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COMPARISON OF CHINESE COLLEGE STUDENTS AND AMERICAN
COLLEGE STUDENTS OF MIDDLE-CLASS BY MEANS OF
"16 P.F. TEST"

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COMPARISON OF CHINESE COLLEGE STUDENTS AND AMERICAN
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Personality may be defined as the most characteristic integration of an individual's modes of behavior, interests, attitudes, capacities and abilities (16, p. 193). It develops from the impulses, drives and motives of the individual, the control imposed by his culture and the channels, it offers to the individual drives; and the opportunities, impact, and conflicts which the environment sets up. The way in which the individual integrates and expresses these forces and resolves conflicts between them, and the way in which the conflicts become ramified into forms of behavior, produce the various qualities and habits which together make up his personality.

The Variables of Personality Structure

Two general classifications of variables interact to yield the peculiar personality structure of an individual. These are:

1. Biological endowment: Each one has his own particular biological inheritance and subsequent physiological history, so he does vary from others in his biological organization. However, each individual is not fundamentally different from other individuals in terms of his biological make up. Each individual goes through the same development stages of childhood, adolescence and adulthood.

At each stage, the individual has basic needs and goals, such as learning to walk and talk. These needs and goals and developmental stages are biologically determined.

2. Social influence (Cultural influence): This influence begins soon after birth, especially when the child begins to respond to the behavior of others. It continues throughout life (6, 29, 13, 16).

The most important situational influence upon the individual is his family, and his behavior is structured according to the training he receives from them (2, 6, 23, 26, 13). Other social factors such as his neighborhood, kindergarten, school, peer group and so on all exert a significant influence upon his personality. In later periods as in high school, college, business, or professional life, the situations that the individual meets may have an influence on certain of the individual's personality structure. But these have less influence on his personality than earlier stages, because once certain habits and attitudes are acquired, they are somewhat resistant to change.

The specific reactions which each individual in a given situation makes to his environment differs. Any given overt behavior is a function of the entire personality organization rather than a simple reaction to a given objective stimulus (17). Single factor as we refer to the single experience is not sufficient in itself to explain the whole personality. Personality is not a mere summation of measurable aspects or factors. It is an integration, a blend, an organized whole; it is "all" of the mental life of the individual at any given moment. However, some aspects give

more weight to the total product than do others. Hence the personality and individual development are the resultant of the interaction of a number of complex processes. We must take all these factors--biological condition of the body, social processes operating in the environment and the psychological processes--into consideration.

The Influence of Culture on Personality Structure

While any individual's personality is the result of a unique combination of heredity, domestic and cultural influence, it is a fact of ordinary experience that some types of personality structures are much more common in one social group than in another. In any stable society the system of culture tends to reduce variation due to biological inheritance and to restrain spontaneity and creative activity (13). Pressures are brought to bear which direct the person to conform to the behavioral patterns which are characteristics of the society in which he lives. Socialization tends to give each maturing individual the habits and values of the reputable members of the society. Any given individual will respond to some circumstances in a manner that is characteristically distinct from those responses dominant in another society.

There are certain types of needs which are mostly social in character, namely, the need for approval, recognition, esteem, affection and so forth. In different social situations, these drives, impulses and needs are differentially controlled, satisfied, frustrated, substituted and channelized (6, p.9). Apart from this, everybody has emotions, opinions, concepts or values which are directly or indirectly influenced by the group in which he lives. These all are responsible for those

qualities which distinguish the rural inhabitant from the city dweller, the middle-class from the lower-class, the Indians from the white American, the American from the Chinese.

Socially transmitted responses are intimately related to a definable body of traditional concepts, beliefs, institutions, etc., that are historic products, transcending the life time or experience of the individuals whose lives they mold. A language, a set of moral standards, a system of religious beliefs and practices are examples of the social heritage we call culture. And since the cultural traditions of mankind are found to vary radically in their pattern as we go from people to people and age to age, it must be recognized that affective experience, in part, is a function of these cultural variables. Since culture includes the content of socially transmitted experience, to which each new individual born into a society is exposed, it provides the primary frame of reference to which all varieties of learned behavior may be related. In the past, a great deal of attention has been paid to factors thought to be relevant to individual deviation without reference to the influence of the characteristic culture patterns that mold the ideologies of individuals in a common manner (1). What is a normal belief in one society is a psychotic symptom in another society. The norm of one culture is a sign of nervous pathology in the other (31). So when one considers the behavior of an individual, he should take the immediate cultural background of the individual into account as a primary frame of reference. A comprehensive account of the determining factors in the effective experience of individuals must include an analysis of the influence of cultural patterns as well as an investigation of the factors that determine quantitative or qualitative individual variations from a given cultural norm.

