RACIAL BIAS AND SELF-ESTEEM OF
ASIAN AND ASIAN-AMERICAN CHILDREN

by
Teruyo Mori

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A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of the
SCHOOL OF FAMILY AND CONSUMER RESOURCES
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For the Degree of
MASTER OF ARTS
WITH A MAJOR IN COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE
In the Graduate College
THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA

1993
STATEMENT BY AUTHOR

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SIGNED: [Signature]

APPROVAL BY THESIS DIRECTOR

This thesis has been approved on the date shown below:

Betty J. Newlon
Professor of
Educational Professional Studies

July 1, 1993
Date
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

"I have a dream my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character. I have a dream today!"

Martin Luther King, Jr. (1963).

I would like to express my gratitude to Dr. Betty Newlon, the director of this research, Dr. Phillip Lauver, my major academic advisor, and Dr. Oscar Christensen, for their understanding, support, and impetus in this endeavor to keep my faith to the dream.

I wish to acknowledge the other members of my committee: Dr. Cecilia Northcutt, a real warrior, and Dr. Joyce DeVoss for their cooperation and feedback.

I wish to extend special thanks to Dr. David Engle for his acceptance, his genuineness, his support, and his guidance in my life in the United States.

To my parents, Hajime Mori and Tetsuko Mori, for their unconditional love, endless support and understanding, and remarkable patience to the "left-over-Christmas-cake" daughter.

Finally, and most importantly, to my ancestors and God for giving me life.
DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to
my dearest cousin, Laurence Dean Robinson,
(April 11, 1960 to January 29, 1980)
who was the best citizen of
the United States of America.

And, to my grandmother, Haruko Mori,
for love and strengths
she has always given to me.
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The study examined racial bias and the self-esteem of Asian and Asian-American children in the United States. Intercorrelations between the children's racial bias as measured by the PRAM II and the self-esteem as measured by the Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children were elucidated. Thirty two children from two different age groups were participated: 4 and 5 year-olds and 6 and 7 year-olds. It was found that the majority (62.5%) of the children had a pro-White/anti-Asian racial bias. A shift was reported from the pro-White/anti-Asian bias to the pro-Asian/anti-White or to being unbiased with age. The Asian and Asian-American children had high self-esteem. The significant group difference was found only in cognitive competence. In both age groups, a negative correlation was found between racial bias and the self-esteem in peer acceptance. Concern about cultural inappropriateness of the items in the self-esteem measure was discussed.
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Cultural pluralism, the preservation of the minority cultures within a country, is a very recent sociological and psychological notion in the United States (Herr, 1989). A couple of centuries ago, ethnic minority groups were still expected, often forced, to accommodate to the dominant society. Yet, members of such a cultural subgroup put a great deal of effort in maintaining the core tradition and identity of the culture (Herr, 1989). Certainly, Hispanics and Asians are the two distinctive cultures that have retained their traditional identity while they have integrated into the mainstream (Herr, 1989).

Asian history in the United States mainly began with Chinese immigration in the 1820s. Between 1850 and 1882, about 200,000 Chinese came to the United States (Thornton, 1992). This massive immigration resulted in the first general legislation directed toward Asians in the United States, the Chinese Exclusion Act in 1882. This legislation was repealed in 1943, however, Japanese had still been classified as "aliens ineligible for citizenship" until the McCarren-Walter Act, or the Immigration and Naturalization Act of 1952, was passed (Thornton, 1992).
Despite the long history of anti-Asian discrimination, the population of Asian-Americans reached approximately 5.1 million in 1985 (Thornton, 1992). The Immigration and Nationality Act in 1965 eliminated other discriminatory federal legislation and helped the U.S. nation's shift in more liberal attitudes toward Asians (Thornton, 1992).

In 1954, the Supreme Court declared that racial segregation of schools was no longer constitutional and the Civil Right Act of 1968 prohibited discrimination in all forms of public life (Williams & Morland, 1976). Along with these court decisions, the anti-Asian climate has shown a gradual decline. However, the fact is we are still living in a society with prejudice. Economic and political conflicts are often attributed to skin color in many urban areas (Williams & Morland, 1977). Certainly, the past laws and practices of racial discrimination have effects on present minority group members. Laws can "fix" discrimination among people but not the prejudices within.

All children need guidance, protection, and approval which provides them with a sense of belonging and help them develop a sense of well-being (Comer, 1989). It is harder for minority children to meet these needs. Minority children, especially at a young age, have no
way to rationalize the unequal treatment in the society. Most of them understand inequalities as deficits of their own ethnic group (Comer, 1989).

Many social scientists in the past (Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson, & Stanford, 1950) made an assumption that children are inevitably prejudiced because of an aggressive instinct; however, many people do not believe that children are prejudiced by nature. Rather, it is linked to processes of their social-cognitive development: they are taught to be prejudiced by experiencing the world. These processes are responsible for determining a person's attitudes and they are manifested by children at their young age (Aboud, 1984).

Racism interferes with the normal development of those children who are subjected to it. It obstructs their ability to perform their full potential and to function as adults later on in their lives. Bagley and Young (1988) stated that ethnic minority group children had considerable difficulty in developing an adequate ethnic identity and self-esteem because of cognitive confusion resulting from being in a minority group. Ethnic identity and self-esteem, thus, are intimately linked together (Bagley & Young, 1988).

According to Comer (1989), cognitive development around three years of age enable children to be aware
of racial differences. Ammons (1950) found that children in any ethnic group can and do discriminate themselves from others by skin color as early as the age of two. All doll studies in the 1970s, in which ethnic attitudes of both black and white children were examined, showed a majority of black children devaluated their color favoring white, while white children evaluated whiteness in overwhelmingly positive ways and blackness in constantly negative ways (Fox & Jordan, 1973).

As a result of poor own-group evaluation, minority children develop with a confused identity. Milner's study (1973) showed that 35% of black children and 20% of Asian children misidentified the black dolls. All of the white children indicated they would rather be white, compared with 74% of Asian children and 72% of black children who responded negatively to stereotypes of their own group. These results expose the serious problems of Asian children growing up in the United States (Bagley & Young, 1988).

Unfortunately, as opposed to the large Asian population in the United States, only a limited number of studies have been completed in the social and behavioral science field employing scientific methods. Examining the mental health of Asian children through their self-concept relative to their racial attitude
is essential in order to provide appropriate education and to meet the needs of the children who have to integrate and adjust themselves to the American society. It is very important to assist Asian children to develop a healthy sense of ethnic identity and self-esteem from the early year of their lives.

