CHINESE IMMIGRANT MOTHERS' ACCULTURATION

AND

THEIR CHILDREN'S SELF-CONCEPT

by

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A Thesis

submitted in partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science

in the Department of Family Studies

University of Manitoba

Winnipeg, Manitoba

Canada

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ABSTRACT

In this study, the relationship between the acculturation level of Chinese immigrant mothers and their children's self-concept was investigated. The sample consisted of 45 Chinese immigrant mother-and-child pairs. The children were 3 to 5 years of age. Measures of the children's self-concept and level of intellectual maturity were obtained from the Purdue Self-Concept Scale for Preschool Children and the Goodenough-Harris Drawing Test. Mothers responded to a self-administered questionnaire on acculturation. Both mother's acculturation score and family socioeconomic status are positively correlated with children's self-concept. The only significant main effect on intellectual maturity is the child's age. The effects of socioeconomic status and acculturation on Chinese immigrant children's self-concept are discussed.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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INTRODUCTION

A major concern for immigrants, as well as for the host country, is adaptation to a new setting and culture. In Canada, a number of surveys of immigrant groups have been conducted to examine the factors that contribute to adaptation of immigrants and their families (Dothan, 1985; Gelfand, 1980; Kim, 1983; Stepick, 1983). However, little attention has been given to immigrant children's adaptation and their development in a new culture.

In Canada, the Chinese form a relatively large minority group. Immigration statistics report that people from Asian countries were among the three major groups of immigrants to Canada in 1986. According to the 1981 census of Canada there were 289,245 Canadians of Chinese origin, equal to about 1 per cent of the population. About 40 per cent of them resided in Ontario while 2.6 per cent resided in Manitoba. As in the case of immigrants in general, a number of surveys of Chinese immigrant families have been reported (Andrachi, 1978; Hrboticky & Krondl, 1984; Ishwaran, 1980; Romalis & Romalis, 1983) but, again, none focused on the well-being of Chinese immigrant children. The focus of this study is on Chinese immigrant children.

Due to their cultural background, which differs from that of Western countries in a number of respects, Chinese immigrants experience unique difficulties in adjusting to the Canadian

culture. As is the case with all immigrants, the Chinese are subject to the laws and legislative policies of Canada. They are also subject to the attitudes and behaviours of members of the larger society. With the general lack of understanding of the differences between Chinese and Canadians cultures by Canadians (Hardwick, 1975 & Wickberg, 1982), Chinese are often stigmatized as selfish, unfriendly and old-fashioned individuals who come from relatively primitive countries (England, 1986; Li, 1988; Mandel, 1982; Tan, 1985). In a national survey conducted in 1974, Canadians were asked to rate ethnic groups on whether each group was considered by the respondents as hardworking, important, Canadian, clean, likeable, and interesting. The Chinese received the unfavourable rating of fifteenth among the nineteen ethnic groups (Berry, Kalin, & Taylor, 1977). Another survey showed that close to 10 per cent of the respondents considered that Canada had been harmed by Chinese coming into the country and that 27 per cent were opposed to Chinese immigrating to Canada (Li, 1979).

Children from minority groups, including Chinese children, have been observed to have difficulties arising from their cultural background. Despite these difficulties, Chinese immigrant children are still expected to develop competencies as they grow up in Canada. One indicator of adaptation and feeling of competence is the child's self-concept. Zirkel (1971) suggests that ethnic membership may operate to either enhance or depress the self-concept of disadvantaged children. Similarly, it may be that not only ethnic membership but also degree of acculturation of

immigrant parents could influence a child's self-concept. To date, little research has examined the relationship between immigrant parents' acculturation level and their children's self-concept.

The current study then is concerned with the self-concept of Chinese immigrant children. Literature reviewed includes the cultural context of immigrant children, factors affecting Chinese immigrant children, needs of Chinese immigrant children, and an examination of children's self-concept.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Cultural Context of Immigrant Children

To understand the cultural context of immigrant children, it is important to examine the possible kinds of cultural alternatives in the society at large. In the case of young children, parental choice of cultural alternatives is a crucial factor because of the parental role in determining the child's developmental environment. A symbolic model (Figure 1) is presented to illustrate factors that affect immigrants' adaptation in a foreign country.

Immigrant parents need to adapt to a new society in specific ways to enable them to provide optimal opportunities for the family. In general, it is assumed that individuals who seek to obtain "maximum net advantage" will select alternatives which give them the greatest benefits relative to costs (Ayalon, Ben-Rafarl & Sharot, 1986). Such "survival instincts" become most evident when individuals, such as immigrants, are adjusting in a foreign country. In countries where there is only one cultural alternative, individuals are likely to be forced to choose certain kinds of adaptation to maintain an identity and achieve a status. On the other hand, in a multicultural country like Canada, an individual can choose among alternative ways to adapt to the new society. The individuals may choose a) to remain in their ethnic

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┌─────────────────────────────────┐        ┌─────────────────────────────┐
│ Parent's Cultural Alternatives  │        │ Larger Society              │
│ 1. Ethnicity                    │◄──────►│  - material resources       │
│ 2. Mixed Culturalism            │        │  - support groups           │
│ 3. Assimilation                 │        │  - different customs        │
│                                 │        │  - official languages       │
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         │                                                 │
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         └────────►│ Immigrant Children's Cultural Context │◄──────┘
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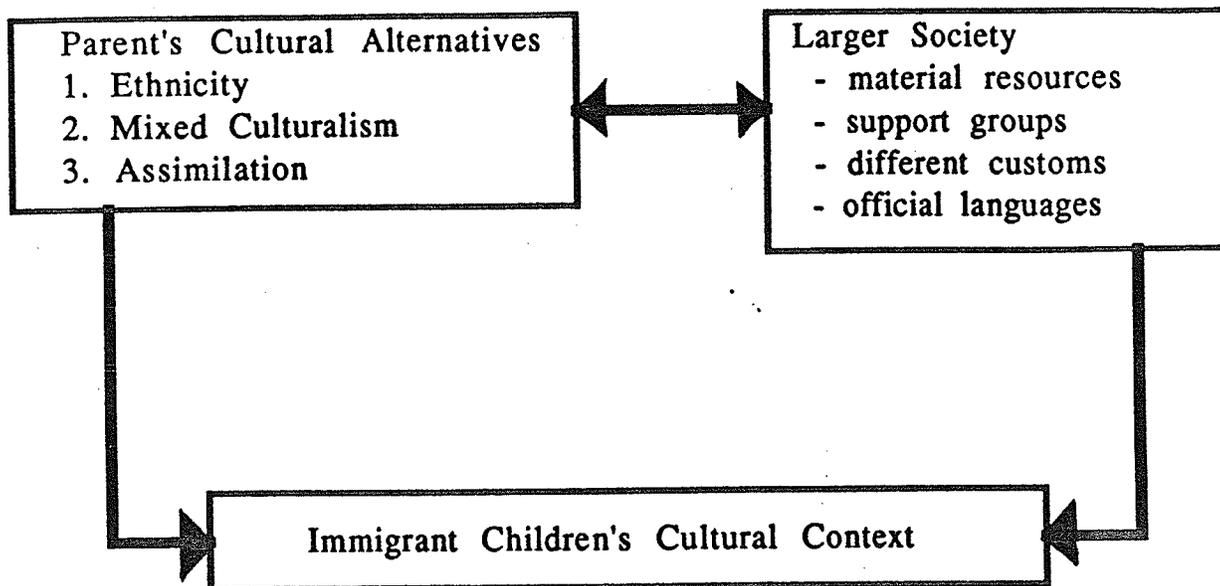
Figure 1: A Model of the Cultural Context of Immigrants

group (Ethnicity), b) to blend their ethnic practices with those of the dominant group (Mixed Culturalism), or c) to assimilate with the dominant group's customs (Assimilation). With these three alternatives, all immigrants may be brought into contact with the larger society in the manner of their choice.

Chinese immigrants may choose among the three basic cultural alternatives of ethnicity, mixed culturalism, and assimilation. In the first alternative, Chinese immigrants can maintain their own **ethnicity** and adhere to old customs, old symbols and old models of behaviour. This group adopts several avenues to maintain ethnic identity. They continue to speak their own language in their family and their group. They use foods, clothing and other supplies which reinforce their cultural identity. They choose to live in a Chinese neighborhood to allow ethnic cohesion. Language, material resources and geographical location, then, are means that enable those who choose the ethnicity alternative to maintain their cultural identity while at the same time adjusting to the Canadian society.

The second alternative, **mixed culturalism,** involves the maintenance of Chinese cultural traditions while trying to acquire some Canadian customs. For instance, the Chinese may eat rice as the major part of their diet while having fast foods, like MacDonalds, on occasions, worship Chinese idols while celebrating Christmas as a seasonal holiday, and/or treat females as the major caretaker of the family while allowing those who excel in career performance to continue working outside of the household. As Royce

stated in 1982, people constantly acquire new traits, change and rework old ones, and abandon some features altogether. In a similar manner, these Chinese choose a mixed culture as a basis upon which new customs and ideas are selectively accepted.

The third alternative is **assimilation.** With this alternative, the Chinese choose to live completely in a Western style. This choice is frequently made by those who feel that the traditional resources available in the new country are not sufficient for them to live comfortably in their old ways. Therefore, for them, the Canadian style of living may be more desirable. These Chinese also perceive that, as technology advances, the discrepancy between the Canadian style of living and their old Chinese ways will become greater. Eventually, these Chinese will give up their original ethnicity and be completely assimilated into the Canadian society.

Within any one of the three types of acculturation, Chinese immigrant parents shape their children's developmental environment. Regardless of the type of acculturation, Chinese immigrant children still encounter various social and psychological problems during the acculturation process as they encounter the larger society. Presumably these problems can influence their developing self-concept.

Factors affecting Chinese Immigrant Children

Factors affecting Chinese immigrant children include those that are common to all immigrants and those that are unique to the Chinese. They are grouped in three major kinds. (a) Cultural factors which are reflected in characteristic behavioural patterns of Chinese children. (b) Situational factors which are unavoidable during the process of cultural change, and (c) Policy factors by which immigrants are directly affected.

Cultural Factors

As the behaviours of individuals are structured by their cultural beliefs, Chinese children are found to have particular characteristics and values. Yao (1979a, 1979b) observed that oriental children tend to be passive rather than active and less verbal and expressive in social situations as compared to American children. She points out that such passiveness may hinder their social interaction with others or even cause misunderstanding by outsiders who are not familiar with Chinese culture. In Yao's later study (1985), she finds that immigrant Asian children also work more efficiently in a well-structured environment in which definite goals are established for them rather than in a less structured environment.

There are also differences in the exhibition of affection and the emphasis on self and others between the two cultures. In a Western culture, like Canada, individualism is the driving force

behind the competitiveness and creativity that has pushed the nation forward (Sung, 1985). On the other hand, with an Eastern cultural background, the Chinese are situation-centered. The sense of duty and obligation takes precedence over self-gratification (Sung, 1985). In contrast to Canadians whose expressions of affection are outwardly effusive and commonly exhibited, Chinese appear to be more reserved (Sung, 1985). For the Chinese, intimacy and love are private matters expressed indirectly, for example, through caring in daily routines. According to Sung (1985), therefore, Chinese children, who see the more expressive form of caring typical of Western culture, may feel deprived by the reserved form of affection received from their immediate family.

Situational Factors

As newcomers, Chinese immigrants are controlled by various situational conditions that result from their change of cultural environment. They lack an understanding of the cultural values guiding social interactions or the cultural context within which social resources or services are developed in a foreign country (Lynam, 1985). At the same time, they may be so preoccupied with the necessary adaptation process that family ties are weakened and the influence of external cultural forces are increased (Yao, 1985). Szapocznik, Scopetta, Kurtines and Aranalde (1978) indicate that youngsters acculturate more rapidly than their parents. The usual intergenerational gap, thus, becomes compounded with acculturation differences. This constitutes a potentially significant aspect of family disruption among immigrant families.

The inconsistency between parents and children in the process of acculturation and the parents' different conceptions of cultural values are hindrances to the development of self-concept. Aboud and Skerry (1983) stated that one function of self and ethnic concept is to maintain constancy in children. Without such concepts and the specific properties they possess, the child presumably has no internal mechanism to provide a sense of constant identity. Chinese children would be in constant struggle between the Chinese values held by their parents at home and the Western values learned at school. This can result in children experiencing profound cultural discontinuity upon entering school (Lubeck, 1984).

Policy Factors

Despite Canada's advanced social policies, there are still weaknesses in the legislative policies for immigrants. Statistically, Canada has been depending on immigration for her economic prosperity and industrial development. Her immigrants encompass many ethnic and national groups as well as numerous linguistic groups. In responding to its cultural diversity, the Canadian federal policy entitled "Multiculturalism" within a Bilingual Framework' was established in 1971. The multiculturalism policy, unfortunately, pays insufficient attention to the special problems and interests of new arrivals. There is still a lack of mutual understanding between insiders (members of ethnic groups) and outsiders (members of the larger society). In 1985, Lynam

found that immigrants of minority groups often feel as if they do not belong to the new country. Lynam's subjects described isolation in terms of feelings of being apart from people and resources but not necessarily physical separation from people.