But here, we must emphasize the fact that the psychological principles which describe how any one individual reacts to external conditions is the same for all individuals. In other words, all individuals operate according to the same psychological principles and have the same physiological and biological mechanisms for experiencing anxiety, fear, love, and other emotions. All individuals smile or laugh, cry, weep or tremble when they experience the subjective components of love, fear, anger or other emotions. Variations in the type of behavior an individual of other societies exhibit is only a symptom of his social culture, not a basic problem.

Child Training Practices are A Reflection of Culture

It is often stated that the molding of the child's behavior is done primarily by the parents. The particular behaviors and attitudes of parents contribute significantly to the formation of the child's developing character. But what the parents give to their children, they have in part learned from their own parents; this is very deeply fixed by their own social culture. It in turn largely determines their method and goals in training their own children (2). The goals and methods are transmitted by generation to generation, there may be some change, but these take place within the basic framework of the social habits and customs of the culture. There are a score of these social habits and social customs which the young child must learn, and which the parents must try to teach him.

These social habits and social customs themselves become a deep part of the child's personality. But their influence does not end there, by

any means. The way in which the cultural training of the child is administered also helps determine his individual disposition. The history of this training will decide largely whether the child is cooperative or sullen, lively or apathetic, brave or timid, having a feeling of security or insecurity. These personal characteristics of the child depend upon such aspects of his training as the age at which certain training practices are initiated, the speed with which he is expected to learn these basic habits, and the kinds of rewards and punishment used in the training. All these factors are determined by the cultural habits, deep cultural feelings, morals and ideals of his cultural group. The usual parents in each society is preparing his child for the kind of life which is approved and desired by their social pattern.

Differences in Personality Structure As to Differences in Child Training Practices

The establishment of conditioned reflexes and conditioned emotional responses begins before the child is able to walk or to talk. Some of the earliest learning of the child is of a non-intellectual type, taking place at a stimulus and response level in connection with the visceral functions and with the emotions of fear, anger and love. Gradually, all the learning processes get into intellectual type, the child learns to conceal, to express and to control his responses. He builds up a system of behavior and the corresponding emotions by the training he receives. Thus, the child training practices can be used as a basis for explaining why some situations should arouse certain behaviors not other. A response is supported to a certain degree or inhibited by the social custom.

Because so many modifications of the original responses take place in infancy and childhood, therefore the child training practices have a lasting influence upon the development of an individual's personality. It sets up the pattern for many later responses toward people and affects the individual's ultimate ability to make adjustments to his environment.

Generally, the system of behavior tends to be characterized by an initial period when certain habits motivated by those drives are learned, and by a later period--that of socialization--during which these initial habits are replaced. Stated by Whiting and Child (18) that societies differ from one another in the degree to which children are indulged during the initial period and in the severity of the discipline imposed during the socialization period. One of the consequences of indulgence should be the development of satisfaction and security. For the frequent and consistent gratification of various responses that make up a system and the stimuli consistently associated with them would develop a strong potential for evoking required reward. These responses and stimuli would become major sources of satisfaction or security throughout all the individual's life, because they would become capable of evoking relaxation in the pressure of diffuse drives--such as vague, generalized anxiety. The severity of discipline should be related to the development of anxiety. For a high degree of frustration with respect to a given system of behavior leads to emotional responses. The various responses which make up the systems of behaviors and the stimuli associated with them come through learning to evoke emotional responses and thus produce a drive which we might describe as anxiety about continued deprivation, this anxiety potential, if of high degree, will necessarily be long-lasting.

CHAPTER II

VARIATIONS IN CHILD TRAINING PRACTICES BETWEEN CHINESE AND AMERICAN MIDDLE-CLASS CULTURES

The following presents a comparison of certain child training practices found to predominate in middle-class American and Chinese cultures:

1. Nursing and weaning.

Chinese middle-class.

Most children are breast-fed by wet nurse, a few are fed by the mother or are bottle-fed. The schedule of feeding is not rigid and the intervals between feedings are short. Especially, if the child is fed by wet nurse, the child is not only nursed whenever he wants, but the breast is used to pacify the infant in situations in which he is not hungry. Generally, oral indulgence is not permitted by the mother. From one month to around four months old, the baby is generally kept in bed. Around five months of age, the baby is often picked up.