Significance of the Study

Although there is increasing awareness of the importance of minority mental health, the majority of the research studies focus on Afro-Americans. Asians have been a neglected ethnic minority group in the United States. Despite many social science research studies on minority groups and educational programs in public schools, the number of scientific studies of Asians is very limited. Especially, there are few developmental studies of Asian children in the United States employing the scientific method. Thus, this study can be an invaluable source that provides information about Asian and Asian-American children in the United States.

Statement of the Problem

This study was undertaken to examine the relationship between racial bias and self-esteem among Asian and Asian-American children.
Purpose of the Study

The purposes of this study were the following:

1. To identify types, if any, of racial bias among Asian and Asian-American children.
2. To determine if there is any racial bias differences/similarities of racial bias between children 4-5 year-olds and the group of 6-7 year-olds.
3. To discover whether or not there is a relationship between racial bias and self-esteem.
4. To determine if there is any differences/similarities between the two age groups.

Research Hypothesis

It was hypothesized that (a) the stronger the pro-White bias as measured by the Preschool Racial Attitude Measure II (Williams et al., 1975) the child had, the less self-esteem as measured by the Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children (Harter & Pike, 1984) he/she had; the stronger the pro-Asian bias the child had, the higher self-esteem he/she had; and (b) the group of the older children would show more pro-Asian bias than the younger
Definitions

In order to create consistency of the basic concept and a better understanding of this study, it was necessary to clarify important terms. The following is a list of those terms and their meanings for consistent usage throughout this research project.


Racial Bias. Characteristic ways of responding to ethnic group patterns, one's own or others, that may have either a positive or negative valence (Phinney & Rotheram, 1987).

Ethnic/Racial Identity. One's sense of belonging to an ethnic group and the part of one's thinking, perceptions, feelings, and behavior that is due to this group membership; the individual's acquisition of group patterns (Phinney & Rotheram, 1987).
Self-esteem. "The extent to which the individual believes himself [herself] to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy. In short, self-esteem is a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in attitudes the individual holds towards himself [herself]" (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 5).

Self-concept. The sum total of the ways in which the individual sees themselves. Self-concept is considered to have two major dimensions: a descriptive component, self-image, and an evaluative component, self-esteem (Stratton & Hayes, 1988).

Assumptions

The validity of this study partly depends upon the following assumptions:

1. The modified Preschool Racial Attitude Measure II was a reliable and valid racial bias measure for Asian children.

2. The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children was a reliable and valid measure of self-esteem.

3. The children who participated in this study provided candid responses to the tests.

4. All participants understood English and were competent to answer the questions.
Limitations

This study focused solely on the relationship between racial bias and self-esteem among Asian and Asian-American children. However, self-esteem among minority children could be affected by the following aspects as well: (a) languages spoken by the child, (b) language skills/abilities, (c) parents' attitude towards own culture, and (d) child-rearing practice patterns.

Summary

During the past thirty years, the public attitude towards racial stereotypes and racial differences has changed. Recently, there has been an increasing movement where the dominant society encourages minorities to emphasize and preserve their own cultures. Although the society has rapidly changed and become aware of discriminations and stereotyping after the historic decision, the Civil Right Act of 1968, discrimination against minority groups has continued in less obvious ways.

Children are aware of racial differences as early as two or three years of age. Their evaluation of ethnicity largely depends on their environment such as community, school climate, and their parents. Unfortunately, research results show that white children
negatively evaluate other groups as early as the age of four. Many minority children develop feelings of inferiority due to the inequalities of the society based on their physical characteristics. Inequality often causes cognitive confusion of ethnic identity and inadequate development of self-esteem among minority children.

Although social scientists and educators have realized these problems and many ethnic studies were conducted, few studies focused on Asian children. Obtaining accurate information and knowledge about the psychological perspectives of Asian children is needed in order to provide them appropriate education and to develop effective assistance or interventions suitable for Asian children in the future.
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter will provide relevant theories, literature, and research conducted with ethnic minority children. The area of interest of this study are types of racial bias among Asian and Asian-American children, assessment of self-esteem of Asian and Asian-American children, and the relationship between their racial bias and self-esteem. This review of literature will discuss the following issues: (a) demographic data and a brief historical review of Asian and Asian-American people residing on the United States, emphasizing the Chinese and the Japanese, (b) ethnic identity development in children, (c) racial bias and prejudice, (d) age differences in children's racial bias, and (e) self-esteem and the relationship to racial bias in children.

Asian and Asian-American

Despite distinctive ethnic and cultural differences, all Asians are somehow lumped together into one racial group in American perception: Nonimmigrants or immigrants, East Asians, Pacific Islanders, Southeast Asians, or other Asians. Nonimmigrants, or Asians, are those who hold their countries of citizenship outside of the United
States and are admitted to this country by class of admission. The top three classes of admission are (a) Temporary visitors for pleasure (B2), (b) Temporary visitors of business (B1), and (c) Students (F1, M1) (Table 1). Japan (18.3%) and China (2.1%) are the two largest Asian countries of citizenship of all nonimmigrants admitted in fiscal year 1990 (U.S. Department of Justice Bulletin #7, 1991) (Table 2).

Those who are granted legal permanent resident status in the United States, so-called "immigrants", and citizens of the United States who have Asian ancestry are identified as Asian-American. Over one third (38.8%) of the total immigrants who have been admitted in fiscal year 1990 are Asian/Pacific Island immigrants (U.S. Department of Justice, 1991). The top five countries are Philippine, Vietnam, Korea, Mainland China, and India (U.S. Department of Justice, 1991) (Table 3). According to 1990 survey of Resident Population Distribution for the United States, Asian or Pacific Islander compose 2.9% of total U.S. population (U.S. Department of Justice, 1991) (Table 4).

The Asian-American population now consists of more than 29 distinct subgroups who differ in language, religion, and customs (Yoshioka et al., 1981). In this study, only East Asian and East Asian-American children
Table 1.
Nonimmigrants Admitted by Class of Admission: Fiscal Year 1990.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class of Admission</th>
<th>1990</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All classes</td>
<td>17,145,680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary visitors for pleasure (B2)</td>
<td>13,003,944</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visa waiver program (WT)</td>
<td>3,883,607</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary visitors for business (B1)</td>
<td>2,642,061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visa waiver program (WB)</td>
<td>274,752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students (F1, M1)</td>
<td>328,232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouses and children (F2, M2)</td>
<td>29,407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exchange scholars and visitors (J1)</td>
<td>177,186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouses and children (J2)</td>
<td>40,915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary workers and trainees (H1-3)</td>
<td>146,761</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign government officials (A1-3)</td>
<td>97,447</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.
Nonimmigrants Admitted for Top 10 Countries of Citizenship in Fiscal Year 1990.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of citizenship</th>
<th>1990</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All countries/ports</td>
<td>17,145,680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Japan</td>
<td>3,137,768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. United Kingdom</td>
<td>2,405,130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Mexico</td>
<td>1,305,440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. West Germany</td>
<td>1,160,037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. France</td>
<td>735,562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Australia</td>
<td>429,611</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Italy</td>
<td>410,087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Brazil</td>
<td>376,777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. China (Mainland China and Taiwan)</td>
<td>365,149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Netherlands</td>
<td>321,945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>6,498,174</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.

