομαι να πάω στον καθηγητή.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα ύψωνα τον τόνο της φωνής μου για να με ακούσουν και θα διέκοπτα για να μου απαντήσουν αυτά που είχα να ρωτήσω.	1	2	3	4	5

Τι άλλο θα έκανες;		





Η Άννα ήταν στο σπίτι της και διάβαζε για την εξέταση της επόμενης βδομάδας, αφού τις επόμενες μέρες δεν θα είχε χρόνο λόγω προπονήσεων. Ξαφνικά χτυπάει το κουδούνι. Ήταν οι φίλοι της από τη γειτονιά για να την πάρουν να πάνε βόλτα στο κοντινό πάρκο. Η Άννα δεν ήθελε να πάει γιατί είχε πολλά να κάνει στο σπίτι και δεν της άρεσε να χαλάει το πρόγραμμα της αλλά οι φίλοι της την πίεζαν πολύ.

Αν ήσουν ΕΣΥ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΗΣ ΑΝΝΑΣ, τι θα έκανες σε αυτή τη περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα τους έλεγα ότι έχω διάβασμα και δεν θα ήθελα διακόψω, ίσως μια άλλη φορά μετά το διαγώνισμα.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα πήγαινα μαζί τους αν πίεζαν πολύ και θα σκεφτόμουν συνέχεια πώς να τελειώνουμε γρήγορα για να πάω πίσω στο διάβασμα μου.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα τους έλεγα ότι δεν πρέπει να με ενοχλούν και να με πιέζουν από τη στιγμή που ξέρουν ότι έχουμε διαγώνισμα και ότι καλά θα έκαναν να διάβαζαν και αυτοί.	1	2	3	4	5

Τι άλλο θα έκανες;	



Η Μαρία και η Αντωνιέττα συζητούν έντονα το διάλειμμα για ένα θέμα που διαφωνούν. Η Μαρία πάνω στο θυμό της σπρώχνει την Αντωνιέττα με δύναμη λέγοντας της «δεν ξέρεις τι λες».

Αν ήσουν ΕΣΥ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΗΣ ΑΝΤΩΝΙΕΤΤΑΣ, τι θα έκανες σε αυτή τη περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα θύμωνα και θα έσπρωχνα τη Μαρία πιο δυνατά και θα της έλεγα ότι εκείνη δεν ξέρει τι λέει.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα απολογούμουν και θα συμφωνούσα μαζί της.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα της έλεγα ότι δεν μου αρέσει να με σπρώχνουν και να μου μιλούν με αυτό τον τρόπο και αν θέλει να συνεχίσουμε τη συζήτηση τότε να μου ζητήσει συγνώμη.	1	2	3	4	5

Γι άλλο θα έκανες και γιατί;	





Ο Στέφανος έχει κερδίσει τις 2 τελευταίες προσκλήσεις για τη μεγάλη συναυλία του αγαπημένου του τραγουδιστή. Η μητέρα του, του είπε να διαλέξει ένα συμμαθητή του για να πάνε μαζί. Την επόμενη μέρα στο σχολείο ο Στέφανος το ανακοίνωσε στο διπλανό του, τον Γιώργο. Ξαφνικά όμως εμφανίστηκε ο Αλέξανδρος, που είναι κολλητός του Στέφανου και κατάλαβε ότι κανόνισαν να πάνε μόνοι τους στη συναυλία, χωρίς να τον καλέσουν.