The age of weaning is around one year old, and from about eight months, other food or drink are offered. A frequently used weaning technique consists of daubing a bitter substance on the breast. Other times, the child is separated from its mother or wet nurse. Punishment is not used in weaning the child, in fact the adults frequently pet and fondle the baby when he is crying for the breast.

American middle-class.

Quite frequently, the child is both breast-fed and bottle-fed or bottle-fed only. Relatively few children are breast-fed only, and when breast feeding is employed, it tends to be for a shorter time. The interval is generally around three months. The feeding schedule is very rigid, often the child is expected to cry for some time before being fed.

The typical age of weaning is from a little over a half year to around ten months old.

2. Training of bowel control.

Chinese middle-class.

Toilet training for bowel control is generally begun around six or seven months. Around the age of one year, the child is supposed to be able to indicate to an adult when it is necessary for him to go to the toilet. If the child is still not trained around one and a half years, the parents utilize shame in order to indicate the necessity of achieving control. If he continues to soil himself or the bed, the child might be scolded or threatened with other forms of punishment.

American middle-class.

Americans start toilet training when the child is a little over six months (18, 23). The training is judged to be quite severe (18). The child as soon as he can creep is demonstrated not to soil furniture, walls, books and so on. The child is exhorted to keep himself clean.

3. Sex training.

Chinese middle-class.

Chinese people seldom talk about sex problems to their children. All types of sex behavior problems are enveloped in the atmosphere of shame which becomes more intense when the child continues to do wrong after he has been taught the accepted mode of conduct. The general attitude of Chinese toward sex activities of children is severe. Even the youngsters are highly sensitized to the undesirability of exposing certain parts of their body. This training is so severe that it is infrequent that Chinese parents are confronted with the "direct" behavioral expression of sexual problems in their children.

Babies are always covered, exposing private parts is avoided, and even small babies are seldom naked. There has no definite age or the beginning of modesty training, it does begin very early, and the child is taught that it is shameful to be "indecently" exposed in public. If there are violations of the sexual codes, punishment by parents and pressures from society are expected.

American middle-class.

Generally, the Americans are not indulgent in sex play, but sex training is not overly severe.

4. Dependence training.

Chinese middle-class.

The mother is eager to gratify the child, but she doesn't carry the child with her all the day. Frequently, the child is left to the care of the wet nurse or house maid. Furthermore, many Chinese families have relatives other than the immediate family living in the house, so the child is never left alone, he always has somebody around and gratify his needs.

There is quite a bit of variation between families in regard to the age for requiring a certain amount of independence in the child training. Generally this takes place around three to five years, but the child has practically no duties to perform, he is free to play about the home. Sometimes he may be asked to do some light work just for fun, but usually they are just expected to study and play. They are not forced to dress themselves or help around the house, and the child below twelve or thirteen years old is required to stay at home after school, and can't go outside alone.

The training in these years of life is gradual and gentle. The child receives a maximum of protection. They are subjected to close supervision of their activities.

American middle-class.

The mother is likely carrying her baby, but the American mother is also busy with housework, and the American family is a small unit, therefore no other relatives are usually present to take care of the child for her, so the child must play by himself.

The children are taught to cook, to sew and to help around the house starting about ten years of age.

5. Aggression.

Chinese middle-class.

It is here where one probably finds the greatest difference existing between the Chinese and American cultures. The Chinese strive somewhat from infancy for a "yielding disposition."

Respect for and obedience to parents and elders is highly stressed. Even the older siblings should be obeyed, and the older siblings are free to reprove the child for wrong-doing. They, in turn, are taught to protect the younger brothers and sisters. From early childhood, quarreling even in play is discouraged; fighting, or killing birds and animals are considered very bad. It is infrequent for Chinese to strive for authority over others and claims of competence are seldom made. The child is taught to praise the achievement of others and to belittle his own, self-achievement is mentioned rarely. "modesty" is highly praised. Shaming is applied not only to misbehaving youngsters but also to the selfish and competitive child. What is done for one-self is not given the uppermost attention--that must belong to the family and a somewhat practically disregard of personal pleasure and amusement.

Property should not be damaged, other people's possessions should be left strictly alone. The child is required at an early age to respect the property rights of others. The Chinese place emphasis on generosity and prestige-value is assigned to sharing wealth and possessions with others.

American middle-class.