Immigrants (Excluding IRCA Legalization) Admitted for
Top 15 Countries of Birth in Fiscal Year 1990.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of birth</th>
<th>1990</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>656,111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Mexico</td>
<td>56,549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Philippines</td>
<td>54,907</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Vietnam</td>
<td>48,662</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Dominican Republic</td>
<td>32,064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Korea</td>
<td>29,548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. China (Mainland)</td>
<td>28,746</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. India</td>
<td>28,679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Soviet Union</td>
<td>25,350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Jamaica</td>
<td>18,828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Iran</td>
<td>18,031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Taiwan</td>
<td>13,839</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. United Kingdom</td>
<td>13,730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Canada</td>
<td>13,717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Poland</td>
<td>13,334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Haiti</td>
<td>11,862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>248,265</td>
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Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race and Hispanic Origin</th>
<th>1990 Census</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All persons</td>
<td>248,709,837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>199,686,070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>29,986,060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eskimo, or Aleut</td>
<td>1,959,234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian/Pacific Islander</td>
<td>7,273,662</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>1,645,472</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filipino</td>
<td>1,406,770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>847,562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian Indian</td>
<td>815,447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>798,849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese</td>
<td>614,547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawaiian</td>
<td>211,014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samoan</td>
<td>62,964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guamanian</td>
<td>49,345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>821,692</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hispanic Origin (of Any Race) 22,709,873 9.0%
will be recruited in order to keep subjects being as a homogeneous group as possible such as skin tones and other physical features. East Asians are Chinese, Japanese, and Korean. These Asian and Asian-American children are brought to this country with their parents or are born as a citizen of the United States of America.

The Chinese

The Chinese were the first immigrants from Asia to the United States. Chinese immigration started in the 1820s and the second immigration in the 1840s (Thornton, 1992). Their immigration from China during the 1840s was encouraged by the social and economical unrest in their home country and by overpopulation in certain provinces (De Vos & Abbott, 1966). They entered the United States as contract laborers and were mainly employed in the construction of the Central Pacific Rail Road and in the mines (Webster, 1992).

The reception of the Chinese immigrant in the United States was harsh and often violent (Ho, 1992). The Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882, the first exclusion act against any ethnic group in U.S. history, and other congressional acts until 1929 severely curtailed their immigration and prevented the Chinese already in the United States from becoming naturalized American citizens (Webster, 1992). In the 1880s, the number of Chinese
leaving the United States was greater than the number coming in (Sowell, 1981).

In 1943, Congress repealed the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 and a series of legislation started to be passed to remove racial barriers to immigration and naturalization (Thornton, 1992). Although pervasive discrimination against the Chinese in American history have been politically corrected, antipathy toward the "yellow peril" seems to be deep-rooted in the American people's mind.

The Japanese

Early Japanese immigrants entered the United States after the Chinese Exclusion Acts were passed. The Japanese immigration started in the 1860s but was just over 200 (Kitano, 1976). Japanese immigration rapidly increased in 1880 and the Japanese population continued to grow until the restrictive American laws of the 1920s were passed (Ho, 1992).

The Japanese, unlike other nations, were to some extent a highly selected people of homeland population. Although they were not wealthy, "Japanese did not send America its tired, its poor, its huddled masses" (Sowell, 1981, p. 164). The first generation were a group of people who were preselected by the Japanese government according to their health, character, and willingness
to work (Sowell, 1981). Discrimination in wage and salary scales against the first Japanese immigrants endured them to become farmers and contract labors on plantations (Ho, 1992).

High productivity of the Japanese in farming compared with Whites lead to the Alien Land Law, stopping the economical rise of the Japanese (Sowell, 1981). During and after World War II, anti-Japanese prejudice and discrimination culminated in the United States. In 1942, over 110,000 Japanese, 75% of whom were citizens of the United States, were forced to remove to the guarded relocation centers known as "concentration camps" (Ho, 1992). Until the Immigration and Naturalization Act of 1952, or McCarren-Walter Act, removed racial bars to immigration and naturalization, Japanese residents were classified as "aliens ineligible for citizenship" (Thornton, 1992).

It has been a couple of decades since federal legislation guaranteeing equal treatment of all Americans was passed. However, discrimination is still on the Denny's menu in the late twentieth century in the United States. This establishment refused to serve Black secret service agents of President Clinton. Unfortunately, laws can only remove ostensible racial barriers.
Children and Ethnic Identity Development

Cognitive developmental psychologists have established the theories of ethnic identity development in children based on empirical studies. Goodman (1964), Porter (1971), Katz (1976), and Aboud (1977) have proposed (Whites' favorite) stage models to analyze how children acquire ethnic identity and attitudes (Table 5). Although these models vary slightly, ethnic awareness of children develops around the age of three and initially children learn belonging to their own ethnic groups between four and eight years old.

Initial racial awareness is likely to be based mainly on obvious perceptual cues such as skin color and facial features (Porter, 1971; Katz, 1976). Racial awareness further involves cognitive conceptualization of one's own ethnic groups' language, critical attributes, characteristics, history, and customs such as distinctive food and holidays (Porter, 1971; Katz, 1976; Aboud, 1977).

Lewis and Brooks (1975) suggested that ethnicity may be another dimension of social cognition (Lewis & Brooks, 1975). Ethnic awareness and identification is an aspect of self-understanding and a process of differentiating the self from others and of defining the self relative to others (Phinney & Rotheram, 1987). Thus, it could be considered the process of social
<table>
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<tr>
<td>Early observation (0-3)</td>
<td>Unawareness of ethnic affiliation (1-4)</td>
<td>Conceptual differentiation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ethnic awareness (3-4)</td>
<td>Awareness of color differences (3)</td>
<td>Formation of rudimentary concepts (4)</td>
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<td>Incipient racial attitudes (4)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Recognition of the irrevocability of cues</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ethnic orientation (4-8)</td>
<td>Strong social preferences with reasons (5)</td>
<td>Consolidation of group concepts (6-7)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Attitude crystalization other (8-10)</td>
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</table>
Some people may believe that children's ethnic awareness leads to prejudice, however, there is no clear evidence that racial or ethnic awareness does lead to prejudice. Rather, it is important to encourage children to become aware of ethnic differences for a couple of reasons. One reason is that ethnic awareness is a necessary precursor of, positive or negative, attitude formation (Aboud, 1988; Clark, 1963). A second reason is that ethnic awareness is an indispensable part of the child's self-identification (Aboud, 1988).