According to Samuda (1986), some minority groups are still economically and socially underprivileged. He further points out that serious problems exist in the assessment, testing, placement and counselling of ethnic minorities. Samuda finds that some practicing teachers still view education from the archaic assimilationist perspective in which cultural diversity is underestimated. Thus, the problem of adjustment of Chinese immigrant children is exacerbated when the concepts of multiculturalism are not yet integrated into faculties of education. As a result, so as to conform to their peers, Chinese immigrant children may have to adjust in many areas at the expense of their own cultural heritage (Yao, 1985).

Obviously, the recognition of ethnic diversity and the acceptance of ethnic groups is not a uniquely Canadian manifestation, it is a hallmark of the world's current history (Mazurck & Kach, 1986). Despite the interaction of Canada's multicultural policies, Canada is still far from being an equalitarian mosaic in which all ethnic groups are equally understood and assisted. There is little indication that racial prejudice has been less prevalent or ethnic inequality less evident. As a consequence, there are needs of the Chinese immigrant children waiting to be met. Their needs are multifaceted

and require the cooperation and assistance of many disciplines in their resolution.

Needs of Chinese Immigrant Children

For Chinese immigrant children to have optimal opportunities to develop, needs in three major areas must be recognized. (a) The school system must provide for their education in a milieu in which cultural diversity is valued. (b) Professional services, such as counselling, are important for assisting them to adapt to cultural change. (c) A social support network is important for them to acquire the social skills needed to participate productively in Canadian society.

Educational Needs

Educationally, Chinese immigrant children need to have the ability to cope with change. As Lane (1985) stated, it is one of the characteristics that children in today's world must have. Lubeck (1984) suggests that children should be helped in preparing for the future by formulating their own plans of action and learn how to maintain the strengths of their heritage. She also explains that in a classroom in which individuality and autonomy are reinforced, positive feelings toward change would be promoted.

The role of a teacher is particularly important in assisting Chinese immigrant children. One aim of Dixon and Fraser's study (1986) was to examine useful strategies for teachers to help

preschoolers in a multilingual classroom. They specifically point out the importance of parent participation and gaining information about the child's family traditions and attitudes from parents as crucial in teaching. Besides, Yao (1985) points out that teachers should alleviate peer pressure on immigrant children by helping the class to understand cultural differences and similarities and slow the process of assimilation for immigrant children. She also suggests that teachers should observe the group dynamics with a keen understanding and be aware of any child's excessive absence, disinterest, poor academic performance or abnormal behaviour. These behaviours, according to Yao (1985), may simply be caused by cultural and linguistic differences within the class. Most importantly, as Saracho (1983) stated, effective teachers should be free from cultural ethnocentrism and be committed to promoting children's self-image. Therefore, teachers should believe cultural diversity is a worthy goal.

Psychological Needs

Psychologically, an open and flexible personality that enjoys the process of change (Lane, 1985) is mostly needed by immigrant children. By open and flexible, Chinese immigrant children would be able to interact expressively with others and absorb new knowledge. Thus, upon entering school, they would experience fewer barriers to the learning of new concepts. Lane explains that children who feel strongly about the quality of life and understand that love, peace and respect are universal concepts regardless of

the language used to express them, are children who have incorporated the basics of an open, flexible approach to life. They should be able to accept discontinuities and differences among cultures (Wilson, 1982). Chinese immigrant children also need help in balancing value discrepancies experienced between the home and the larger society. They have to be able to appreciate their own culture during the process of environmental change. The ultimate goal is to help Chinese immigrant children feel as if they belong in Canada which is a multicultural country.

Social Needs

Socially, personal support from "kin", "insiders" and "outsiders", as suggested by Lynam (1985), is particularly important for Chinese immigrant children's development in Canada. This can be promoted by increasing opportunities for the immigrants to gather together to meet their own needs (Lynam, 1985). Children, the newly immigrated in particular, have a fundamental need to belong which can best be met through peer affiliation (Jalongo, 1983). Immigrant children need to have friends with similar backgrounds such that they can together appreciate their own cultural values learned from home and work as a combined force in facing cultural conflicts at school or other social situations. As Jalongo (1983) stated, earning the respect of peers is frequently a turning point in the quality of the culturally different child's social existence. Hopefully, peers will help the Chinese immigrant children to develop the ability to assimilate changes into satisfying personal lifestyle (Lane, 1985).

The above factors, including the environment provided by parents and the needs of Chinese immigrant children, contribute to and are reflected in the child's self-concept. Self-concept, in turn, is an indicator of a child's functional capacity and well-being.

Self-concept

Definitions of Self-concept

Despite the continuing interest in the area of self-concept, there is no consensus on its definition. Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton (1976) suggested that the imprecision and variation in definitions and constructs has hindered the generalizability of the self-concept research.

As a beginning, it will be helpful to consider the views of various theorists on the nature of self-concept. Then, those common attributes of self-concept listed by the theorists are summarized and used as the framework for this study.

William James (1910), a psychologist who wrote extensively on the self, considered the self to be an object. This includes a material self, a social self, and a spiritual self which are intimately associated with emotions and mediated through self-esteem. Cooley (1902) introduced the concept of the "looking-glass self" which refers to the idea that an individual perceives himself/ herself in the way that others respond him/her. George H. Mead (1934) expanded upon Cooley's looking-glass self. According to Mead, there are as many selves as there are social

roles. Thus, self-concept arises in social interaction as an outgrowth of the individual's concern about how others react to the him. For Sullivan (1953), the self also arises out of social interaction. However, Sullivan emphasized the interaction of the child with significant others, particularly the mother figure. Lecky (1945) defined the self-concept as the nucleus of personality. While the individual is striving for psychological balance, the self-concept plays a key role in determining what information is acceptable for assimilation into the overall personality organization.

Researchers in the 70's and 80's offer other definitions of self-concept. Collier and Guthrie (1971) stipulate that self-concept is an organized collection of the attitudes and feelings of a person about himself/herself. For Yamamoto (1972), the self-concept is "the composite of all the descriptions, verbal, pictorial or otherwise, of me". Felker (1974) describes it as "a unique set of perceptions, ideas and attitudes which an individual has about himself". Similar to James (1910), Rosenberg (1979) sees the self as object. Rosenberg describes the self-concept as the totality of the individual's thoughts and feelings. Beane and Lipka (1980) described self-concept as one's nonvaluative description of personal attributes and the roles one plays or fulfills.

Having reviewed a variety of definitions of the self-concept, some basic characteristics of self-concept can be summarized as follows. **First,** self-concept is typically defined as the

perception one holds of oneself in general which is influenced by environmental interaction (Purkey, 1970; Shavelson et al., 1976; Wylie, 1974). **Second,** it consists of different empirical selves including a social self, a physical self and a spiritual self. **Third,** inherent in most definitions of self-concept is the idea that a process is involved. Thus, self-concept is also a dynamic system which regulates information and assimilates concepts towards the growth of overall personality. **Fourth,** an individual's interactions with significant others are particularly relevant to his or her development of self-concept. As Brinthaupt and Lipka (1985) stated, "the self-concept is an entity considered as both the cause of particular behaviors and the effect of particular experiences".

Development of Self-concept

From the above perspective, self-concept is both an affective variable that has implications for personality development and a variable that has a theoretical formulation of its own (Lynch, 1981). In other words, self-concept is a component of the personality development. At the same time, self-concept is an entity with different facets including the social self, the physical self and the spiritual self. In this section, the development of self-concept in young children is presented. A chronological approach, from infancy to preschool years, is adapted in order to illustrate the process of development.

The self-concept is learned. It is not innate. Although infants are not aware of being a separate being, they are constantly receiving a wide range of sensory inputs. Gradually, infants begin to develop simple patterns of perception and action. Infants watch their own hands and feet in motion, at times pull their own hair, and put their fist and toys in their mouths. Self-awareness emerges slowly as infants explore and manipulate their world. Through the mastery of physical abilities including grasping, crawling and hitting, infants become aware that they can produce effects and sensations. The differentiation of self from "non-self" is aroused by infants active manipulation of their surrounding.

Young children rely on their parents for many of their biological needs such as feeding them when they are hungry, cleaning them when they are dirty, and putting them to bed when they are tired. By satisfying many of the biological needs, parents also fulfil some of their children's non-biological needs such as love, trust and security. In Erik Erikson's theory (1963), an infant develops a pervading sense of trust over a period of time during which the infant's physical as well as social and emotional needs are met in a loving, caring and supportive manner. Young children observe how others regard them and accept the valuation that others put upon them. For example, children will feel good about themselves when they receive positive feedbacks from others. Parent's acceptance of young children is easily perceptible. Eventually, with a satisfactory parent-child relationship, young

children develop a consistent self-concept as reflected by their home environment. According to Silvernail (1981), a supportive environment will enhance the development of positive self-concept. Parents can reinforce such an environment by providing many stimuli and love and care. As children grow, they begin to become aware of their existence as an individual. An example of the earliest behaviors indicating a concept of self in children is the recognition of their own mirror images (Lewise & Brooks-Gunn, 1979).

The concept of self becomes explicit as preschool children master language. A good example is the acquisition of the pronouns "I", "me", "you", "it" and "them". The proper use of these pronouns requires an ability to take the perspective of others and to distinguish it from his/her own perspective. For example, a two-year-old will probably point to himself and say "Johnny" instead of "I am Johnny". Increasing use and accuracy of pronouns reflects the child's growing ability to perceive himself/herself as an individual with distinct feelings and needs (Zigler & Finn-Steveson, 1987). However, the use of pronouns is only one indicator of the differentiation between self and others.

According to Lynch (1981), as children acquire language they also face increased sensory input both of a positive and negative nature. The acquisition of language enables the rapid proliferation of rules governing cognitive processing and resulting in the rapid growth of self-concept. Further, Rosenberg (1979) proposes that experiences in communication lead to a decline in

egocentrism which allows the child to adapt the perspectives of others. Preschool children with delayed language development were reported to be withdrawn and introverted in middle childhood (Kolvin, Fundudis, George, Wrate & Scarth, 1979). The results clearly suggest a relationship between preschool children's linguistic abilities and self-concept.

In early childhood, the child is taught to communicate in socially accepted ways. There is always a need to conform to social expectations (Perkins, 1975). The child follows a particular set of rules. For example, the child is expected to eat with socially accepted utensils, drink from cups, dress according to his/her sex, and delay gratification through restrictions such as the expression of anger by using words. The ability to follow these rules reveals the child's maturity in regulating information and assimilating concepts. In this way, the success of application of rules plays a central role in the development of self-concept and these rules become more complex as the kind of environmental interactions increase.

As children learn the societal rules, they also learn to differentiate body parts from objects and others. Between the ages of three and five children grow rapidly, averaging about ten inches in height and about ten pounds in weight over a three-year period (Perkins, 1975). Young children at such ages are able to compare, in a physical sense, the differences in height, facial features and motor performance to that of other children and adults. According to Piers and Harris (1964), children in early childhood hold

simplistic, all-or-nothing beliefs about the goodness and badness of body parts. Thus, children with a good image of their physical appearance are more likely to possess a positive self-concept while children with a bad physical image are more likely to possess negative a self-concept.

At preschool age, a child has already acquired an understanding of his/her own physical characteristics and their functions. The concept of physical self, however, is not set. The child's ethnicity, body build and physical appearance evoke responses from others and influence the formation of self-concept. While obvious physical appearance and ethnic qualities may hinder an individual's ability to meet the standards of the majority culture in body appearance, it should be pointed out that even minor skin color differences, facial appearance differences or weight differences may influence the development of a positive self-concept.

As children grow older their environment expands from the home to other sectors, such as school, church and neighbours, and the diversity of interpersonal interactions increases. Children may feel confident and accepted at home but unaccepted in the neighborhood or preschool. As young children move out of the home setting, interpersonal interaction becomes predominantly peer interaction. Peers are individuals similar in size and age, whereas at home there is an hierarchical relationship among family members who are either older or younger. Peer interaction requires mutual respect of each others' capabilities. Within a peer group, children want to be accepted and competent. Interactions rely

heavily on performance (Kirkpatrick & Sanders, 1978). Failures in performance lead to rejection by others and humiliation for self.

Like all children, young immigrant children have to go through different stages in developing self-concept. However, they experience additional pressure because of cultural differences. Although ethnicity is not necessarily a hindrance to the development of a positive self-concept, it may complicate the process of its development.

One's ethnic consciousness develops only as one moves into ethnically mixed situations. One is unlikely to notice one's ethnic characteristics in a racially homogeneous setting because of the lack of contrast. On the other hand, in a racially mixed setting, one is more likely to notice the distinctiveness of ethnicity and to develop a comparison of self to other people based on cultural differences (McGuire & McGuire, 1981). This phenomenon is particularly pronounced for people in minority ethnic subgroups. As McGuire et al. (1981) showed in their study that 17% of the black children and 14% of the Hispanic children spontaneously mentioned their ethnicity as compared to only 1% of the predominant English-speaking Whites.

Not only is ethnicity one of the major components of self-concept, but it also reflects a young child's immediate environment. Children from minority groups use different languages, many have different complexions and communicate differently according to their own customs. In other words, the

set of rules they use may be quite different from the majority group. The security and stability provided formerly by the homogeneous cultural setting simply do not exist in a broader multicultural environment. When they are moved from one cultural context to another, they may not be prepared to deal with the value judgements resulting from cultural differences.

Coopersmith (1975) summarizes the relation between self- concept and cultural reference in black children. He stated that as long as children remain within an environment (in this case, the black community) in which their culture is in the majority, they are able to maintain a positive self-concept. Coopersmith explained that black children need to be insulated against direct assaults upon their feelings by segregation from the White society which assigns a low status to black individuals. Unlike the black people in the past, no explicit low status is assigned to the Chinese immigrants in Canada. The Chinese immigrants do not need to be shielded from an inferior stigma. However, they have a choice among joining the larger society, remaining in their own ethnic group, or combining values from their culture and that of the predominant society.