Αν ήσουν ΕΣΥ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΟΥ ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΟΥ, τι θα έκανες σε αυτή την περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα στεναχωριόμουν πολύ, αλλά δεν θα έλεγα τίποτα και θα τους άφηνα να πάνε χωρίς εμένα στη συναυλία	1	2	3	4	5
Θα στεναχωριόμουν πολύ, θα έβαζα τις φωνές και θα απειλούσα το Στέφανο ότι δεν θα τον είχα πια φίλο.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα στεναχωριόμουν πολύ και θα έλεγα στον Στέφανο πως ένιωθα και ότι θα ήθελα πολύ να πάω στη συναυλία και θα το συζητούσα μαζί του.	1	2	3	4	5

Τι άλλο θα έκανες και γιατί;		



Η Μαρία και η Θάλεια είναι δίδυμες αδελφές και πηγαίνουν στην έκτη δημοτικού. Η Μαρία ζηλεύει πολύ την αδελφή της τη Θάλεια επειδή είναι πιο όμορφη και η καλύτερη μαθήτρια της τάξης, όπως λέει η ίδια. Ένα πρωί λοιπόν η Μαρία πήρε κρυφά όλα τα βιβλία της Θάλειας και αφού τα έσκισε, τα τοποθέτησε πίσω στη σχολική της τσάντα χωρίς να το καταλάβει. Η Θάλεια το ανακάλυψε την ώρα του μαθήματος, όταν της ζητήθηκε να διαβάσει την ανάγνωση της.

Αν ήσουν ΕΣΥ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΗΣ ΘΑΛΕΙΑΣ, τι θα έκανες σε αυτή την περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα κατάγγελλα την αδελφή μου στη δασκάλα και θα της ζητούσα να τη βάλει τιμωρία.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα έπαιρνα όλη την ευθύνη πάνω μου για να μη φταίξω την αδελφή μου και θα δεχόμουν την τιμωρία από τη δασκάλα μου.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα ζητούσα συγνώμη από τη δασκάλα και στο διάλειμμα θα ρωτούσα τη Μαρία για ποιο λόγο το έκανε και θα έλεγα ότι με στεναχώρησε πολύ.	1	2	3	4	5

Τι άλλο θα έκα	νες και γιατί;			

Η Μαρία είναι πολύ καλή φίλη με την Ελένη. Στο σχολείο πραγματοποιείται ένας διαγωνισμός ποίησης. Η Μαρία γράφει ένα όμορφο ποίημα και η Ελένη ζητά από τη Μαρία να της το δώσει για να το διαβάσει, για να πάρει ιδέες. Στο διαγωνισμό τελικά έρχεται πρώτη η Ελένη, ενώ η Μαρία τελικά δεν έλαβε μέρος γιατί αρρώστησε. Στην απονομή του βραβείου, διαβάστηκε δυνατά και το ποίημα της Ελένης. Ήταν το ίδιο με της Μαρίας και η Μαρία πληγώθηκε πολύ.

Αν ήσουν εσύ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΗΣ ΜΑΡΙΑΣ , τι θα έκανες σε αυτή την περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα στεναχωριόμουν πάρα πολύ για την προδοσία της , αλλά δεν θα έλεγα κάτι και θα την άφηνα να χαρεί το βραβείο	1	2	3	4	5
Θα θύμωνα πολύ και θα το έλεγα μπροστά σε όλους ότι αυτό ήταν το δικό μου ποίημα γιατί ήταν άδικο για μένα.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα συζητούσα μαζί της όταν ήμασταν μόνες μας ότι αυτό που έκανε δεν ήταν σωστό και με πλήγωσε και οφείλει να κάνει κάτι για να διορθώσει την πράξη της.	1	2	3	4	5

Τι άλλο θα έκα	νες και γιατί;			



Η Νεφέλη και η Αλίκη κάθονται στο ίδιο θρανίο. Η Αλίκη όμως ενοχλεί την Νεφέλη κατά τη διάρκεια του μαθήματος. Της μιλάει συνέχεια, την σπρώχνει, την κλωτσά και της παίρνει τα τετράδια με τις εργασίες της.