Racial Bias

Racial bias is generally defined as an organized predisposition to respond in a positive or negative manner toward your own and other different ethnic groups (Phinney & Rotheram, 1987). There are several researchers who studied children's preferences or negative attitudes toward their own or another ethnic group. Racial bias in children have been assessed primarily with dolls or pictures with questions such as, Which is nicest?; and Which would you like to play with? All studies so far showed that minority children have less preference for their own group than their Caucasian counterparts.

Fox and Jordan (1973) studied the racial preference
and identification of Black, Chinese American, and White children between the ages of five and seven. Color photographs of Chinese and White children were shown to the subjects and they were asked to show their ethnic identification and preference by pointing to one person in the photographs. Results appeared that Chinese children showed significantly less preference for their own race as well as identification than did Black or White children (Fox & Jordan, 1973).

A British study by Milner (1973) confirmed the results of Fox's and Jordan's study. Milner (1973) adopted the use of the doll and picture techniques. He investigated ethnic identity, preference, and stereotypes in Black, Asian, and White/English children. All of the white children would "rather be" the white figure, and so would 82% of the black children and 65% of the Asian children (Milner, 1973). In response to preferences for different ethnic groups, only 6% of the English children made out-group choices, compared 74% of the Asian children and 72% of the black children (Milner, 1973). Those children who made out-group choices also showed negative stereotypes of their own group (Milner, 1973).

Morland and Williams (1976) obtained data on racial attitudes by semantic differences from White,
Black, Chinese, and Indian children. The groups of children rated nine racial and ethnic categories: African, American, American Indian, Asiatic Indian, Caucasian, Chinese, Japanese, Negro, and Oriental. In addition, five reference concepts were rated: Person, Citizen, Foreigner, Friend, and Enemy. This study revealed a mutual antipathy between the Chinese and Indian groups, a negative attitude toward the term African in all groups except the black children, and a tendency for all subject groups except the black children to evaluate the concept "American" similarly to the concept "Caucasian". In this study, the Chinese children were less sure of their racial preference and of self-identification (Morland & Williams, 1976).

Many other studies which were similarly designed (McMurtry, 1969; Williams & Rausseau, 1971; Williams, Williams, & Beck, 1973; Porter, 1972; Fox & Jordan, 1973) indicated the replicated results. Children tended to associate positive evaluative adjectives with the light skin tone and negative adjectives with the dark skin tone.

Pninney and Rotheram (1987) call negative attitudes towards a particular group prejudice. Prejudice differs from misconceptions or generalizations in flexibility (Allport, 1979). Misconceptions, wherein wrong
information is organized, is an errors of prejudgment, which is able to be rectified when correct information or evidence was exposed (Allport, 1979). Only if prejudgments are not reversible when new knowledge is presented, they then become prejudice (Allport, 1979). Ethnic prejudice was defined by Allport (1979) as the following:

Ethnic prejudice is an antipathy based upon a faulty and inflexible generalization. It may be felt or expressed. It may be directed toward a group as a whole, or toward an individual because he [she] is a member of that group (p. 9).

As mentioned earlier, cognitive developmental psychologists (Goodman 1969; Porter 1971; and Katz, 1976) have proposed racial attitude crystalization in children between the age of eight and ten. Cognitive developments taking place after seven years old affect how sensitive they are to social factors in their environment as well as how children evaluate members of ethnic groups (Aboud, 1988). Therefore, racial bias in children between the age of four and seven could be explained as possible prejudice in the formative stages.

There are three theories that have attempted to explain why children become prejudiced: social learning theory, parental ethnocentrism and authoritarianism,
and social-cognitive theory (Aboud, 1988). Because of complexities discovering the determinants of prejudice, it is not yet possible to select a single right explanation.

Age Differences

A number of developmental research studies of ethnic minority children were conducted in the past. By integrating the results at different ages, it is possible to plot the course of development and to compare majority and minority children.

White children have consistently expressed favorable attitudes towards their own group at four years of age and their attitudes continue to be positive in five, six, and seven years of age (Aboud, 1977; Claek et al., 1980; Morland, 1966; Williams, Best, & Boswell, 1975; Williams & Morland, 1976). In contrast, 27% of Blacks, 15% of Native-American, Chicano, and Chinese reported an own-group preference (Aboud, 1980; Fox & Jordan, 1973; Rice et al., 1974). Analysis of age effects among these minority children indicate an increase in Black and Chicano preference (Asher & Allen, 1969; Fox & Jordan, 1973; Rice et al., 1974).

In response to attitudes toward other groups, White children typically hold negative attitudes from four
35 years of age (Asher & Allen, 1969; Fox & Jordan, 1973; Katz et al., 1975; Rice et al., 1974; Williams & Morland, 1976). Katz et al. (1975) concluded a continuation of negative attitudes up to 12 years of age, however, many others (Aboud, 1979; Clark et al., 1980; Fox & Jordan, 1973; Williams et al., 1975) found that prejudice of White children slightly declined after the age of seven.

As reported earlier, a majority of ethnic minority children (73%) showed no consensus or White preference. The predominant preference for Whites remains high throughout middle childhood among Chicanos, Chinese, and Native-Americans at the expense of developing positive attitudes toward their own group (Aboud, 1977; Rice et al., 1974; Fox & Jordan, 1973). Difference in Black children's attitudes from other minority children were reported. Twenty seven percent of the Black subjects expressed anti-White attitudes and remained high up to 12 years of age (Katz et al., 1975). Pro-White attitudes among Black children often neutralized or became anti-White attitudes with age (Asher & Allen, 1969; Fox & Jordan, 1973).
Self-Esteem

A large number of psychologists, even though they do not share the same language, agree that one of the most fundamental aspects of all development is the development of self-esteem (Lefrancois, 1989). Psychosocial development theory proposed by E. Erikson (1968) probably best explain the importance of self-esteem. He believes that developing a sense of self-worth is an essential stage for developing a strong and healthy sense of identity in the later stage (Erikson, 1968). Also, the Coopersmith study (1967) indicated that self-esteem was closely related to adjustment and behavior of elementary school children (Coopersmith, 1967).