According to Coopersmith's logic, Chinese immigrant children will have a positive self-concept as long as they remain within a consistent cultural context. When the Chinese immigrants choose to maintain their ethnicity, they are able to gain support from their cohesive Chinese community. When they choose to be assimilated, the Chinese immigrants eventually become a part of the larger society. In either case, Chinese immigrants become part of an

unique community. However, if they choose mixed culturalism, which would fall in the middle of the acculturation scale, they become a minority for they are only part of each of two cultures (the Chinese ethnicity and the Assimilated Chinese). In these instances, development of self-concept in their children may be affected.

Self-concept and Other Family Related Factors

Home environment is a major factor in the development of self-concept particularly for preschoolers whose activities take place predominantly at home. Much research has shown the importance of the home environment to children's self-concept (Bullock & Pennington, 1988; Davids, 1973; Gordon, 1983; Marjoribanks, 1977; Miller, 1984; Olowu, 1984; Olson, 1986; Rollins & White, 1982; Rutter, 1985). Within the home environment, there are many correlates of self-concept. The major correlates discussed here include socioeconomic status, family structure, parental attitudes and ethnic background.

Self-concept and socioeconomic status. Findings on the relationship between a child's self-concept and the socioeconomic status (SES) of his/her family are inconsistent regardless of the classifications of SES.

No consistency can be found in studies in which levels of SES are classified into two levels. Zimet and Farley (1984) compared the self-concept of emotionally disturbed and normal children. SES

of the subjects was found to be significantly and positively related to ratings of self-worth. Coleman (1985) investigated the effects of SES, special class placement, and achievement expectations on the self-concept of mildly handicapped children. The sample's SES was divided into two levels (high or low). Low SES subjects, in contrast to Zimet et al.'s findings, had higher self-concept scores than high SES subjects. Coleman suggested that the self-concept of mildly handicapped children from high SES levels were significantly lower than those of all other students due to their placement. Since mildly handicapped children from high SES were generally placed among the most capable students in special class, the influence of peer comparison hinders their perception of competence. Thus, high SES subjects remained inadequate academically in special class.

When SES is further divided into three levels (high, medium or low), more information is provided. Graham (1984) examined the influence of affective cues from others on black and white children. When the effect of affective cues was controlled, middle- class subjects showed a particularly adaptive attributional pattern and perceived themselves as more competent than the high and low SES subjects. Griffing and his associates (1983) sought to understand self- concept along with other dimensions in black children. Among high SES subjects, a positive relationship between achievement and self-concept scores was found, whereas such a relationship was predominantly negative among low SES subjects. Griffing et al.'s longitudinal analysis revealed that SES interacts

with other dimensions of the self. In 1973, Samuels studied the self-concept of lower and middle class black and white kindergarten children. Social class was determined based on parents' education and occupation. Findings indicated that SES was more influential than race in self-concept differences. Based on Samuels' supplementary information, subjects from larger families tended to have a lower self-concept. Such findings further illustrate that, in low SES families, the economic factor has a greater impact.

When more studies are reviewed, more contradictory results are presented. There are investigators who found low SES children to have higher self-concept scores than middle class children (Green & Rohwer, 1971; Trowbridge, 1970; Zirkel & Moses, 1971), while others found lower self-concept scores in low SES children than middle class children (Long & Henderson, 1968). There are also others who found no relationship between the two (Allen, 1978 and Stone, 1984). Wylie has suggested that the relationship of self-concept to socioeconomic status is inconsistent. In her thorough review, Wylie (1979) found no consistent relationship between socioeconomic level and over-all self- regard supported when research involving better known tests of self-regard or modifications of such tests were used.

Self-concept and parental attitudes. Within the family environment one would expect the influence of parents to be particularly important to young children's development and self-perception. Research on parental attitudes has generally supported this expectation.

In an assessment of the differences in the process by which mothers influenced the development of young children's academic self-concept, Baker and Entwisle (1987) noted a differential influence based on the sex of child. Their results showed that maternal influence on the child's academic self-concept was significant. Stone (1984) sought to determine the influence of achievement and SES on the self-concept of 7 to 13 year-olds in addition to the subjects' perceptions of parental expectations and family attitudes. Stone found that self-concept was more closely related to perceived parental expectations and family attitudes than with achievement or SES. From the results obtained from the Brown IDS Self Concept Test, Turner and Harris (1984) reported that children whose parents express attitudes indicating a focus on positive, nurturing aspects of child care feel better about themselves. Such feelings and perceptions of self are formed primarily during the early years (Felker, 1974). Furthermore, researchers have found that certain parental practices, such as consistency in discipline, are associated with competent behaviour in their children (Elardo & Freund, 1981; Lieberman, 1977; White & Watts, 1973)

Parental attitude toward the home environment is also found to be related to children's self-perception. Nelson (1984) noted a relationship between parents who perceived the family as high in cohesiveness and expressiveness and low in conflict and their children's self-concept and satisfaction with families. Fowler (1980) noted relationships among mother's perceptions of a less

cohesive family and their six-year-old children is developmental delay, speech-language deficients, aggression, and hostility. In Fowler's study, shyness and anxiety in children were associated with less structural organization as perceived by parents. Similarly, significantly lower self-concept scores were found among children who reported higher levels of family conflict (Raschke, 1979).

Although the development of a child's self-concept has been extensively studied in terms of the home environment, the information concerning other parental influences within the family is incomplete. Missing from the literature are studies which explore the links between parental attitudes on acculturation and young children's self-concept. Only one study has suggested a link between these factors. Gecas (1973) explored self-concept in terms of the identity patterns and self-evaluation of migrant and settled Mexican Americans. Findings showed the most important source of security was the family. For both adults and children, he found that the most salient family bond is that of parent-child and ethnic identity. Gecas' findings suggest that parents' cultural attitudes directly influence their young children's self-concept. This occurs because children develop their self-concept within a cultural context.

Self-concept of Ethnic Children

The significance of studying self-concept in immigrant children is further illustrated by reviewing research conducted with ethnic groups. In adults, self-concept has been shown to be crucial to social interaction and processing information (Rogers, Kuiper & Kirker, 1977; Ross & Sicoly, 1979). In children, a variety of factors have been identified as related to the development of self-concept in ethnic preschool children. These factors are basically related to achievement, interaction with others, emotional behaviour, and self-perception.

Hare (1981) noted that self-concept is highly related to academic **achievement** among both Caucasians and Orientals. It is also a better predictor of achievement than is IQ for both Black and Caucasian children (Harootunin & Morse, 1968). Scheerer and Kraut (1979) point out that change in self- concept is likely an outcome of increased achievement and accompanying social approval. Self-concept and **interaction with others** are also found to be positively correlated. Among Caucasians and Africans, opportunities to interact result in a more favorable self-concept (Fu, Hinkle & Korslund, 1983). Further, personal self-concept and social self-concept of preschoolers significantly predict popularity and the formation of friendships (Drewry & Clark, 1985). On the other hand, lack of an adequate self-concept has been found to be related to anxiousness, hyperactivity and overall disturbed behaviour among preschoolers (Bruneau, 1984). Bruneau found that inadequate positive self-concept and negative ethnic implications

may result in **emotional disturbance** in young children. An **individual's perceptions,** feelings, and cognitions of how one has been treated by other people is another important determinant of one's self-concept. As Crooks (1970) reports, that black preschoolers received more positive reinforcement from others in an interracial program in which racial differences are valued.

From the above research, one can appreciate that children's self-concept, emotional well-being and self-perceptions are interwoven. These are all important factors in the development of children from ethnic families. Most studies of the impact of ethnicity on overall self-concept have found no differences for diverse ethnic groups (Boger & Knoght, 1969; Cicirelli, 1974; Samuels & Griffore, 1979; Walker, Bane & Bryk, 1973). This implies that it is not the kind of ethnicity but perhaps the availability of a consistent cultural belief system that matters in an individual's development of self-concept.

Jensen (1980) has claimed that children's self-perception of developmental competence and adequacy in their cultural environment influence their self-concept. Thus, it seems likely that the kind of cultural environment as well as factors relating to acculturation would determine a child's self-concept. Thus, the purpose of the present study was to investigate the relation of mother's acculturation and children's self- concept.

Measures of self-concept and Acculturation

Self-concept

Constructs such as self-concept and self-esteem have had a long history within the field of psychology. There are chapters in many textbooks on child psychology devoted to the consideration of theory and research on self-concept in children and adolescents. Harter and Pike (1984), Henderson (1983) and Cicirelli (1974) suggest that the structure of the self becomes more differentiated with age. Most of the empirical research is, however, based on adults and older children. Relatively few published studies have been conducted with very young children (Keller, Ford & Meacham, 1978; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; McCandless, 1967). In fact, the lack of adequate instruments, particularly for young children, has been mentioned by many researchers (Burns, 1979; Coller, 1971; Raizen & Bobrow, 1974; Wylie, 1979).

An overview of the self-concept research literature reveals that psychologists have difficulty in reaching agreement on a functional definition of self-concept and on methods for evaluating the construct (McCandless, 1973). Many researchers devise their own measures, each with unique theoretical definitions and methodologies to measure the construct. Some have attempted to develop self-concept measures such as rating instruments administered to parents or teachers (Hughes & Pugh, 1984; McDaniel, 1967) or behavioural observation instruments (Combs, Soper & Courson, 1963; Purkey & Cage, 1973). There are, again, different opinions in evaluating these research methods. Henderson (1983)

states that the confusion resulting from various methods often causes the total accumulation of self-concept research data to be inconclusive and restricts the formation of meaningful interpretations and synthesis. Other researchers state that reports from different sources of data should be treated as independent observations, each with valuable information to contribute (Bridgeman & Shipman, 1978; Combs, Soper & Courson, 1963; Soule, Drummond & McIntire, 1981).

Instruments for assessing the self-concept of young children can generally be classified into three broad types, each with its own conceptual and methodological difficulties and limitations (Cicirelli, 1974). First, **rating instruments,** which are administered to parents or teachers, require that raters have a thorough knowledge and accurate and unbiased perceptions of children (Jensen, 1985). In 1976, White and Human studied the relationship of the self-concept of 3-, 4- and 5-year-old children with mother, father and teacher perceptions. They found that parents and teachers share common adult criteria of young children's self/social constructs, but these criteria may be quite different from those of children 3 to 5 years of age. Second, **observation instruments,** which can be time-consuming to complete and require trained observers (Jensen, 1985), are cumbersome to use and typically sample only a limited segment of behaviour (Cicirelli, 1974). Third, **direct measurement** of self-concept through self-report is considered to be the best source of information about the child's self-perception (Cicirelli, 1974;

Jensen, 1985). Research has demonstrated that even 3-year-old children can describe how they perceive themselves (Harter & Pike, 1984; Keller, Ford & Meacham, 1978; & L'Ecuyer, 1981).

In particular, young children's self-judgements are found to be involved when they describe specific activities, such as finishing puzzles, catching balls and playing with peers (Harter & Pike, 1984; Keller, Ford & Meacham, 1978; Smart, 1978). A pictorial format is also considered to be appropriate by many researchers as it engages the young child's interest, is understandable, sustains the child's attention, and leads to more meaningful responses (Cicirelli, 1974; Harter & Pike, 1984; Joseph, 1979; Piers, 1983; Thomas, 1969). As McGuire and Padawer-Singer stated (1976), spontaneous descriptions are particularly useful as a way of discovering attributes that are salient and cognitively available to the subject. Thus, an instrument with a pictorial format showing mainly the action dimension of self-awareness is most appropriate in measuring preschool children's self-concept.

Acculturation

Language, food habits and media choices are factors frequently used to identify degree of acculturation. Language is a factor that has been included in several studies. Taylor, Hurley and Riley (1986) determined acculturation from the primary language spoken by the family. Language is also used by Martinez, Norman and Delaney (1984) together with food preference and general cultural exposure. Jasmine (1981), on the other hand, uses parent

education, level of income and urbanization in determining acculturation.

Further, most of the studies consider the acculturation process as a continuum indicated by degrees or levels (Escover & Lazarus, 1982; Jasmin, 1981; Martinez, et al., 1984; Taylor, et al., 1986; Yu & Harburg, 1981). In respect to the use of rating scales as the instrument for degree of acculturation, Jasmin (1981), for example, points out that the middle portions of the scale, from not acculturated to totally acculturated, represent a deprivation of culture. Such individuals hold values from neither their old nor their new culture.

In view of the above findings, self-administered questionnaires including language, daily practices and customs, and idealized life style is the most appropriate for measuring the individual's acculturation level. The questionnaire for this study is adapted from the Szapocznik, Scopetta, Kurtines and Aranalde's Behavioral Acculturation Scale (1978) which includes all the above features.

Statement of the Problem

It is important when studying self-concept that the developmental processes be examined within the individual's social context and reference groups (Brinthaupt, 1985; Hare, 1981; Spurlock, 1986). Within such contexts, the family's level of acculturation can be estimated. According to Franco (1983), level of acculturation is a significant factor in the development of

self-concept in children. As the significant other in the child's life, the mother is the vital link for the child with nonfamilial social contexts. As mothers are the primary agent of socialization, their attitudes towards cultural adaptation are expected to influence their children which, in turn, are expected to affect the children's development of self-concept. This occurs both directly through mother-child interaction and indirectly through the types of environments and environmental interactions she provides for her children.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relation between acculturation level of Chinese immigrant mothers and their children's self-concept. The independent variable was the level of mothers' acculturation. Mother's acculturation level was classified into high (assimilation), medium (mixed culturalism), and low (ethnicity). The dependent variable was the degree of positive self- concept in Chinese immigrant children.