Many children are encouraged to be rather competitive in their dealings with others. The praise is given to the "go getter," to the person of initiative who seeks to be a leader.

Property is taught to be respected and should not be damaged.

An attempt has been made to present a comparison between five areas of child training practices as found in Chinese and American cultures. A note of caution should be entered here indicating that there is a tremendous amount of variation to be found in the child training practices found in each culture. Also, the concept of culture adopted here refers to a dynamic set of socio-behavioral relationships which are in constant flux. Hence, child training practices, which purportedly reflect their cultural influence, also change in time. For instance, television in the American home conceivably has altered the social configuration of the family unit. Nevertheless, it is felt that a reflection of child training practices found in the "typical" middle-class family is adequate for the purposes of this report since relationships will be presented which can be summarized by cultural tendency.

CHAPTER III

METHOD AND RESULTS

Purpose

This study was designed to compare the personality structures, as measured by the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (the 16 P.F. Test), Form A (39, A), observed in a group of Chinese college students with those observed in a group of American college students. Attempts will be made to explain significant differences between the two groups in terms of differences in child training practices found in the two cultures under consideration.

Hypothesis

The hypothesis to be tested in this study is: The difference in severity of child training practices between Chinese middle-class and American middle-class cultures produces significant differences between personality structures that were observed in groups of Chinese college students as compared with groups of American college students.

Subjects

The subjects used in this study were 40 Chinese students enrolled in Oklahoma State University. Of this group 29 were graduate students, 11 were under-graduate students, 36 were born on the mainland of China, one was a native Formosian and the other three came from Malay. The subjects

in this group were 7 females and 33 males, ranging in age from 19 to 42. The mean age of the group was 27 years, 1 month; the median age being 25 years, 6 months. Four schools, Arts and Science, Agriculture, Engineering and Business, were represented. Eighteen of the group had lived in America less than one year, six more than five years, the remainder were around two years.

Test Used

The 16 P.F. Test is a questionnaire. It is supposed to give an estimate of the subjects' attitudes and interests. It is thought to meet the demand for a test giving fullest information in the shortest time about most personality traits, and it sets out to cover planfully and precisely all the main dimensions along which people can differ. The sixteen dimensions used are based on considerable research directed toward locating unitary, independent, and practically important "source traits", i.e., traits affecting much of the overt personality, such as intelligence, emotional stability, super-ego strength, surgency, and dominance.

It has 187 questions. There are three possible responses to each question. The subject chooses one response according to his own view, and marks it on the answer sheet. Most of these questions are in the type of "yes" or one extreme, "in between" or "uncertain" and "no" or the other extreme. The subject is asked to give the first, natural answer as it comes to him, and try not to fall back on the middle "uncertain" answers except when the answer at either end is really impossible to him, and answer every question as honestly as possible what is true to him, don't merely mark what seems "the right thing to say." (39, C).

This test can be used both as a group or individual test for persons of 16 years or older, in all but the most unskilled and least educated groups in the population (39, A).

There is not absolute time limit, but if a subject, after having spent more than 40 minutes on the test, is not finished, he should be encouraged to finish as soon as possible.

Procedure

The test was administered to the Chinese students in April and May, 1958. The test-maker's administration and scoring instructions were followed. Generally, the test was administered individually, occasionally groups of three or less were employed. Instructions were read to the subjects and questions were solicited.

The recommended time limit was not followed, for the reason of language handicaps. Chinese students required more time than was described in the instructions. Most of them needed a little more than one hour.

The papers were scored using the scoring weights presented in the test manual. In all cases the "right" answer yields 2 points, the intermediate, 1, and the "wrong" 0. In fact, there are 184 items actually contributing to factor scores, plus 3 "buffer" items.

The results were compared with the test norm group which was composed of 604 American college students (females and males), averaging 21 years and ranging from 17 to 32 (39, B).

Results

The first step in analyzing the data was to compute an estimate of central tendency and variability. These measures together with the data of the norm group are shown in Table I.

The second step was the computation of the t-values. These were computed between mean factor scores obtained from the two groups. These results are also shown in Table I.

The five percent level of significance was taken as the minimum level of acceptable significance in this study, under these premise, it was necessary that a t-value reach the magnitude of 1.96 before it could be assumed that chance alone could not be the basis of the t-value more than five times out of 100 trials.

Examination of Table I will reveal that significant t-values were obtained from ten of these factors, Factors B, C, E, F, H, I, L, M, N, and Q₂. The other six factors--Factors A, G, O, Q₁, Q₃ and Q₄--were not significant at .05 level of significant.