Although both racial attitudes and self-esteem are important constituents of identity, there is a great deal of controversy about the idea that ethnic minority children's racial attitudes are related to their self-esteem. Results of British and American studies have been diverse and contradictory. In White children, the relationship is understood simply as a consequence of ethnocentric and authoritarian parenting style: the lower self-esteem, the stronger own-group preference and the stronger dislike of minority groups (Bagley, Mallick, & Verma, 1979; Bagley, Verma, Mallick, & Young,
1979). However, the opposite relationship cannot apply to all ethnic minority children.

Among Black children, an inconsistent relationship between racial preference and self-esteem has been reported. In two studies (Katz et al., 1975; Spencer, 1982), no relation was found. On the other hand, two other studies (Stephan & Rosenfield, 1979; Ward & Braun, 1972) found that the Black children with high self-esteem were more positive toward own group and more negative toward others. However, the children with low self-esteem had rather neutral attitudes toward Blacks than negative (Stephan & Rosenfield, 1979; Ward & Baun, 1972).

One study with Native-American children found a relationship between their self-esteem and racial preference. Native-American children with high self-esteem showed more positive attitudes toward their own group than those children with low self-esteem (George & Hoppe, 1979). This relationship was only found in children younger than 12 years old. Unlike other studies which used a standardized test of self-esteem, George and Hoppe (1979) measured self-esteem in terms of spontaneous positive descriptions of oneself.

With Hispanic children, no relation between self-esteem and racial preference has been found (Stephan & Rosenfield, 1979). Similarly, no relationship was

Summary

This chapter provided a report on relevant theories, literature, and studies related to ethnic minority children. The areas of interest for this study were types of bias in Asian and Asian-American children, assessment of self-esteem of Asian and Asian-American children, and relation between their racial bias and self-esteem. In this review of literature, data and evidence were gathered on the following points: (a) demographic data of Asian and Asian-American populations and a brief historical background of the Chinese and the Japanese, (b) ethnic identity development in children, (c) racial bias and prejudice, (d) age differences in racial bias, and (e) relation between self-esteem and racial bias in children.
CHAPTER 3
PROCEDURES AND METHOD

Introduction
The focus of this chapter will be on the nature of this study and a detailed description of the steps taken for its implementation. This chapter will also review the purpose the study and address the sample population, and a detailed description of the instruments employed to gather the data.

Review of Purpose of the Study
The purpose of this study were the following:
1. To identify the type, if any, of racial bias among Asian and Asian-American children.
2. To determine if there is any racial bias differences/similarities between children who are 4-5 years-old and 6-7 years-old.
3. To discover whether or not there is a relationship between racial bias and self-esteem among children and in each age group of the children.
4. To determine if there is any differences/similarities of the correlation between racial bias and self-esteem between the two age groups.
Hypothesis

The hypothesis for this study were (a) the stronger the pro-white racial bias the Asian and Asian-American children had, the lower their self-esteem; the stronger the pro-Asian racial bias the Asian and Asian-American children, the higher the self-esteem; and (b) the group of the older children would show more pro-Asian bias than the younger children.

Research Design

The study involved testing two groups of children. These groups were Asian and Asian-American children of equal numbers from two different age groups (4-5 years-old and 6-7 year-old).

Control Variables

1. All children were Asian born who live in the United States or American born Asian who have pure Asian ancestry.
2. All children were between the age of 4 and 7.
3. All children lived in Tucson, Arizona.

Independent Variables

1. One half of the children were between the age of 4 and 5.
2. One half of the children were between the age of 6 and 7.
Dependent Variables

1. Racial bias/attitude as measured by the Preschool Racial Attitude Measure II (Williams et al., 1975).

2. Self-esteem as measured by the Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children (Harter & Pike, 1984).

Sample Population

Participants were recruited from Asian organizations at the University of Arizona, Asian churches in Tucson, Arizona, and convenient samples.

Sex of the subjects was not considered as a base of design of this study and sample selection because of the following reasons:

1. No significant correlation has been found between sex of subjects and racial attitude/bias. (Williams & Best, 1975, Williams & Morland, 1977, and Bagley & Young, 1988).

2. No gender difference were found in self-esteem (Hoffman, Ushpiz, & Levy-Shiff, 1988).

Procedure

Initial contacts with pastors of Asian churches and the president of the Asian and Asian-American
associations were made in early September, 1992. Approval to ask for volunteers in their organizations was granted at this time. The researcher attended a meeting of each organization, described the research, and asked the members for their volunteer participation. When there were volunteers, their names and phone numbers were listed. The researcher contacted the parents and scheduled a pre-research meeting in order to obtain parent/child permission (Appendix B). On December 9, 1992, the University of Arizona Human Subjects Committee exempted the research project from review according to regulations published by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services [45 CFR Part 46.101(b)(2)] (Appendix C).

From November, 1992 through February, 1993, appointments for data gathering were scheduled with the subjects' parents. Two tests, The Preschool Racial Attitude Measure II (Williams et al., 1975) and The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children (Harter & Pike, 1984), were administered individually at the subjects' home. Specific instructions for administration of each test were carefully followed by the researcher. The data were recorded on the scoring sheet specifically designed for each test.
Modification of the Instrument

Although a little information about measurement of children's ethnic attitudes has been given, results of Nagata's comparative study in 1983 showed that the Preschool Racial Attitude Measure II (PRAM II) was the only measurement which demonstrated a pattern of correlations of both convergent and discriminant validity. However, an important methodological problem existed in using the instrument with Asian subjects.

Since the PRAM II was originally designed to measure white/black racial bias (see Instrumentation for details), it eliminated the possible differences in features of both races other than skin color. In order to eliminate other feature differences, the test used 36 pairs of identical pictures with black hair and black eye color for the two races. Thus, the one which was supposed to represent Euro-American could be misinterpreted as Asian with Asian subjects. In addition, the skin color of Afro-American pictures was too dark to represent Asian skin.

In order to making a color modification of the PRAM II, data were gathered from 47 Asian-American students from the Asian-American Association at the University of Arizona. They were first asked to identify the race of the pictures. All of them identified the pictures
as Asian and Afro-American. Second, they were asked to think about the "typical" hair and eye colors for Euro-American according to their perception. The question asked was "When you heard the word 'white' or 'Caucasian', what hair color and eye color first came up into your mind?".

As a result, 53.2% answered that the "typical hair color" of Euro-American was light brown followed by dark/dirty blond (34%) and blond (12.8%). The "typical eye color" of Euro-American the Asian students perceive was blue (42.6%) followed by green (34%) and brown (23.4%). No Asian students in the association answered the color black for the typical hair color or eye color of Euro-American.