In the present study, self-concept was defined as the **general conception of oneself.** Self-concept referred to an individual's attitudes towards his/her own characteristics and his/her evaluation of these characteristics in relation to others. As such, self-concept was multidimensional including physical self, social self, cognitive self and self-esteem. **Physical self** referred to an individual's own perception resulting from others' reflections on his/her physical appearance and performances. **Social self** was one's experience in interacting with others. **Cognitive self** referred to one's opinion of his/her intellectual

abilities including language and mental skills. **Self-esteem** was considered the evaluation dimension of the self-concept. It was the value one places upon the the above three dimensions of self-concept, which together constituted the general self- concept of an individual.

Specifically, three hypotheses for this exploratory study were as follows.

Hypothesis I

Children of Chinese immigrant mothers who are on the middle range of acculturation (i.e., mixed culturalism) will score lower on positive self-concept than children of Chinese immigrant mothers who are either low or high on the scale (i.e., ethnicity or assimilation).

When a Chinese immigrant mother is highly acculturated (assimilation), she provides a clear set of values which is coherent in many respects. Her set of values is derived from the society at large. Not only does she adhere to a set of Westernized values herself, she also structures her family environment accordingly. Her children are likely to validate their reciprocity rules such that they conform to social expectations. As in the concept of the "looking-glass self" (Cooley, 1902 & Mead, 1934), many of a child's practices will be validated and reflected positively by the society at large. Such children are likely to perceive themselves positively and have a positive self-concept.

When a Chinese immigrant mother has a low level of acculturation, she possess values which closely follow Chinese traditions and customs (ethnicity). Her family's activities are likely to be structured around a Chinese community. Her children can constantly receive positive responses as their practices are in accordance with the Chinese community--the immediate environment. Besides, children at their younger ages perceive themselves mainly from their mothers' perception of them (Sullivan, 1953). Children whose mothers clearly identify Chinese ethnicity are more likely to find it easy to develop a distinct Chinese identity. Even though they do not hold the values of their adopted country, self-concept is likely to be positive among children with mothers who possess clear Chinese ethnicity.

On the other hand, Chinese immigrant mothers at the middle range of acculturation give "double messages" to their children. They do not hold a distinct set of values but a mixture of values from both new and old cultures. Their family environment orients between two set of values, Western values and Chinese values, which are dramatically different. Children whose mothers are on the middle range of the acculturation scale inevitably have to justify two sets of values. However, children's logical thinking is not well developed at such young ages. They are not yet at the point of making value judgments. As chances of inappropriate application of value rules increase, Chinese immigrant children are more likely to be negatively reflected by others. Thus, without a distinct set of values, Chinese immigrant children whose mothers score in the

middle range of the acculturation scale are more likely to score lower on positive self-concept.

In conclusion, Chinese immigrant children from a family with a single set of clearly identified cultural values, whether acquired through assimilation or retained from traditions, are more likely to have a positive self-concept.

Hypothesis II

Socioeconomic status does not affect children's positive self-concept at any of the three levels of acculturation (assimilation, mixed-culturation or ethnicity).

In view of the literature review, no consistent relationship between self-concept and socioeconomic status is reported. Therefore, it was expected that the family's socioeconomic status would not affect the positive self-concept of children of mothers from any of the levels of acculturation.

Hypothesis III

Children of Chinese immigrant mothers whose real life style is different from their ideal or aspired life style will score lower on positive self-concept.

It is believed that the less clear the model of acculturation presented by the mother, the less clear the child's cultural values which, in turn, results in a lower positive self-concept. It is

difficult for young children to follow a model whose teaching (mother's aspired life-style) is different from her practices (mother's real life-style). Chinese immigrant mothers who give contradictory messages produce threats to their children's organization of values. According to Lecky's theory of the development of self- concept (1945), such threats to a child's personality will lead to feelings of distress. Consequently, lower scores on the positive self-concept scale are likely to be found among Chinese immigrant children whose mothers' real and aspired life styles are inconsistent.

This differs from mixed-culturation because the lack of clear cultural identity may indicate a stage in the process of acculturation. If individuals are still in the process towards acculturation, their scores on the idealized life style items will be higher than their scores on the present practice items. Such individuals may eventually moved onto assimilation instead of having mixed-culturation as their ultimate lifestyle.

The extent of the self-concept measure as a function of intellectual maturity was also examined. According to Harris (1963), intellectual maturity means the ability to form concepts of increasingly abstract character. As children draw familiar objects, they include the essential elements according to their own judgement. Thus, from the children's figure drawings, their concepts of people and level of intellectual maturity were examined.

METHOD

Sampling Procedure

The sample consisted of 45 Chinese immigrant mother-and-child pairs. The mothers were immigrants whose children were born either in or out of Canada and were within the age range of 3 to 5 years.

Mother-and-child pairs were obtained through three sources. First, the study was described during Parent meetings in two Chinese churches in Winnipeg and letters explaining the general nature of the study together with consent forms (Appendix A) were distributed. Secondly, supervisors of two day care centres, one in Winnipeg and the other in Toronto, also distributed letters and consent forms to Chinese immigrant parents of children 3 to 5 years of age. Thirdly, participating parents also recommended other Chinese immigrant families with preschoolers either by distributing letters or by making phone calls. Approximately 60 letters with consent forms were distributed and 45 families responded. This represents a response rate of 75% of the families that the researcher attempted to contact.

Parents willing to participate in the study were invited to return the consent form. After the signed consent form was returned in a self-addressed envelope, the researcher scheduled an interview at a time most convenient to the mother. The entire

interview was given by the same investigator who was fluent in both English and Chinese.

Instruments

Mother's Acculturation Level

The degree of acculturation of Chinese immigrant mothers was measured by a self-administered questionnaire (Appendix B) adapted from Szapocznik, Scopetta, Kurtines and Aranalde's (1978) 'Behavioral Acculturation Scale'. The Behavioral Acculturation Scale was originally designed to account for the occurrence of intergenerational or acculturational differences in immigrant families. The original scale contained 24 self-reported behavior items: 8 items on language, 7 items on daily customs and habits and 9 items on idealized life style. It was constructed in Spanish and translated into English. The coefficient alpha for the behavioral acculturation scale was .97. The test-retest correlation for the behavioral acculturation scale was .96,

For the present study, Szapocznik et al.'s Behavioral Acculturation Scale was modified to suit the Chinese immigrant population. Mothers were asked to report, on a five-point scale, the relative frequency with which they engaged in each behaviour. For the first five of twenty questions, mothers were asked to report on the language they spoke in different situations such as at work, at home or with friends. For items 6 to 10, activity related questions were asked in regard to their actual practices such as their way of celebrating birthdays. Finally, items 11 to

20 referred to cultural preferences in relation to, for example, food, books and magazines, etc.

Following the procedure developed by Szapocznik et al., each item was scored between one, representing a low level of acculturation, to five, representing a high level of acculturation. The items were scored using unit weights: A=1, B=2, C=3, D=4 and E=5. An acculturation score was obtained by summing the weighted scores of the 20 items. For the present study, the three levels of acculturation were defined be dividing the total sample into three equal groups, the one-third of respondents who scored highest, the third who scored about the midpoint, and the third who scored lowest. Accordingly, those who scored between 20 and 40 were classified as low level of acculturation, between 41 and 60 was as medium level of acculturation, 61 to 81 as a high level of acculturation.

Similarly, the weighted scores from items 1 to 10 (score for real life style) were compared to the weighted scores from items 11 to 20 (score for ideal life style). The difference between these two sets of scores was used as the measure of discrepancy of the mother's values in her real and ideal life situations.

Children's Self-Concept

Based on the literature review, instruments with pictorial format showing mainly the action dimension of self-awareness are the most appropriate kinds for measuring preschoolers'

self-concept. The Purdue Self-Concept Scale for Preschool Children
(PSCS), a pictorial instrument,   was used in measuring Chinese
children's self-concept (Appendix C).   Studies have shown that the
Purdue Self-concept Scale for Preschool Children is suitable for
measuring the self-concept of minority children (Burge,   1982;
Henderson & Abrams, 1983; Samuels & Griffore, 1979).

According to Cicirelli (1974), the PSCS is designed to assess
the evaluative component of self-concept in preschool children of
ages three, four,   and five.   The evaluative component includes
physical skills, social skills, language skills, thinking skills,
appearance, knowledge, self confidence, and global impression of
the child's confidence.   Based on the positive correlations found
between teacher ratings and the PSCS scores on each of the above
eight dimensions, the construct validity of the PSCS is supported
(Table 1).   The positive correlations were obtained from 150
four-year- olds attending nursery schools and day care centres.

TABLE 1

Correlations of Teacher Ratings and PSCS Scores

N=150

Child Characteristics	r
Physical skills	.19*
Social skills	.26**
Language skills	.26**
Thinking skills	.31**
Appearance skills	.24**
Knowledge	.28**
Self confidence	.24**
Global impression of child's confidence	.36**
Total rating score	.41**

* Significant at the .05 level
** Significant at the .01 level

The test, which is designed to be administered individually, requires the child to select one of a pair of stick-figure pictures which is most like him/her. In scoring the PSCS, the child is given one point if he/she selects the more positive response alternative or zero for the less positive response alternative. The total score is the sum of the item scores in which a high score reflects a more positive self-concept. The total score can range from 0 to 40.

Jensen (1985) reports that the PSCS has the strongest claims among three other similar scales. Cicirelli reports in his manual (1974), the following validity and reliability of the PSCS. The correlation between the PSCS scores and the composite teacher rating scores was .41 (p =.01). The internal consistency for a group of 312 preschoolers (KP-20) was .86. The test-retest

reliability coefficient for a two-week period was .70. The test was established as unbiased for either sex or ethnicity. The point-biserial correlation between sex and total score on the PSCS was only .02. With 100 black children ranging in age from 4 years 0 months to 5 years 11 months, the internal consistency of the PSCS was .88.

Children's Intellectual Maturity

The Goodenough-Harris Drawing Test (GHDT) (1963) was used as a supplementary test. The GHDT is designed for measuring intellectual maturity of children. Strongly positive correlations have been found with the Stanford-Binet and Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (Harris, 1963). It is widely used in many psychological studies with preschoolers (Kifune & Fukada, 1983; Saracho, 1986; Strommen & Smith, 1987). It is a pencil and paper test which requires the child to draw a man figure, a woman figure and a picture of self. The drawing of self is included as a possible avenue for studying the emerging self-concept. In addition, the child is encouraged to describe what he/she have drawn. With the child's permission, remarks of the child are written down on the pictures for scoring purpose. There is no time limit for the test. A Man Point Scale and a Woman Point Scale (Appendix D) are available for scoring. Tables are available to convert Raw scores from the drawings to standard scores. (See tables 2, 3, 4 and 5 in the appendix.) An average standard score, which represents a combined estimate of the child's intellectual

maturity, can be calculated. Standard scores can also be interpreted in terms of percentiles. (See Table 6 in the appendix.) A percentile rank shows the relative standing of a child in a theoretical group of 100. A percentile rank 65, for example, means that a child ranks 65th from the bottom of a theoretical group of 100 children of his/her age. For the present study, only standard scores were used for comparisons among the subjects.

Saracho (1984) has found the GHDT correlates highly with two other scales. In her study, male and female drawings were collected from 300 randomly selected three- four- and five-year-olds. Judges independently rated the drawings with the Articulation of the Body-Concept (ABC) Scale and with the GHDT scale. Test-retest reliability estimates for GHDT are from .88 to .95. Interrater reliability estimates are from .87 to .99. The validity of the GHDT was examined by correlating the GHDT and ABC Scale as well as the GHDT and the Preschool Embedded Figures Test (PEFT). The correlation between GHDT and PEFT was .99; between GHDT and ABC Scale ranged from .85 to .92. These correlations highly support the validity of the GHDT.

Socioeconomic status

The Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations (Pineo, Porter & McRoberts, 1977), called the CCDO, was used to measure the subjects' socioeconomic status. The structure of the CCDO is an alternative arrangement with a high value for

sociological analysis. With the use of the occupational classification numbers coded in the Blishen Socioeconomic Index (Blishen & McRoberts, 1976) the vast majority of responses to an occupation question can be coded into occupational categories. In the CCDO, occupations are rated in terms of socioeconomic status including education and income characteristics. In this study, subjects' occupations were grouped into 5 levels of occupational categories: 1= professionals, 2= high level management and semi-professionals, 3= low level management and skilled labours, 4= semi-skilled and unskilled labours and 5= homemakers. It is important to note that level 5, homemakers was not classified in the CCDO, but was added as a supplementary class. (See Appendix E for some examples of the listed occupations.)

Data Collection Procedures

The data was collected via an in-person interview. The interview session began with a few minutes of acquaintance with the mother and child. The investigator briefly explained the nature of the study. The mother was requested to remain but not to interact with her child. While the child was responding to the Purdue Self-Concept Scale for Preschool Children and drawing human figures, the mother was requested to complete the questionnaire which included the acculturation scale and demographic items. The majority of the interviews were conducted in the respondent's home. Homemakers were usually interviewed during the day; working mothers, in the evening or on weekends. Thirty per cent of the

interviews were conducted at the day care centres where quiet separate rooms were pre-arranged.