According to previously standardized analysis, the meaning of these sixteen factors are as follows (39, A).

The factors that yielded significant differences in this study.

1. Factor B.

Low scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less dull.

The data indicates that the group of Chinese students tended to score significantly lower on this factor than the norm group of American students.

2. Factor C.

Low scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less emotional, immature, unstable and worrying.

TABLE I
 PERFORMANCE OF A GROUP OF CHINESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE
 STUDENTS ON THE "16 P.F. TEST"

Factor	Chinese College Students N=40		American College Students N=604		$M_1 - M_2$	t
	M_1	σ_1	M_2	σ_2		
A	9.50	2.79	9.3	3.4	+0.20	0.43
B	5.60	3.52	8.5	1.9	-2.90	5.16*
C	15.05	3.29	16.9	3.3	-1.85	3.44*
E	15.25	3.51	13.9	3.8	+1.35	2.34*
F	15.90	4.33	14.6	3.5	+1.30	2.10*
G	12.25	3.35	12.1	3.1	+0.15	0.28
H	10.90	4.82	12.9	5.0	-2.00	2.54*
I	11.45	3.16	10.3	3.5	+1.15	2.21*
L	13.55	3.06	7.6	3.4	+5.95	8.25*
M	12.60	3.34	11.5	3.5	+1.10	2.01*
N	12.80	2.92	9.7	2.7	+3.10	6.55*
O	10.60	3.86	9.6	3.5	+1.00	1.87
Q1	10.50	2.78	9.7	3.1	+0.80	1.75
Q2	14.00	3.25	9.4	3.4	+4.60	8.49*
Q3	10.25	2.65	9.5	2.6	+0.75	1.74
Q4	12.60	4.22	12.1	4.6	+0.50	0.66

*Significance to at least .05 level of significant.

The data indicate that the group of Chinese students tended to score significantly lower on this factor than the norm group of American students.

3. Factor E.

High scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less aggressive, competitive and self-assured. The data indicate that the group of Chinese students tended to score significantly higher on this factor than the norm group of American students.

4. Factor F.

High scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less enthusiastic, happy-go-lucky and expressive. The data indicate that the group of Chinese students tended to score significantly higher on this factor than the norm group of American students.

5. Factor H.

Low scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less shy, withdrawn, timid and aloof.

The data indicate that the group of Chinese students tended to score significantly lower on this factor than the norm group of American students.

6. Factor I.

High scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less sensitive, demanding and dependent.

The data indicate that the group of Chinese students tended to score significantly higher on this factor than the norm group of American students.

7. Factor L.

High scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less suspecting, jealous, self-sufficient and withdrawn.

The data indicate that the group of Chinese students tended to score significantly higher on this factor than the norm group of American students.

8. Factor M.

High scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less bohemian, introverted and absent-minded.

The data indicate that the group of Chinese students tended to score significantly higher on this factor than the norm group of American students.

9. Factor N.

High scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less sophisticated, polished, aloof, emotionally disciplined and possibly insecure.

The data indicate that the group of Chinese students tended to score significantly higher on this factor than the norm group of American students.

10. Factor Q₂.

High scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less self-sufficient and resourceful.

The data indicate that the group of Chinese students tended to score significantly higher on this factor than the norm group of American students.

The factors that did not yield significant differences in this study.

1. Factor A.

High scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less warm and sociable.

Low scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less aloof and stiff.

2. Factor G.

High scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less conscientious and persistent.

Low scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less casual and undependable.

3. Factor O.

High scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less timid and insecure.

Low scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less confident and self-secure.

4. Factor Q_1 .

High scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less radicalism.

Low scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less conservatism of temperament.

5. Factor Q_3 .

High scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less controlled, exacting will power.

Low scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less uncontrolled and lax.

6. Factor Q_4 .

High scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less tense and excitable.

Low scores on this factor indicate a person who is more or less phlegmatic and composed.

The data indicate that the group of Chinese students tended to score higher on all these six factors but are not significant at the .05 level of significant.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

According to the results presented in the previous chapter, ten out of the sixteen factors were statistically significant. Among these factors, the magnitude of the differences of Factors Q₂, L and N were relatively large. The next higher scores difference in order were Factor B which relates to intelligence and Factor C. The remainder of these ten factors, their magnitudes of the difference were relatively small, but statistically significant.