Based on this information, light brown and blue were chosen for hair and eyes of the Euro-American pictures. For skin color, pink-peach was used for Euro-American and orange-peach for Asian. The final product was evaluated again by the same students and they confirmed the modified colors better represented both Euro-American and Asian.
Instrumentation

The PRAM II

The PRAM was a picture-story technique developed to assess racial attitudes of young children originally toward Euro-American and Afro-American people. The material consists of 36 color pictures (24 racial attitude pictures and 12 sex-role pictures) and 36 associated stories (Appendix A). The racial attitude pictures describe drawings of a pair of human figures which are identical except for the skin colors: one has a peach skin color to represent Euro-American and the other has a chocolate-brown skin color to represent Afro-American. In order to assess racial attitudes towards Euro-American and Asian-American, color modification was made by the researcher based on pilot test information (see Modification of Instrument for details).

In the 24 racial attitude pictures, both sexes, a variety of ages, and several different postures are presented. In the 12 sex-role pictures, each pair consists of a male and a female figure that are the same age group and the same race. One half of the pictures represents Euro-American and the other half represents Afro-Americans (Asian-American in the modified version). The 36 stories associated with the pictures contain 24 evaluative adjectives which are stimuli to evoke positive
or negative responses towards the races (Table 6) (Williams & Best, 1975).

The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children

This instrument was designed to describe two general constructs: perceived competence and perceived social acceptance of children. This test employs a domain-specific approach: cognitive competence, physical competence, peer acceptance, and maternal acceptance. Cognitive competence and physical competence subscales are the factors of general competence; and peer acceptance and maternal acceptance are the factors of social acceptance. Each of the four subscales consists of six items, in total of 24 items (Appendix A).

Because of rapid developmental changes in specific skills in early age, two versions of this test were devised: one for preschoolers and kindergardeners (4 and 5 years-olds), and the other for first and second graders (6 and 7 year-olds). The pictorial scale presents 24 actions and activities which are developmentally appropriate for each age group, accompanying the verbal descriptions which are to be read by the examiner. The scores range from 1 to 4, with 4 as the most competent choice.
Table 6.

Adjectives used in the PRAM II procedures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive Evaluative Adjectives (PEAs)</th>
<th>Negative Evaluative Adjectives (NEAs)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clean</td>
<td>Dirty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Bad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kind</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretty</td>
<td>Ugly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smart</td>
<td>Stupid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendly</td>
<td>Unfriendly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happy</td>
<td>Sad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthy</td>
<td>Sick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpful</td>
<td>Selfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Wrong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wonderful</td>
<td>Cruel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reliability

The PRAM II

The internal consistency of the PRAM II was examined using the Spearman-Brown technique, or the "split-half" comparisons. The study estimated the internal consistency of the PRAM II at the preschool level is .80. The best available estimate of test-retest reliability and alternate-form reliability is the correlation of .55 (Williams & Best, 1975).

The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children

The internal consistency employing coefficient of this instrument was the mid- to high .80s as the reliability of the total scale (all 24 items). Subscale reliability of individual subscales fell within a range from .50 to .85. Reliability of combined subscales according to the two factors (general competence and social acceptance) ranged from .75 to .89 (Harter & Pike, 1984).

Validity

The PRAM II

The convergent and discriminant validity of the PRAM II was examined using a simplified version of a
multitrait-multimethod matrix. Although the statistical
counts were not impressively high, the PRAM II was the
only one of the three measures which revealed a pattern
of correlation in both convergent and discriminant
validity.

Convergent validity was tested through the
correlations among three ethnic attitude measures for
children which were currently employed: the Doll Choice,
the PRAM II, and the Katz-Zalk Projective Prejudice Test
(KZ). The correlation of the PRAM II with the Doll Choice
was \( r = .42, p < .01 \), and with the KZ \( r = .31, p < .01 \)
(Nagata, 1983). In addition, the PRAM II was positively
 correlated (.40) with the Color Meaning Test II (Williams
& Best, 1975).

Discriminant validity was studied by examining the
correlation with two egocentrism measures: a Role-Taking
Task and a Perceptual Perspective-Taking Task. The result
showed that the PRAM II was significantly uncorrelated
with both measures. Also, both the PRAM II and the
Perspective-Taking Test were negatively correlated with
age of subjects (\( r = -.20, p < .05 \), and \( r = -.21, p < .05 \)) (Nagata, 1983).
The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children

Convergent validity for this instrument was assessed by examining children's supportive reasoning for their responses. The study showed that children could provide very precise rational for their competences in both the cognitive (96%) and physical domains (96.5%)

Discriminant validity was tested in each of the four domains: the cognitive domain with productivity of children, the social domain with current moving experience of children, the physical domain with prematurity of birth, and the maternal acceptance with childhood depression. The study found the overall correlation of each category to be .48, p < .001 (Harter & Pike, 1984).

Summary

This chapter reviewed the purpose of the study, described the design of the study and sample population, and provided the details of procedures taken including a modification of one of the instruments. Also, a detailed description of the instruments was given. In addition, reliability and validity considerations of each instrument were addressed.
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

This chapter will state the objective of data measurement and a review of hypothesis. The researcher will provide a report on the actual sample population who participated in the study, and any changes or difficulties encountered. This chapter will also present the results of the data analysis with regard to each specific purpose of this study.

Objective of The Data Measurement

The objective of the data measurement was to obtain descriptive evaluations of the Asian and Asian-American children who participated in this study. Frequency distribution and the t-test were performed on racial bias analysis. Similarly, the t-tests were calculated between two groups of the children for the mean scores of each self-esteem subscales. A Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient (Pearson r) was generated for each self-esteem subscale score and the racial bias score, and the total self-esteem score and the racial bias score.
Review of Research Hypothesis

The hypothesis for this study were the following:

1. The stronger the pro-White racial bias the Asian and Asian-American children had, the lower their self-esteem: the stronger the pro-Asian racial bias the Asian and Asian-American children, the higher the self-esteem.

2. The group of the older children would show stronger pro-Asian bias than the younger children.

Sample Population

The total number of the participants were 32: 11 Chinese, 18 Chinese Americans, 3 Japanese Americans. No Japanese children were able to be recruited. Fourteen children were between four and five years of age and 18 children were between six and seven years of age. The mean age was 4.8 years for the younger group (Group 1) and 6.6 years for the older group (Group 2). Sex of the subjects was not considered as a base of the research design in this study.

Although equal numbers of children of the two age groups were scheduled for testing, four children of Group 1 were not able to complete the tests for different reasons: Father approved, but Mother was not consulted
and refused to put their child into a "psychological experiment" on the scheduled date; a family was about to leave the United States and the child got an illness; a child had a very high level of performance anxiety because Mother told him to perform well; a child had difficulty understanding the questions accompanied with the Preschool Racial Attitude Measure II (Williams et al., 1975) in either language and decided to withdraw from the study.