The interviews lasted from 45 to 75 minutes depending on the responses given by the subjects. In one instance, the child responded to each picture by mentioning a school incident. That particular interview lasted 75 minutes. The majority of the interviews, however, were about 45 minutes. Time spent specifically on testing the child's self-concept and intellectual maturity was about 15-minutes.

Interviews were conducted in either English, Chinese or both at the subject's request. Twenty-six children preferred the use of English, 13 children preferred the use of Chinese and 6 children used both languages. All the mothers filled out the questionnaire in English except five of them who required a little translation by the investigator.

The mother's questionnaire and score sheets for the Purdue Self-Concept Scale for Preschool Children and the Goodenough-Harris Drawing Test were identified by code numbers only.

RESULTS

Description of the Sample

General Characteristics

Descriptive data of the Chinese immigrant children in this study
are presented in Table 2. The sample consisted of 45 Chinese
immigrant children including 22 females and 23 males. The age
range was 36 to 71 months. There were 16 (35.6%) 3-year-olds, 12
(26.7%) 4-year-olds, and 17 (37.8%) 5-year-olds. There were 35
(77.8%) children who were born in Canada, 5 (11.1%) children who
were two years old or less at immigration, and 5 (11.1%) children
who were between 2 to 4 years old at immigration. Twenty four
(53.3%) of the children were first born, 14 (31.1%) children were
2nd born, 5 (11.1%) children were 3rd born, and 2 (4.4%) children
were 4th born. Thirty-seven (82.2%) of the children regularly
attended nursery schools or day care centres.

Characteristics of the parents are presented in Table 3. Of the
45 participating mothers, three were single mothers. The majority
of the mothers (n =35, 77.8%) were from Hong Kong. Half of the
mothers (n =23, 51.1%) were less than 35 years of age. There were
17 (37.8%) mothers aged between 35 to 39 years while 5 (11.1%)
mothers were older than 39 years of age. Their length of time in
Canada varied from less than 5 years (n =12, 26.7%), between 5 to

TABLE 2

Characteristics of the Children by Sex Differences

N=45

	Male	Female	Total
Age (in months)			
36-47	10	6	16
48-59	3	9	12
60-71	10	7	17
Age at Immigration (in months)			
born in Canada	16	19	35
3-24	4	1	5
36-48	3	2	5
Birth Order			
1st	14	10	24
2nd	5	9	14
3rd	3	2	5
4th	1	1	2
Nursery School Attendance			
Yes	3	5	8
No	20	17	37

10 years ($\underline{n}$ =11, 24.4%) and more than 10 years ($\underline{n}$ =22, 48.9%). Most of the mothers ($\underline{n}$ =38, 84.4%) could speak both Chinese and English. There were 18 (40%) mothers who were university graduates or professional post graduates, 22 (48.9%) who were high school graduates with or without some college training, and 5 (11.1%) who had some high school education or less. Of the five socioeconomic categories, 21 (46.7%) mothers were categorized as homemakers and 5 (11.1%) mothers were categorized as professionals.

There were 42 fathers in the sample due to the fact that 3 of the mothers were single mothers. Similar to the mothers, the

majority ($\underline{n}$ =28, 66.7%) were from Hong Kong. Most of the fathers ($\underline{n}$ =25, 59.5%) were between 35 to 39 years of age. There were 9 (21.4%) fathers younger than 35 years and 8 (19.1%) fathers older than 39 years old. Half of the fathers (21) had been in Canada for more than 10 years, 11 (26.2%) for less than 5 years and 10 (23.8%) for 5 to 10 years. Almost all the fathers $\underline{n}$ =37, 88.1%) could speak both Chinese and English and were university graduates or professional post graduates ($\underline{n}$ =28, 66.7%). Similar numbers of fathers were professionals ($\underline{n}$ =16, 38.1%) and nonprofessionals ($\underline{n}$ =17, 40.5%). (For the purpose of data analysis, means of the fathers characteristics were substituted to replace missing values in families with single mothers.)

TABLE 3

Characteristics of the Parents

	Mothers N=45	Fathers N=42	Total N=87
Age (in years)			
<=34	23	9	32
35-39	17	25	42
>39	5	8	13
Country of Origin			
Hong Kong	35	28	63
China	1	1	2
Malaysia	2	7	9
Singapore	1	0	1
Vietnam	6	6	12
No. of years in Canada			
<5	12	11	23
5-10	11	10	21
>10	22	21	43
Languages Spoken			
Chinese only	7	5	12
Chinese and English	38	37	75
Highest Level of Education			
High school grad. or less	11	7	18
Some college training	16	7	23
Bachelor degrees	14	16	20
Master's or Ph.D. degrees	4	12	16
Socioeconomic Status			
Professionals	5	16	21
Semi-professionals	3	9	11
Non-professionals	16	17	33
Homemakers	21	0	21

Characteristics of the families are presented in Table 4. Of the 45 participating families, 28 (62.2%) had 1 to 2 children and 17 (37.8%) families had 3 to 5 children. There were 34 (75.6%) families who were living alone with a husband, a wife and their

children, 8 (17.8%) families lived with one other relative, and 3 (6.7%) families lived with 3 to 5 other relatives. When the mother was at work or not available, 24 (53.3%) families relied on relatives, 12 (26.7%) on day care centres, and 9 (20%) on babysitters to care for their children. Twenty-seven (60%) families preferred a Chinese nursery school, if available, for their preschoolers.

TABLE 4

Characteristics of the Families

N=45

	1-2 Children	3-5 Children	Total
No. Relatives within the Same Household			
0	25	9	34
1	2	6	8
3-5	1	2	3
Other Persons Taking Care of the Child			
Babysitters	4	5	9
Day Care	11	1	12
Relatives	13	11	24
Chinese Nursery School Preference			
Yes	12	6	18
No	16	11	27

Acculturational Characteristics of the Mothers

Acculturation scores of the mothers are presented in Table 5. The weighted acculturation scores of the 45 immigrant mothers' ranged from 20 to 81 with a mean of 53.2. The real life scores (the weighted scores from items 1 to 10) ranged from 10 to 41 with a mean of 26.4. The ideal life scores (the weighted scores from items 11 to 20) ranged from 10 to 41 with a mean of 26.8. The measure of discrepancy of the mothers' values in their real and ideal life situations (scores from real life style minus scores from ideal life style) ranged from -7 to 8 with a mean of -0.4. When the mothers' acculturation scores were divided into three levels (High=60 to 81, Medium=36 to 59, Low=20 to 35), there were 16 (35.6%) mothers who scored high, 19 (42.2%) mothers who scored medium, and 10 (22.2%) mothers who scored low.

TABLE 5

Means, Standard Deviation and Ranges of Acculturation Scores

N=45

	N	Mean	S.D.	Range
Acculturation Score		53.2	14.72	20-81
High	16	66.3	6.66	60-81
Medium	19	54.7	3.74	36-59
Low	10	29.6	5.30	20-35
Real Life Score (RLS)		26.4	7.72	10-41
10-15	5			
16-22	7			
23-29	17			
30-36	13			
37-41	3			
Ideal Life Score(ILS)		26.8	7.35	10-41
10-15	6			
16-22	4			
23-29	13			
30-36	19			
37-41	3			
Discrepancy btn. RLS & ILS		-0.4	3.46	-7-+8

Children's Self Concept and Intellectual Characteristics

Chinese immigrant children's self-concept and intellectual maturity mean scores are presented in Table 6. The children's self-concept scores measured by the Purdue Self-Concept Scale for Preschool Children ranged from 21 to 40 with a mean of 34.0 and standard deviation of 4.58. Based on the Goodenough-Harris Drawing Test, the children's standard scores of intellectual maturity ranged from 70.5 to 142 with a mean of 94.9 and standard deviation of 16.30. The self figure (SF) scores ranged from 70 to 137 with a mean of 93.4 and standard deviation of 15.27. The same sex adult figure (AF) scores were ranged from 68 to 146 with a mean of 94.2

and standard deviation of 18.24. The discrepancy scores between SF
and AF (SF-AF) ranged from -18 to 15 with a mean of -0.8 and
standard deviation of 7.48.

TABLE 6

Standard Scores for Self-concept and Intellectual Maturity

N=45

	Mean	S.D.	Range
Purdue Self Concept Score	34.0	4.58	21-40
Goodenough Harris Drawing Test			
Intellectual Maturity	94.9	16.30	70.5 - 142
Self Figure(SF)	93.4	15.27	70 - 137
Adult Figure(AF)	94.2	18.24	68 - 146
SF - AF	-0.8	7.48	-18 - +15

Hypothesis Testing

HYPOTHESIS I

Children of Chinese immigrant mothers who are on the middle range of acculturation (i.e., mixed culturalism) will score lower on positive self-concept than children of Chinese immigrant mothers who are either low or high on the scale (i.e., ethnicity or assimilation).

The mean self-concept score for children whose mothers were at the low acculturation level is 31.8, for those at the medium acculturation level, 34.3, and for those at the high acculturation level, 35.2 (Table 7). Analysis of variance indicates no evidence of difference between the means of self-concept, F (2, 42)=1.78, p =.18. Therefore, the hypothesis that a mixed acculturation pattern shown by mothers would decrease their children's positive self-concept is not supported. Rather, children's self-concept scores correlate positively, r (45)=.35, p <.05, with mother's acculturation scores (Table 8) suggesting that mothers who are more assimilated tend to have children with a higher positive self-concept than children with less culturally assimilated mothers.

TABLE 7

Means and Standard Deviations of Children's

Self-concept Scores Relative to Mothers' Acculturation

N=45

	Acculturation Level		
	High	Medium	Low
Children's Self-concept			
Mean	35.2	34.3	31.8
Standard Deviation	3.47	4.75	5.43

HYPOTHESIS II

Socioeconomic status does not affect children's positive self-concept at any of the three levels of acculturation (assimilation, mixed-culture or ethnicity).

Correlations between self-concept (SC) and socioeconomic status (SES) are shown in Table 8. Children's self-concept scores correlate negatively with both the SES level of the family, r (45)=−.32, p <.05, and the father, r (45)=−.37, p <.01. Since the codes for the occupational categories are in descending value (for examples, 1=professionals and 4=semi-skilled and unskilled labours), such a correlation indicates that the higher the SES level the higher the children's self-concept. Mothers' acculturation scores are also negatively correlated with the SES levels of both the families, r (45)=−.54, p <.001 and fathers', r (45)=−.56, p <.001.

TABLE 8

Pearson Correlation Coefficients

between Self-concept and SES

N=45

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Self-concept						
2.Intellectual Maturity	-.09					
3.Acculturation Score	.35*	.08				
4.Family's SES	-.32*	-.20	-.54***			
5.Father's SES	-.37**	-.13	-.56***	.56***		
6.Mother's SES	.18	.13	.18	.72***	-.19	
7.Child's Age	.13	.30*	-.02	.03	-.14	.15

* Significant at the .05 level
** Significant at the .01 level
*** Significant at the .001 level

HYPOTHESIS III

Children of Chinese immigrant mothers whose real life style is different from their ideal or aspired life style will score lower on positive self-concept.

Pearson correlation between children's self-concept and mothers' discrepancy between real life and ideal life styles (DLS) is r =.24, p =.12. Mother's life styles' discrepancy shows no effect on their children's self-concept. Therefore, the data do not support Hypothesis III.

The Pearson correlation coefficient between mother's real life style and ideal life style is r (45)=.90, p <.001. Children's self-concept is significantly correlated with both mother's real life style and ideal life style, r (45)=.38, p <.01 and r (45)=.29, p <.05 respectively. Thus, mothers who are more assimilated in their real life style and/or their ideal life style have higher positive self-concept children than less assimilated mothers. No other significant correlation was found between children's self-concept and mother's characteristics.

TABLE 9

Correlations of Children's Self-concept

and Mothers' Life Styles

N=45

Mothers' Life Styles	r
Real life Score (RLS)	.38***
Ideal life Score (ILS)	.29**
Discrepancy between RLS and ILS	.24*

* Significant at the .12 level
** Significant at the .05 level
*** Significant at the .01 level

Analysis on Self-concept and Other Factors

Additional analyses were done to explore other factors that may contribute to the Chinese immigrant children's self-concept. Pearson correlation coefficients were analyzed between self-concept and the child's age at immigration, number of older and younger siblings, number of children in the family, birth order, number of other relatives in the same household, total number of people in the same household, mother's and father's length of time in Canada, mother's and father's education levels, and mother's and father's ages. Five variables found to be significantly correlated with children's self-concept are shown in Table 10.

TABLE 10

Correlations of Children's Self-concept

and Other Variables

N=45

	r
Child's Age at Immigration	-.28*
# of Other Family Members	-.45****
# of Total Household Members	-.33**
Father's Age	-.37***
Father's Education	.33**

* Significant at the .07 level
** Significant at the .03 level
*** Significant at the .01 level
**** Significant at the .001 level

Chinese immigrant children who came to Canada at a younger age or who were born in Canada tend to have a higher positive self-concept than children who came at an older age $r = (45) = -.28$, $p < .07$. Number of family members also affects Chinese immigrant children's self-concept. The fewer other family members (i.e., relatives other than the child's parents and siblings), the higher is the child's self-concept $r (45) = -.45$, $p < .001$. When considering the total number of people within the same household, children living with fewer family members have a higher self-concept than children living with more family members $r (45) = -.33$, $p < .03$. In addition, Chinese immigrant children with younger fathers have a higher self-concept than children with older fathers $r (45) = -.37$, $p < .01$. Children of more educated fathers also have a higher self-concept than children of less educated fathers ($r (45) = .33$, $p < .03$).