Αν ήσουν εσύ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΗΣ ΝΕΦΕΛΗΣ τι θα έκανες σε αυτή την περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα άρχιζα κι εγώ να ενοχλώ την Αλίκη με τον ίδιο ακριβώς τρόπο.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα προειδοποιούσα την Αλίκη, θα περίμενα λίγες μέρες, και αν η Αλίκη συνέχιζε να με ενοχλεί, θα το έλεγα στη δασκάλα.	1	2	3	4	5
Δε θα έκανα τίποτα.	1	2	3	4	5

Τι άλλο θα έκανες και γιατ	ί;		
			



Η Ελπίδα πήγε με τους φίλους της στο σινεμά και προσπαθούσαν να αποφασίσουν ποια ταινία ήθελαν να δουν. Η Ελπίδα πρότεινε να δουν μια καινούργια ταινία που της αρέσει, όμως οι φίλοι της αρνήθηκαν, γιατί δεν τους ενδιέφερε καθόλου η συγκεκριμένη ταινία. Αμέσως η Ελπίδα άρχισε να σκέφτεται ότι οι φίλοι της δεν θέλουν να κάνουν πια παρέα μαζί της,

αφού νιώθει πως ποτέ δεν ακούν τις δικές τις εισηγήσεις.

Αν ήσουν εσύ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΗΣ ΕΛΠΙΔΑΣ τι θα έκανες σε αυτή την περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα έλεγα δεν πειράζει και θα δω την ταινία που μου αρέσει κάποια άλλη φορά.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα έλεγα ότι ούτε σε εμένα αρέσει τελικά η ταινία και καλύτερα να δούμε κάτι άλλο.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα επέμενα στη δική μου επιλογή και θα άρχισα να κλαίω και να φωνάζω μέχρι να δεχτούν οι φίλοι μου να δούμε την ταινία μου.	1	2	3	4	5

Γι άλλο θα έκανες και γιατί;	



Η Χριστιάνα και η Αντιγόνη είναι συμμαθήτριες και ανέλαβαν να κάνουν μαζί μια εργασία. Η Χριστιάνα επιμένει να κάνει πάντα αυτό που πιστεύει η ίδια πως είναι σωστό, χωρίς να λαμβάνει υπόψη τη γνώμη της Αντιγόνης.

Αν ήσουν εσύ στη ΘΕΣΗ ΤΗΣ ΑΝΤΙΓΟΝΗΣ, τι θα έκανες σε αυτή την περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα δεχόμουν τη γνώμη της Χριστιάνας χωρίς να της πω τίποτα.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα φώναζα στη Χριστιάνα και θα της έλεγα ότι δε θα κάνω μαζί της την εργασία.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα προσπαθούσα να βρω μια λύση για να είμαστε και οι δύο ικανοποιημένες.	1	2	3	4	5

Τι άλλο θα έκανες και γιατί;					



Η Αλίκη είναι μαθήτρια της πέμπτης δημοτικού. Στο μάθημα της γυμναστικής ζήτησε από τα αγόρια να παίξει μαζί τους ποδόσφαιρο αν και δεν είναι και πολύ καλή. Κατά τη διάρκεια του παιχνιδιού η Αλίκη έβαλε γκολ στην ίδια της την ομάδα και ο αρχηγός της ομάδας θύμωσε και την έσπρωξε και έπεσε.

Τι θα έκανες ΕΣΥ στη θέση ΤΗΣ ΑΛΙΚΗΣ, σε αυτή την περίπτωση;

	Καθόλου πιθανόν	Λίγο πιθανόν	Πιθανόν	Αρκετά πιθανόν	Πολύ πιθανόν
Θα έφευγα από το γήπεδο και θα πήγαινα κλαίγοντας στην τάξη.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα πήγαινα έλεγα στον αρχηγό της ομάδας να μην με σπρώχνει και ότι θα τον κατάγγελλα για τη συμπεριφορά του.	1	2	3	4	5
Θα τον έσπρωχνα και εγώ και θα του έλεγα με θυμό να μην με σπρώχνει.	1	2	3	4	5

Τι άλλο θα έκανες και γιατί;					
					