Results and Analysis

Racial Bias

The score on the modified Preschool Racial Attitude Measure II (PRAM II) was based on responses to the physical characteristics of 24 pairs of people in the drawings. Thus, it has a range of 0 - 24. The overall distribution of racial attitude score indicated that the Asian and Asian-American children had a strong White preference and showed negative attitudes toward Asian ethnic group.

Only 9.4% of the children showed a pro-Asian/anti-Euro bias (A+/E-): 6.3% for the definite A+/E- bias and 3.1% for the probable A+/E- bias. In contrast, 62.5% of the children showed a pro-Euro/anti-Asian bias (E+/A-): 46.9% for the definite E+/A- bias and 15.6%
for the probable E+/A- bias. The others (28.1%) were considered as unbiased (Table 7).

Group 1 responded to an E+/A- bias more frequently than did Group 2. A majority (85.7%) of the 14 children fell into the definite E+/A- bias (71.4%) and the probable E+/A- bias (14.3%). None of the children in Group 1 showed either the definite A+/E- bias or the probable A+/E- bias. The rest of them (14.3%) appeared to be unbiased (Table 8).

In Group 2, the slight shift towards an A+/E- bias was observed. The definite E+/A- bias dropped to 27.8% and 16.7% for the probable E+/A- bias. An increase in an A+/E- bias was shown up to 16.6%: 11.1% for the definite A+/E- bias and 5.5% for the probable A+/E- bias. The children classified as unbiased were nearly doubled from 14.3% to 38.9% (Table 8).

The total score range was 7 to 24 with the total mean score of 16.44 (SD = 4.88) (Table 9). The total mean score was not used for interpretation of the overall group tendency since the racial bias classification only applies to the performance of the individual child and does not apply to group means. Each group mean was compared as an indicative of a group tendency of a racial bias.
Table 7.

Frequency Distribution of Racial Bias I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Racial Bias</th>
<th>Frequency (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definite E+/A-</td>
<td>46.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probable E+/A-</td>
<td>15.6% (62.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unbiased</td>
<td>28.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definite A+/E+</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probable A+/E-</td>
<td>3.1% (9.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8.

**Frequency Distribution of Racial Bias II**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Racial Bias</th>
<th>Group 1 (%)</th>
<th>Group 2 (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definite E+/A-</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
<td>27.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probable E+/A-</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unbiased</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>38.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definite A+/E-</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probable A+/E-</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 9.

Group Differences in Racial Bias I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18.29</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>16.44</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The mean score of Group 1 was 18.29 (SD = 3.29), ranging from 12 to 24 points. The mean score of Group 2 was 15.00 (SD = 5.29), ranging from 7 to 24 points (Table 9). The 3.29 points difference of the means between Group 1 and Group 2 was not found to be significant (t = 1.98, p = .057) (Table 10).

Self-Esteem

The self-esteem of the children was evaluated by two versions of the Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children (Harter and Pike, 1983): for preschool-kindergarten (Group 1) and for first-second graders (Group 2). The score was based on the children's responses to the question "Which boy/girl is the most like you?" on the 24 items (Appendix A). The children's choices were coded in the forms of a score from 1, the least competent, to 4, the most competent. Comparisons of the means of each self-esteem scales between Group 1 and Group 2 were performed using the t-test.

Overall self-esteem of the Asian and Asian-American children appeared to be high (M = 3.09, SD = 1.07) (Table 11). Since two of the subscales, the cognitive competence scale and the maternal acceptance scale, were apparently culturally inappropriate to measure Asian and Asian-
Table 10.

Group Differences in Racial Bias II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18.29</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>.057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 11.
Self-Esteem of Asian and Asian-American Children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscales</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptance</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternal</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptance</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
American children's self-esteem, the score could be even higher if a culturally fair test, if any, was administered. A comparison of the overall mean scores between Group 1 and Group 2 did not find the difference of the means to be significant \((t = .009, p = .985)\) (Table 12).

**Cognitive competence**

The culturally inappropriate items were found in the subscale of cognitive competence in the both versions for preschool-kindergarten and for first-second graders. Those items are the following:

**Preschool-kindergarten**
- # 9 Knows names of colors.
- #13 Good at counting.
- #17 Knows alphabet.

**First-second graders**
- # 1 Good at numbers.
- #13 Can write words.
- #17 Good at spelling.

Those children in this study were bilingual, however, the answers to the above mentioned items would change according to which language the questions were addressed (Chapter 5).

Despite the fore-mentioned items, the Asian and Asian-American children scored remarkably high in
Table 12.
Comparison of the Means of Self-Esteem by Group 1 and Group 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Self-esteem</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>-2.89</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Physical</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td></td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Peer</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Acceptance</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Maternal</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Acceptance</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td></td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
cognitive competence. The overall mean was 3.85 (SD = .21), out of a possible 4.00. The means of each group were 3.74 (SD = .26) for Group 1 and 3.94 (SD = .12) for Group 2 (Table 11). The difference of the means between Group 1 and Group 2 was found to be significant (t = -2.89, p = .007) (Table 12). Thus, the older children have a tendency to perceive themselves more competent than do the younger children.

Physical competence

Perceived physical competence by the Asian and Asian-American children was found to be high. The overall mean score was 3.24 (SD = .43) out of a possible 4.00. The means of both groups were 3.25 (SD = .43) for Group 1 and 3.24 (SD = .44) for Group 2 (Table 11). The difference of the means between the two groups was not found to be significant (t = .05, p = .958) (Table 12).

Peer acceptance

Perceived peer acceptance was found to be average in both groups, however, the children scored relatively lower than the two subscales of general competence. The overall mean of the peer acceptance score was 2.69 (SD = .68), out of a possible 4.00. Group 1 had a mean of 2.85 (SD = .69) and Group 2 had a mean of 2.56 (SD = .67) (Table 11). The group difference was not found to be significant (t = 1.16, p = .256) (Table 12).
Maternal acceptance

The culturally inappropriate items were also found in both versions of the maternal acceptance subscale: for preschool-kindergarten and for first-second graders. The culturally inappropriate items were the following:

Preschool-kindergarten

# 8 Mom takes you places you like.
#12 Mom cooks favorite foods.
#20 Mom plays with you.

First-second graders

# 4 Mom let you eat at friends.
# 8 Mom takes you places you like.
#12 Mom cooks favorite food.
#20 Mom let you stay overnight.