Partial correlations of variables significantly associated with children's self-concept were analyzed to remove the effect of third variables on the correlation ($r = .35$) between self-concept and acculturation (Table 11). Variables which were partialled out of correlations with self-concept included family SES, father's SES, child's age at immigration, number of total household members, father's age and father's education level.

TABLE 11

Correlations of Children's Self-concept

and Acculturation with Partial Variables

N=45

Variables	with Self-concept	with Acculturation	Self-concept with Acculturation	
	r	r	$r*$	p
Family SES	-.32	-.54	.22	.15
Father's SES	-.37	-.56	.19	.22
Child's age at immigration	-.28	-.47	.26	.09
No. of household members	-.33	-.30	.28	.07
Father's age	-.37	-.30	.27	.08
Father's education level	.33	.62	.19	.21

*the partialled r value

The correlation of self-concept with acculturation after partialling out these third factors is no longer significant at the defined p <.05 level. However, there still remains a tendency for self-concept to be associated with acculturation after the child's age at immigration, number of total household members, and father's age have been partialled out.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of the present study was to focus on the relation
between Chinese immigrant mothers' acculturation and their
children's self-concept. Mothers with either a high level or low
level acculturation were predicted to have children with a higher
self-concept than children with mothers of medium acculturation.
The findings from this study indicate that the predicted
curvilinear relationship between mothers' acculturation and
children's self-concept was not supported. Their relationship,
however, is linear. A similar relationship was found by Franco
(1983) between highly acculturated Anglos children and their
self-concept. Thus, children of highly acculturated Chinese
immigrant mothers are more likely to have a higher self-concept
than children of less acculturated mothers.

Based on the inconsistent findings of current literature, the
effect of socioeconomic status (SES) on acculturation level and
self-concept was hypothesized as zero. In contrast, this study's
findings suggest the family's SES is siginificantly related to
children's self-concept. This finding is consistent with prior
research by Deosoran (1978) showing a relationship between lower
SES and lower self-concept. Family's SES is also significantly
related to mother's acculturation. Thus, children with a high
positive self-concept are likely to have highly acculturated
mothers who are likely to be from high SES families.

Mothers with inconsistent values between real and ideal life styles were predicted to have children with a lower self-concept. This was not found. One reason is there is little difference between mothers' real and ideal life styles. Another reason is the two life styles are highly related.

The hypotheses of this study were developed from the model shown in Figure 1. In the model, immigrant children's cultural context is shown as influenced by both the parent's cultural alternatives and by the larger society which provides various resources such as materials, support groups, different customs and official languages. These are universally regarded as social assets. In this study, family's SES is the major variable representing social assets. Since both acculturation and family's SES are important in children's self-concept, the implication of the model is sustained. However, the correlation between SES and acculturation, and the correlations of each of these factors with children's self-concept, suggests that the development of self-concept in 3 to 5 years old children is affected not just by mother's level acculturation, but also by the socioeconomic status of the family.

Acculturation and Self-concept

In this study, children with highly acculturated mothers have a higher self-concept than children with less acculturated mothers. Using Coopersmith's logic (1975), consistency in children's cultural context remains important. Mother's level of acculturation alone does not account for the level of children's

self-concept. Environmental, and more specifically, family factors contribute to the development of a positive self-concept in 3 to 5 years old children. For example, fathers with a high level of education have children with a higher self-concept than those who are less educated.

There are few studies of acculturation and self-concept. The available findings (Barnes & Brent, 1982; Franco, 1983; Gecas, 1973 & Lefley, 1976) were obtained from older children which were not comparable to this study's preschool sample. It appears that age is an important factor. As illustrated in Leftey's study (1976), older children had a lower self-concept than younger children. Results of this study also suggests a relationship between mothers' acculturation and children's self-concept.

Socioeconomic Status and Self-concept

Children from high socioeconomic families are likely to have a high self-concept as indicated by the findings of this study. It is a universal perception that high SES children are provided with sufficient economic resources that they are being protected from economic hardships. On the other hand, children from low SES families are constantly threaten by the family's financial instability. As Cicirelli (1977) indicated, children from low SES have been found to have low self-concept because it is a natural and "logical" reflection of their miserable environment. Thus, it is not surprising that children from low SES families have a low self-concept.

In this study, the SES level of the family as well as mother's acculturation level correlated with their children's self-concept. When the effect of SES was partialled out of the correlation between self-concept and mother's acculturation scores, the correlation still indicated there may be some direct relationship. As suggested by the model in Figure 1, both the acculturation level of the mother and family environment factors affect the development of self-concept in preschool children. However, from the data of this current study, it is not possible to ascertain whether the effect of SES and mother's acculturation are interactive or contributive.

For this study, the model did not include policy factors as a variable of the larger society. Because self-concept correlates with family SES, one of the factors the model predicts and the data of this study suggests as related to the development of children's self-concept, further research should include other factors of the larger society. Among these variables is government immigration policy. With the change of immigration policy which calls for higher professional qualification, more new immigrants will come to Canada from high SES families. The effect of economic adaptation of these high SES immigrants should be submitted to empirical test. The literature also indicates an unbalanced growth of the numbers of Chinese population in many cities (Li, 1988). Hence, cities with larger number of Chinese may be subjected to less acculturational pressure while possibly higher socioeconomic pressure. Further research should aim towards larger and more representative samples that cover various Canadian cities.

Intellectual Maturity and Self-concept

In this study, the measures of self-concept and intellectual maturity were found to be independent. Other studies have reported similar relationships between self-concept and intellectual maturity (Denny & Thomas, 1986; Olosu, 1984; Spencer, Dobbs, & Swanson, 1988). The findings of the current study support the claim of the author of the Purdue Self Concept Scale that it measures self-concept independently of intellectual maturity.

The child's age is the predictor of intellectual maturity. However, other research indicate that age is also related to self-concept. Therefore, future research should address whether these relations vary with the age of the children. If a relation between self-concept and age exists, it would be important to know whether this is a factor of age, stage of life or a cohort factor. A longitudinal design may provide further information concerning changes in self-concept with age.

Looking from a wider perspective, children are the adults of tomorrow. The well-being of today's children is the well-being of tomorrow's Canadians. Besides, as Canada moves toward a new era in which multicultural ideology is emphasized, it is important that

researchers examine closely the cultural and economic environment in which immigrant children are nurtured. There are two important implications of this fact: one is the development of a healthier Canadian equalitarian mosaic, the other is the culturally-appropriate treatment of minorities by educational and other public institutions and services. If multiculturalism is to become a reality, the Canadian system should accommodate itself to implement new practices.

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Appendix A

LETTER AND CONSENT FORM

Dear Parents,

As parents and as professionals working with children, we are mutually interested in providing optimal opportunities for our children's development. As Chinese, a cultural minority group, we are particularly concerned about our children's competencies as they grow up in Canada. It is hoped that, by understanding the needs of Chinese immigrant children, we may be better able to develop relevant programs for them.

I am a graduate student in the Department of Family Studies working under the supervision of Dr. L. Brockman and am interested in conducting a study on Chinese immigrant children's self-concept and parents' cultural preferences. This letter has been handed out to all Chinese immigrant parents with children who are between 3 and 5 years of age. If your child(ren) is(are) in this age range, we invite you to consider participating in this study.

If you choose to participate, I would like to conduct a short interview with you and your child(ren). This interview can be arranged at a time and place convenient to you. While your child and I are working with pictures which they will probably enjoy, you will be given a short questionnaire to complete. The whole interview should take approximately 30 minutes.

To assure confidentiality, your questionnaire and child's records will be identified only by code. The results of the study will report average values only.

Kindly complete the enclosed form to indicate whether or not you are interested in participating in this study. Enclose the consent form in the addressed envelope provided. Following receipt of your form, I will telephone you for the interview if you are willing to participate in this study.

With your assistance, we hope to better understand the cultural needs of our children. Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at 269-0721 or 474-8344, or my supervisor, Dr. Lois Brockman at 474-8050.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Imelda, K.S., Chang
Graduate Student

P.S. If you know of any Chinese whose child is between 3- to 5-year-old, and who may be interested in this study, could you please ask them to contact us at the above phone numbers.

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

I agree to participate with my child(ren) in the study conducted by Imelda Chang, graduate student, University of Manitoba.

I understand that information obtained in the study will be kept confidential. If, at any time following this consent, I wish to withdraw from the study, I am free to do so.

Kindly provide the following information:

My child(ren)'s name(s) and birthdate(s):

Name:_____ Birthdate:_____

Name:_____ Birthdate:_____

Name:_____ Birthdate:_____

Home Telephone Number_____

Name of Parent_____
                          (Kindly Print)

_____
                          (Signature of Parent)

Date_____

Please return in the enclosed envelop.

Thank you for your interest in this study.

Appendix B

MOTHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Parent,

First of all, thank you for your participation.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to develop a better understanding of how Chinese immigrant families adjust to their living in Canada. Your participation is of great importance as it will add to our knowledge of the cultural preferences among Chinese immigrants.

It will only take about 15 minutes to fill out this questionnaire. In answering the questions, the words 'your child' refer to your child who is also participating in this study. In this case, they refer to _____. To ensure confidentiality, names will be transferred into codes for identification. The results of the study will report average values only. No individual information will be disclosed.

If you have any questions related to this questionnaire do not hesitate to ask me.

Yours Sincerely,

Imelda, Kin-Sang, Chang

Graduate Student of Family Studies

Date:_____   Child's Name_____

The following are some questions about your child and your family:

1. What is your child birthdate? Day____Month____Year____

2. How old was your child when you immigrated into Canada?
    _____months

3. Does your child have any older brothers or sisters?
    Yes____ No____

    a) If yes, how many? _____

4. Does your child have any younger brothers or sisters?
    Yes____ No____

    a) If yes, how many? _____

5. Does your child attend nursery school or day care?
    Yes____ No____

    a) If yes, what is the name of the school or the day care
    _____

6. Who cares for your child when you are at work or
    not at home? _____

7. If possible, would you like your child to attend a Chinese
    nursery school or day care? Yes____ No____

8. Other than your immediate family (you, your husband
    and your children), are there other adults living in your
    household?
    Yes____ No____

    a) If yes, how many? _____

    b) What is the relationship of these adults to your child?

               _____

               _____

               _____

Here are some questions about yourself:

1. In what country did you live before you came to Canada?
   _____

2. When did you arrive in Canada? Month____ Day____ Year____

3. How old are you today? _____Years of age

4. Which of the following languages do you speak?
   Please check: Chinese____ English____ French____ Other____

5. What is your present occupation? _____

6. Kindly check the highest level of education that you
   have completed:

   Grade 8 or less   _____
   Some High School   _____
   High School Graduate   _____
   Some Technical College   _____
   Technical/Community College Graduate   _____
   Some University   _____
   University Graduate   _____
   Professional Post Graduate   _____

The following questions are about your child's father:

1. In what country did he live before he came to Canada?
   _____

2. When did he arrive in Canada? Month_____ Day_____ Year_____

3. How old is he today? _____Years of age

4. Which of the following languages does he speak?
   Please check: Chinese_____   English_____   French_____
   Other_____

5. What is his present occupation? _____

6. Kindly check the highest level of education that he
   has completed:

   Grade 8 or less   _____
   Some High School   _____
   High School Graduate   _____
   Some Technical College   _____
   Technical/Community College Graduate   _____
   Some University   _____
   University Graduate   _____
   Professional Post Graduate   _____

Lastly, here are 20 quick questions which will help me to understand more about your life style.

For each question, please circle the alternative (A,B,C,D or E) which best describes you.

1. Which language do you prefer to speak?

    A. Chinese all the time
    B. Chinese most of the time
    C. Chinese and English equally
    D. English most of the time
    E. English all the time

2. Which language do you speak at home?

    A. Chinese all the time
    B. Chinese most of the time
    C. Chinese and English equally
    D. English most of the time
    E. English all the time

3. What language do you speak in school and/or at work?

    A. Chinese all the time
    B. Chinese most of the time
    C. Chinese and English equally
    D. English most of the time
    E. English all the time

4. What language do you speak with friends?

    A. Chinese all the time
    B. Chinese most of the time
    C. Chinese and English equally
    D. English most of the time
    E. English all the time

5. In what language are the books and magazines you read?

    A. Chinese all the time
    B. Chinese most of the time
    C. Chinese and English equally
    D. English most of the time
    E. English all the time

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6. What sort of music do you listen to?

   A. Chinese all of the time
   B. Chinese most of the time
   C. Chinese at times and Canadian other times
   D. Canadian most of the time
   E. Canadian all of the time

7. What sort of restaurants do you go?

   A. Chinese all of the time
   B. Chinese most of the time
   C. Chinese at times and Canadian other times
   D. Canadian most of the time
   E. Canadian all of the time

8. What sort of social groups(including church, community centres, associations and interest groups) do you regularly attend?