In comparing the child training practices dominant in Chinese and American culture, the writer found the Chinese child training was more severe in the areas of sex training, dependent training and aggressive training, especially the latter two. On the one hand, Chinese children tend to be over-protected, the parents somewhat predetermine what the child should do. Under this custom, it would be expected that the Chinese students would tend to be dependent, withdrawn, depressed, timid and lacking of ego-strength. This expectation has been substantiated by the data obtained from Factors C, H, I, M, and N. Chinese are trained to obey parents and elders, repressing their own wishes and needs. The frequent use of shame in sex training, would be expected to result in an individual who is predominantly emotionally unstable, restrained and subjective. This has been shown in the data obtained from Factors C, H, and I. The data on Factor E indicates chinese students were more or less aggressive and competitive which is a common response to intense

frustration which many Chinese children experience during the process of repressing and disregarding their personal wishes and achievements. The composition of these factors indicates that Chinese students were more or less anxious, insecure and introversive than American students.

However, there existed some contradictory points between the scores derived from these factors. For instance, Factor I indicated Chinese students were more or less demanding, subjective, dependent and seeking help than Americans, but the other factors, such as Factor E, indicated that Chinese students were more independent minded and self-assured, and Factors L and Q_2 indicated they were more self-sufficient than Americans. Factor C indicated Chinese students were more or less emotionally unstable, but the data of Factor N showed they were exact and emotionally disciplined. Factor F indicated Chinese students were surgent--they were talkative, cheerful and expressive--which was contrary to all the results shown by the data obtained from other factors.

Furthermore, in the area of toilet training, Chinese child training practices were similar to those found in the American culture. In the area of nursing and weaning, Chinese children were more permissive than Americans'. They constantly received the attention of the family, and they are seldom left alone. They received a maximum of protection. All these elements should constitute a high degree of indulgence and gratification. According to psychoanalytic theory, as Whiting and Child (18, p. 136) said:

"A high degree of indulgence of a particular system of behavior in the child training practices of a society should lead to the development in children of a high satisfaction potential in that system. The psychoanalytic conception of fixation would have a further implication here that once established, such a satisfaction potential would continue to be high throughout the lifetime of the individual concerned."

Initial satisfaction corresponds most closely to the concept of security, but these two characteristics which should result from initial indulgence in the area of nursing and weaning and permissive in independence training of Chinese middle-class were not obtained in this study.

Here, we may consider some reasonable interpretation about these contradictory points. Professor Cattell (5) writes that the state of surgency, ego-strength and anxiety are a function of a temporary state, and he found that different cultures will share some personality factors but not others. The individual experiences should be taken into account. American culture is a distinct new life to Chinese students, in adaptation to a new life, as Brainard (3) regarded in his research about the Hopi that it is probably a matter of individual rather than of community or of large family responsibility.

Cattell (5) and Kelley (32) discovered that specific attitudes and interests are relatively unstable and inconsistent. Though Whitely (38) and Strong (36) found relatively high degrees of constancy about interests, Strong also discovered interests change rapidly from those held at 15 years to those held at about 25 years. Half the Chinese students in this study were below 25 years of age, though many might have fairly clearly defined their interests and attitudes, but contact with a new culture may have changed their interests and attitudes somewhat.

Kelley (32) found evidence for considerable consistency of several variables but also discovered evidence of small but significant changes continuing to occur during the years of adulthood in all variables measured. He regarded these changes as being due to increasing age or

cultural change. The Chinese student in this study is living in a different cultural community which he is in and cannot belong to, and they are faced with the difficulty and insecurity of living in this culture. All these factors might make them develop a trait of independence and self-sufficient and emotional discipline (Factors L, Q_2 , E, and N); and strengthen the tendency to be withdrawn, shy, introversive and emotionally unstable (Factors C, H, and L).

As the writer indicated in Chapter I, the most important situational influence upon the individual is his home, but the differences in biological endowment and the other situations as his school, peer group, and college or professional life, all have some influence on certain of one's personality traits. Important as childhood experiences may be, they do not exclusively determine the mature character of the individual; it may afford only a possible basis, it does not promise the whole fulfillment. Child training practices are only a part of the function of a culture. Later events and the total changing situation also belong to the function of culture. We should take all the relationships and experiences which occur in many contexts and during various stages of the individual development into consideration.

This topic is still a point in dispute. The writer would like to see further study conducted in different countries, employing a much larger group of subjects.

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