A.Chinese all of the time
B.Chinese most of the time
C.Chinese at times and Canadian other times
D.Canadian most of the time
E.Canadian all of the time

9. What is your way of celebrating birthdays?

   A. Completely Chinese
   B. Mostly Chinese
   C. Mixed: Sometime Chinese and others Canadian
   D. Mostly Canadian
   E. Completely Canadian

10. What gestures do you use when talking?

   A. Completely Chinese
   B. Mostly Chinese
   C. Mixed: Sometime Chinese and others Canadian
   D. Mostly Canadian
   E. Completely Canadian

Sometimes life is not as we really want it.

If you could have your way, how would you like the following

aspects of your life to be?

Please circle the alternative that best describes what you wish.

11. Food:

    A. I would wish this to be completely Chinese
    B. I would wish this to be mostly Chinese
    C. I would wish this to be both Chinese and Canadian
    D. I would wish this to be mostly Canadian
    E. I would wish this to be completely Canadian

12. Language:

    A. I would wish this to be completely Chinese
    B. I would wish this to be mostly Chinese
    C. I would wish this to be both Chinese and Canadian
    D. I would wish this to be mostly Canadian
    E. I would wish this to be completely Canadian

13. Music:

    A. I would wish this to be completely Chinese
    B. I would wish this to be mostly Chinese
    C. I would wish this to be both Chinese and Canadian
    D. I would wish this to be mostly Canadian
    E. I would wish this to be completely Canadian

14. T.V. programs:

    A. I would wish these to be completely Chinese
    B. I would wish these to be mostly Chinese
    C. I would wish these to be both Chinese and Canadian
    D. I would wish these to be mostly Canadian
    E. I would wish these to be completely Canadian

15. Books/Magazines:

    A. I would wish these to be completely Chinese
    B. I would wish these to be mostly Chinese
    C. I would wish these to be both Chinese and Canadian
    D. I would wish these to be mostly Canadian
    E. I would wish these to be completely Canadian

16. Restaurants:

A. I would wish these to be completely Chinese
B. I would wish these to be mostly Chinese
C. I would wish these to be both Chinese and Canadian
D. I would wish these to be mostly Canadian
E. I would wish these to be completely Canadian

17. Social Groups:

A. I would wish these to be completely Chinese
B. I would wish these to be mostly Chinese
C. I would wish these to be both Chinese and Canadian
D. I would wish these to be mostly Canadian
E. I would wish these to be completely Canadian

18. Radio Programs:

A. I would wish these to be completely Chinese
B. I would wish these to be mostly Chinese
C. I would wish these to be both Chinese and Canadian
D. I would wish these to be mostly Canadian
E. I would wish these to be completely Canadian

19. Way of celebrating birthdays:

A. I would wish this to be completely Chinese
B. I would wish this to be mostly Chinese
C. I would wish this to be both Chinese and Canadian
D. I would wish this to be mostly Canadian
E. I would wish this to be completely Canadian

20. Way of celebrating weddings:

A. I would wish this to be completely Chinese
B. I would wish this to be mostly Chinese
C. I would wish this to be both Chinese and Canadian
D. I would wish this to be mostly Canadian
E. I would wish this to be completely Canadian

*** THE END ***

Your cooperation is definitely appreciated!

Thank You!

Appendix C

PURDUE SELF CONCEPT SCALE FOR PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

Instructions for Administration

This test is intended for individual administration.

The examiner should have ready the scoring sheet (or mark-sense card) for recording the child's responses, and a pencil.

The examiner seats the child at a small table and sits next to him. After a few remarks to establish rapport, the examiner instructs the child:

> This is a game about two children. Listen carefully while I tell you a story about them. Then tell me which child is most like you.

The examiner opens the test booklet to the first item and reads the two descriptions, pointing to the appropriate child in the picture as he says "this child" in each case. (The examiner should be careful to maintain an even tone and inflectional pattern for the two alternatives, to avoid suggesting that one is socially desirable.) Then the administrator asks:

> Which child is most like you?

Following the child's response, the administrator may acknowledge with "okay" or "um-hum" or other non-evaluative response. If the child fails to respond, he asks:

> Which child is most like you? Show me.

If the child points to a picture before the administrator has finished reading the item, he should say:

> Wait, and listen to all the story before you tell me.

The administrator records the child's response, and goes on to the next item, saying:

> Here's another story.

If the child becomes fatigued and/or inattentive, the test can be given in two separate sessions.

Examiner's Name _____

SCORING SHEET
PRE-SCHOOL SELF CONCEPT

Name of Child _____ Age _____ Sex _____

School _____ Teacher _____ Date_____

Each item is scored as follows: If the child chooses the response alternative to an item which is a positive self-description, that item is given a score of one point; if he endorses a negative self-description, that item is given a score of zero. Score on the test is the sum of the item scores.

Items in which the positive response alternative is the left picture of the item are: 1, 2, 5, 7, 9, 12, 14, 15, 17, 19, 21, 23, 24, 27, 30, 33, 36, 38, 39.

Items in which the positive response alternative is the right picture of the item are: 3, 4, 6, 8, 10, 11, 13, 16, 18, 20, 22, 25, 26, 28, 29, 31, 32, 34, 35, 37, 40.

Total Score _____

1 _____	11 _____	21 _____	31 _____
2 _____	12 _____	22 _____	32 _____
3 _____	13 _____	23 _____	33 _____
4 _____	14 _____	24 _____	34 _____
5 _____	15 _____	25 _____	35 _____
6 _____	16 _____	26 _____	36 _____
7 _____	17 _____	27 _____	37 _____
8 _____	18 _____	28 _____	38 _____
9 _____	19 _____	29 _____	39 _____
10 _____	20 _____	30 _____	40 _____
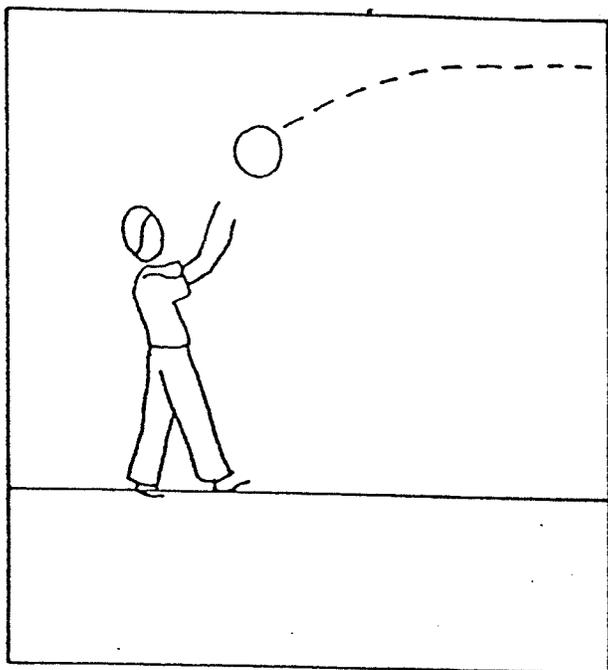
This child can catch a ball very well.
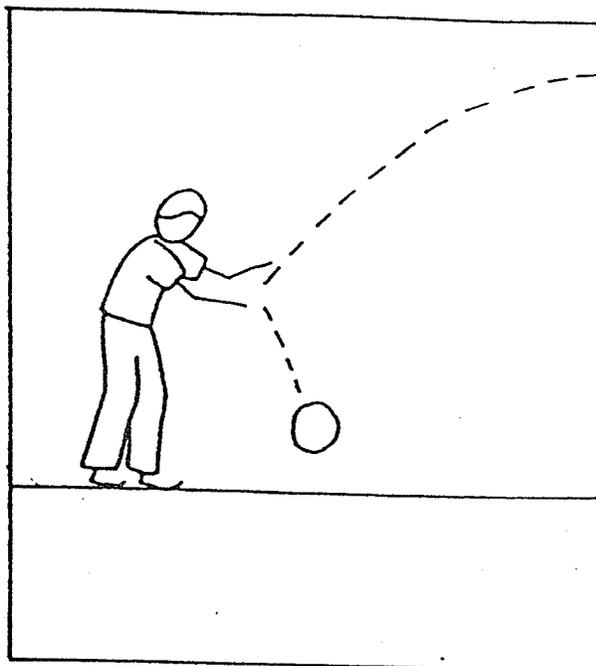
This child cannot catch a ball so well.

A SAMPLE OF THE 40-ITEMS

IN

THE PURDUE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE
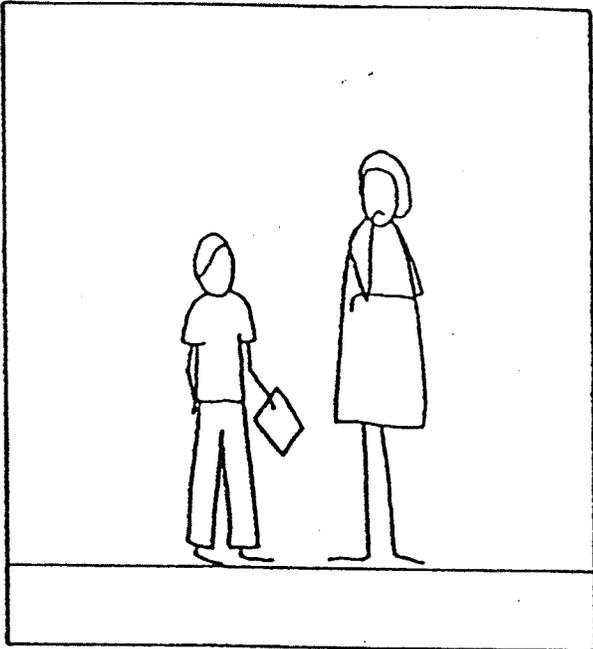
This child's teacher doesn't always like what he does.
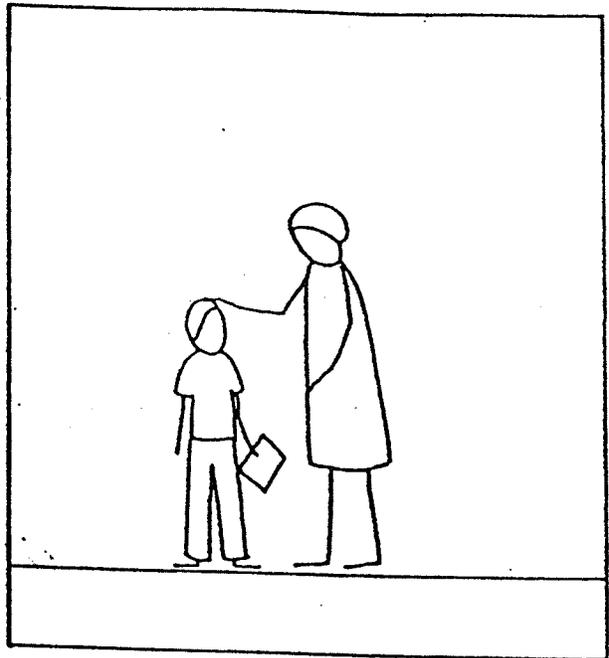
This child's teacher always likes what he does.

A SAMPLE OF THE 40-ITEMS

IN

THE PURDUE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

Appendix D

GOODENOUGH-HARRIS DRAWING TEST

MAN POINT SCALE

1. Head present
2. Neck present
3. Neck, two dimensions
4. Eyes present
5. Eye detail: brow or lashes
6. Eye detail: pupil
7. Eye detail: proportion
8. Eye detail: glance
9. Nose present
10. Nose, two dimensions
11. Mouth present
12. Lips, two dimensions
13. Both nose and lips in two dimensions
14. Both chin and forehead shown
15. Projection of chin shown; chin clearly differentiated from lower lip
16. Line of jaw indicated
17. Bridge of nose
18. Hair I
19. Hair II
20. Hair III
21. Hair IV
22. Ears present
23. Ears present: proportion and position

24. Fingers present
25. Correct number of fingers shown
26. Detail of fingers correct
27. Opposition of thumb shown
28. Hands present
29. Wrist or ankle shown
30. Arms present
31. Shoulders I
32. Shoulders II
33. Arms at side or engaged in activity
34. Elbow joint shown
35. Legs present
36. Hip I (crotch)
37. Hip II
38. Knee joint shown
39. Feet I: any indication
40. Feet II: proportion
41. Feet III: heel
42. Feet IV: perspective
43. Feet V: detail
44. Attachment of arms and legs I
45. Attachment of arms and legs II
46. Trunk present
47. Trunk in proportion, two dimensions
48. Proportion: head I

49. Proportion: head II
50. Proportion: face
51. Proportion: arms I
52. Proportion: arms II
53. Proportion: legs
54. Proportion: limbs in two dimensions
55. Clothing I
56. Clothing II
57. Clothing III
58. Clothing IV
59. Clothing V
60. Profile I
61. Profile II
62. Full face
63. Motor coordination: lines
64. Motor coordination: junctures
65. Superior motor coordination
66. Directed lines and form: head outline
67. Directed lines and form: trunk outline
68. Directed lines and form: arms and legs
69. Directed lines and form: facial features
70. "Sketching" technique
71. "Modeling" technique
72. Arm movement
73. Leg movement

* For use only after the scoring requirements have been mastered.

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Short Scoring Guide *

WOMAN POINT SCALE

1. Head present
2. Neck present
3. Neck, two dimensions
4. Eyes present
5. Eye detail: brow or lashes
6. Eye detail: pupil
7. Eye detail: proportion
8. Cheeks
9. Nose present
10. Nose, two dimensions
11. Bridge of nose
12. Nostrils shown
13. Mouth present
14. Lips, two dimensions
15. "Cosmetic lips"
16. Both nose and lips in two dimensions
17. Both chin and forehead shown
18. Line of jaw indicated
19. Hair I
20. Hair II
21. Hair III
22. Hair IV
23. Necklace or earrings
24. Arms present
25. Shoulders
26. Arms at side (or engaged in activity or behind back)

27. Elbow joint shown
28. Fingers present
29. Correct number of fingers shown
30. Detail of fingers correct
31. Opposition of thumb shown
32. Hands present
33. Legs present
34. Hip
35. Feet I: any indication
36. Feet II: proportion
37. Feet III: detail
38. Shoe I: "feminine"
39. Shoe II: style
40. Placement of feet appropriate to figure
41. Attachment of arms and legs I
42. Attachment of arms and legs II
43. Clothing indicated
44. Sleeve I
45. Sleeve II
46. Neckline I
47. Neckline II: collar
48. Waist I
49. Waist II
50. Skirt "modeled" to indicate pleats or draping
51. No transparencies in the figure

52. Garb feminine
53. Garb complete, without incongruities
54. Garb a definite "type"
55. Trunk present
56. Trunk in proportion, two dimensions
57. Head-trunk proportion
58. Head: proportion
59. Limbs: proportion
60. Arms in proportion to trunk
61. Location of waist
62. Dress area
63. Motor coordination: junctures
64. Motor coordination: lines
65. Superior motor coordination
66. Directed lines and form: head outline
67. Directed lines and form: breast
68. Directed lines and form: hip contour
69. Directed lines and form: arms taper
70. Directed lines and form: calf of leg
71. Directed lines and form: facial features

* For use only after the scoring requirements have been mastered.

TABLE 12

Table for Converting GHDT Raw Scores to Standard Scores

Drawing of a Man, by Boys

RAW SCORE	3*	4*	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	RAW SCORE
0	68	55	53	52	51	50	49							0
1	73	61	56	54	53	52	50							1
2	77	66	59	57	55	54	52	50	51					2
3	82	70	62	60	57	56	54	52	52					3
4	86	74	65	62	59	58	55	54	54	51				4
5	91	78	68	65	62	60	57	55	55	52				5
6	95	83	71	68	64	62	59	57	56	53				6
7	100	87	74	70	66	63	60	58	58	55	50			7
8	104	91	77	73	68	65	62	60	59	56	51			8
9	109	96	80	75	70	67	63	61	60	57	53			9
10	113	100	83	78	72	69	65	63	62	59	54	50	50	10
11	118	104	86	81	75	71	67	64	63	60	56	52	52	11
12	122	109	89	83	77	73	69	66	65	61	57	53	53	12
13	127	113	92	86	79	75	70	67	66	63	58	55	55	13
14	131	117	95	89	81	77	72	69	68	64	60	56	56	14
15	136	122	98	91	84	79	74	70	69	66	61	58	57	15
16	140	126	101	94	86	81	75	72	70	67	63	59	59	16
17	145	130	104	96	88	83	77	73	72	68	64	60	60	17
18	149	134	107	99	90	85	79	75	73	70	65	62	62	18
19	154	139	110	102	92	87	80	76	74	71	67	63	63	19
20	158	143	113	104	94	89	82	78	76	72	68	65	64	20
21	163	147	116	107	97	90	84	79	77	73	70	66	66	21
22	168	152	119	110	99	92	85	81	78	75	71	68	67	22
23	172	156	122	112	101	94	87	82	80	76	73	69	69	23
24		160	125	115	103	96	89	84	81	78	74	70	70	24
25		164	128	117	105	98	90	86	83	80	75	72	72	25
26		169	131	120	108	100	92	87	84	81	77	73	73	26
27		173	134	123	110	102	94	89	85	82	78	75	74	27
28		177	137	125	112	104	95	90	87	83	80	76	76	28
29			140	128	114	106	97	92	88	85	81	78	77	29
30			143	131	116	108	99	93	90	86	82	79	79	30
31			146	133	119	110	100	95	91	87	84	80	80	31
32			149	136	121	112	102	96	92	89	85	82	81	32
33			152	138	123	114	104	98	94	90	87	83	83	33
34				141	125	116	105	99	95	92	88	85	84	34
35				144	127	118	107	101	97	93	89	86	86	35

* These values have been calculated from samples which are not as representative as the age samples from 5 through 15 years. They are likely to be a little high for unselected or more adequately representative samples. They are offered as tentative guides for use with pre-school groups.

TABLE 13

Table for Converting GHDT Raw Scores to Standard Scores

Drawing of a Man, by Girls

RAW SCORE	*CHRONOLOGICAL AGE IN YEARS													RAW SCORE
	3*	4*	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
0	66	58	50	50	49									0
1	70	62	53	52	51	50								1
2	74	66	56	55	53	51								2
3	78	70	59	57	55	53	50							3
4	83	74	62	60	58	55	52							4
5	87	78	65	62	60	57	54	50						5
6	91	81	68	65	62	59	55	51						6
7	96	85	70	67	64	61	57	53	49					7
8	100	89	73	70	66	63	59	55	51	49				8
9	104	92	76	72	69	65	61	56	52	51				9
10	108	96	79	75	71	67	62	58	54	52				10
11	113	100	82	77	73	69	64	59	55	54	50			11
12	117	104	85	80	75	70	66	61	57	55	51			12
13	121	107	87	82	77	72	67	63	58	56	53	50		13
14	126	111	90	85	79	74	69	64	60	58	54	51		14
15	130	115	93	87	82	76	71	66	61	59	56	53	50	15
16	134	119	96	90	84	78	73	67	63	61	57	54	51	16
17	139	122	99	93	86	80	74	69	64	62	59	56	53	17
18	143	126	102	95	88	82	76	71	66	64	60	57	55	18
19	147	130	105	98	90	83	78	72	68	65	62	59	56	19
20	152	134	107	100	92	86	80	74	69	66	63	61	58	20
21	156	137	110	103	95	88	81	75	71	68	65	62	60	21
22	160	141	113	105	97	89	83	77	72	70	66	64	61	22
23	165	149	116	108	99	91	85	79	74	71	68	65	63	23
24	169	152	119	110	101	93	86	80	75	72	69	67	65	24
25	173	156	122	113	103	95	88	82	77	74	71	68	66	25
26	177	160	124	115	105	97	90	83	78	75	72	70	68	26
27		164	127	118	108	99	92	85	80	77	74	72	70	27
28		168	130	120	110	101	93	87	81	78	75	73	71	28
29		171	133	123	112	103	95	88	83	80	77	75	73	29
30		175	136	125	114	105	97	90	84	81	78	76	75	30
31			139	128	116	106	98	91	86	83	80	78	76	31
32			142	130	118	108	100	93	87	84	81	79	78	32
33			144	133	121	110	102	95	89	86	83	81	80	33
34			147	135	123	112	104	96	91	87	84	83	81	34
35			150	138	125	114	105	98	92	88	86	84	83	35

* These values have been calculated from samples which are not as representative as the age samples from 5 through 15 years. They are likely to be a little high for unselected or more adequately representative samples. They are offered as tentative guides for use with pre-school groups.

TABLE 14

Table for Converting GHDT Raw Scores to Standard Scores

Drawing of a Woman, by Boys

RAW SCORE	*3	*4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	RAW SCORE
0	68	55	56	56	51									0
1	73	61	59	58	53	50								1
2	77	66	61	61	56	52								2
3	82	70	64	63	58	53								3
4	86	74	67	65	60	55	50	49						4
5	91	78	70	68	62	57	51	51	49					5
6	95	83	73	70	64	59	53	52	51					6
7	100	87	75	73	66	61	55	54	52					7
8	104	91	78	75	68	63	57	56	54	50				8
9	109	96	81	77	70	65	59	57	55	52				9
10	113	100	84	80	72	67	60	59	57	54	50			10
11	118	104	86	82	74	69	62	61	59	55	52			11
12	122	109	89	84	76	70	64	62	60	56	53			12
13	127	113	92	87	79	72	66	64	62	58	55	50		13
14	131	117	95	89	81	74	67	66	63	60	56	52	51	14
15	136	122	97	91	83	76	69	67	65	61	58	54	53	15
16	140	126	100	94	85	78	71	69	66	63	59	55	54	16
17	145	130	103	96	87	80	73	70	68	64	61	57	56	17
18	149	134	106	98	89	82	75	72	70	66	63	58	57	18
19	154	139	108	101	91	84	76	74	71	68	64	60	59	19
20	158	143	111	103	93	86	78	75	73	69	66	62	61	20
21	163	147	114	105	95	87	80	77	74	71	67	63	62	21
22	168	152	117	108	97	89	82	79	76	72	69	65	64	22
23	172	156	119	110	99	91	84	80	78	74	70	66	65	23
24		160	122	112	102	93	85	82	79	75	72	68	67	24
25		164	125	115	104	95	87	84	81	77	73	70	69	25
26		169	128	117	106	97	89	85	82	78	75	71	70	26
27		173	131	119	108	99	91	87	84	80	77	73	72	27
28		177	133	122	110	101	93	89	85	82	78	74	74	28
29			136	124	112	103	94	90	87	83	80	76	75	29
30			139	126	114	104	96	92	89	85	81	78	77	30
31			142	129	116	106	98	93	90	86	83	79	78	31
32			144	131	118	108	100	95	92	88	84	81	80	32
33				133	120	110	102	97	93	89	86	82	82	33
34				136	122	112	103	98	95	91	88	84	83	34
35				138	125	114	105	100	96	93	89	86	85	35

Column headers for ages 3 and 4 are marked with an asterisk (3*, 4*).

* These values have been calculated from samples which are not as representative as the age samples from 5 through 15 years. They are likely to be a little high for unselected or more adequately representative samples. They are offered as tentative guides for use with preschool groups.

TABLE 15

Table for Converting GHDT Raw Scores to Standard Scores

Drawing of a Woman, by Girls

RAW SCORE	3*	4*	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	RAW SCORE
0	62	55	52	52	49									0
1	66	59	54	54	50	48								1
2	70	63	57	56	52	50								2
3	74	67	59	58	54	51								3
4	78	70	62	60	56	53								4
5	83	74	64	62	58	55	48							5
6	87	78	67	64	60	56	50							6
7	91	81	69	66	62	58	52							7
8	96	85	72	69	64	60	54	49						8
9	100	89	74	70	66	62	55	51						9
10	104	92	77	73	68	63	57	53						10
11	109	96	79	75	70	65	59	54						11
12	113	100	82	77	71	67	60	56	50					12
13	117	104	84	79	73	68	62	57	52					13
14	121	108	87	81	75	70	64	59	53	50				14
15	126	111	89	83	77	72	65	61	55	52				15
16	130	115	92	86	79	74	67	62	56	53	50			16
17	134	119	94	88	81	75	69	64	58	55	51	48		17
18	139	122	97	90	83	77	71	65	60	56	53	50		18
19	143	126	99	92	85	79	72	67	61	58	55	51		19
20	147	130	102	94	87	81	74	69	63	60	56	53	50	20
21	151	134	104	96	89	82	76	70	64	61	58	55	52	21
22	156	137	107	98	90	84	77	72	66	63	59	56	54	22
23	160	141	109	100	92	86	79	73	68	64	61	58	56	23
24	164	145	112	103	94	87	81	75	69	66	63	60	57	24
25	169	149	114	105	96	89	82	77	71	67	64	61	59	25
26	173	152	117	107	98	91	84	78	72	69	66	63	61	26
27	177	156	119	109	100	93	86	80	74	71	67	65	63	27
28		160	122	111	102	94	88	81	76	72	69	66	64	28
29		164	124	113	104	96	89	83	77	74	71	68	66	29
30		168	126	115	106	97	91	85	79	75	72	70	68	30
31		171	129	117	108	99	93	86	80	77	74	71	70	31
32		175	131	119	109	101	94	88	82	78	75	73	71	32
33			134	122	111	103	96	89	84	80	77	75	73	33
34			136	124	113	105	98	91	85	82	79	76	75	34
35			139	126	115	106	100	93	87	83	80	78	77	35

* These values have been calculated from samples which are not as representative as the age samples from 5 through 15 years. They are likely to be a little high for unselected or more adequately representative samples. They are offered as tentative guides for use with preschool groups.

TABLE 16

Percentile Rank Equivalents for GDHT Standard Scores

STD. SC.	P.R.	STD. SC.	P.R.	STD. SC.	P.R.
133+	99	110	75	87	19
132	98	109	73	86	18
131	98	108	71	85	16
130	98	107	68	84	14
129	97	106	66	83	13
128	97	105	63	82	12
127	96	104	61	81	10
126	96	103	58	80	9
125	95	102	55	79	8
124	95	101	53	78	7
123	94	100	50	77	6
122	93	99	47	76	5
121	92	98	45	75	5
120	91	97	42	74	4
119	90	96	39	73	4
118	88	95	37	72	3
117	87	94	34	71	3
116	86	93	32	70	2
115	84	92	29	69	2
114	82	91	27	68	2
113	81	90	25	67—	1
112	79	89	23		
111	77	88	21		

Appendix E

SAMPLES FROM THE CANADIAN CLASSIFICATION

AND DICTIONARY OF OCCUPATIONS (CCDO)

The following are examples of occupations mentioned by the subjects
in the present study.

Occupational classification number	Occupational classification	Occupational category	Occupational level
6147	babysitters	unskilled labour	4
2143	civil engineers	employed professional	1
7195	manager	foreman	3
3153	computer analyst	semi-professional	2