Resulting from these culturally inappropriate items, the overall mean of maternal acceptance was 2.56 (SD = .37), out of a possible 4.00 (Table 11). Although the score can be interpreted as an average, it was measured by the scale based on the totally unrelated items to maternal acceptance in Asian culture (Chapter 5).

The mean scores of both groups were 2.51 (SD = .43) for Group 1 and 2.59 (SD = .33) for Group 2 (Table 11). The difference of the means of maternal acceptance between Group 1 and Group 2 was found to be not significant
Intercorrelations Among Variables

A tendency of a negative correlation was found between the racial bias score and the overall self-esteem measure but was not able to be justified as significant ($r = -.3015, p = .094$) (Table 13). Among Group 1 and Group 2, a tendency of a negative correlation between the racial bias score and the overall self-esteem score was also found. However, they appeared not to be significant ($r = -.3737, p = .188; r = -.3197, p = .196$) (Table 13).

A significant negative correlation was found between racial bias and peer acceptance among both Group 1 and Group 2 ($r = -.6286, p = .016; r = -.6682, p = .002$). A consistent negative correlation between the total racial bias score and the total peer acceptance score of both groups was also found to be significant ($r = -.5143, p = .003$) (Table 13).

The cognitive competence score and the physical competence score among Group 1, and the total cognitive competence score of both Group 1 and Group 2 showed a tendency of negative correlations with the racial bias score. However, none of them was enough to be significant ($r = -.0375, p = .899; r = -.0914, p = .759; r = -.1337,$ (Table 12)).
Table 13.

Correlations Between Racial Bias and Self-Esteem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Racial Bias</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>Group 1</td>
<td>Group 2</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(N = 14)</td>
<td>(N = 18)</td>
<td>(N = 32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>r = -.0375</td>
<td>r = .1110</td>
<td>r = -.1337</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>p = .899</td>
<td>p = .661</td>
<td>p = .466</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical</td>
<td>r = -.0914</td>
<td>r = .1422</td>
<td>r = .0679</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>p = .756</td>
<td>p = .573</td>
<td>p = .712</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer</td>
<td>r = -.6286</td>
<td>r = -.6682</td>
<td>r = -.5143</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptance</td>
<td>p = .016</td>
<td>p = .002</td>
<td>p = .003</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternal</td>
<td>r = .1081</td>
<td>r = .1426</td>
<td>r = .0769</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptance</td>
<td>p = .713</td>
<td>p = .572</td>
<td>p = .676</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>r = -.3737</td>
<td>r = -.3197</td>
<td>r = -.3015</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>p = .188</td>
<td>p = .196</td>
<td>p = .094</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
p = .466) (Table 13). No relationship was found either between racial bias and maternal acceptance or between racial bias and physical competence.

Summary

This chapter provided the results of the data gathered, stated the objectives of data measurement, review of hypothesis, the actual sample population, and tables that illustrate the findings. The researcher made a note about cultural fairness of the self-esteem measured by the Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children (Harter & Pike, 1985).
CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

In this chapter, a summary of the motivational interests and significance of the study will be presented. Then, it will be followed by a brief overview of the findings and a discussion of problems in the self-esteem measure employed in this study. Finally, recommendations and suggestions will be provided to researchers, educators, and professionals in the mental health field.

Summary

Currently, little is known and studied on the psychological perspectives of Asian and Asian-American children. Being a "model minority", children of the Asian ethnic group are neglected. The children have to confront the dual problems in adjusting to their minority status in the United States and in developing a comfortable degree of self-identity towards their own ethnic group.

The present study examined racial bias and self-esteem among Asian and Asian children being raised in the United States, and how those were related to each other. Those children who participated in the study were between the age of four and seven. The differential
impact of age was also examined by making a comparison between two age groups: 4 and 5 year-olds and 6 and 7 year-olds.

Results showed, regardless of age, a majority of the Asian and Asian-American children had a pro-White/anti-Asian bias. In the younger age group, none of the children showed a pro-Asian/anti-White bias. The older children appeared to be more unbiased than the younger group, 38.9% compared to 14.3%, and 16.6% of them showed a pro-Asian/anti-White bias. The mean score difference between the two groups was not found to be significant.

Overall self-esteem of the Asian and Asian-American children was high. The mean of cognitive competence was the highest among the four subscales. The children scored low in the peer acceptance scale relative to the general competence scales. With problems in the scale, the children scored lowest in maternal acceptance among the four subscales.

Difference in self-concept between the younger group and the older group was found only in cognitive competence. The older children had higher self-concept in cognitive competence than did the younger children, however, both groups scored notably high in the subscale.

In both age groups, a significant negative
correlation was found between racial bias and self-esteem in peer acceptance. The stronger the pro-White/anti-Asian racial bias the children had, the lower the self-esteem in peer acceptance. A tendency of a negative correlation was seen between racial bias and cognitive competence. No correlation was found between racial bias and maternal acceptance and physical competence in both groups.

Discussion

Culturally inappropriate items were found in the cognitive competence subscale and the maternal acceptance subscale of the self-esteem measure. Each subscale is based on six items. In the version for preschool-kindergarten, three out of six items in the cognitive competence scale and three out of six items in the maternal acceptance scale were found to be inappropriate. In the version for first-second graders, three out of six in the cognitive competence scale and four out of six in the maternal acceptance scale were found inappropriate.
Cognitive Competence Subscale

The concerned items in the cognitive competence scale are the following:

Preschool-kindergarten

# 9  Knows names of colors.
#13  Good at counting.
#17  Knows alphabet.

First-second graders

# 1  Good at numbers.
#13  Can write words.
#17  Good at spelling.

Responses to these items depend highly on a degree of bilinguality of the child, not simply on his/her cognitive competence of each items.

Few individuals in the world become "balanced bilinguals", where they are equally fluent and comfortable in both language (Lefrancois, 1989). For most individuals, there is a dominant or preferred language. Especially for bilingual children under the age of seven, the second yet dominant language (such as English for American minorities) has a negative impact on language skills in children because learning the second language interferes with learning or remembering the first language (Cummins & Swain, 1986).
Maternal Acceptance Subscale

The culturally inappropriate items for Asian and Asian-American children in the maternal acceptance scale are the following:

**Preschool-kindergarten**

# 8  Mom takes you places you like.
#12   Mom cooks favorite foods.
#20   Mom plays with you.

**First-second graders**

# 4  Mom let you eat at friends.
# 8  Mom takes you places you like.
#12   Mom cooks favorite foods.
#20   Mom let you stay overnight.

These items are the very ethnocentric denominator of maternal acceptance invented by the psychologists from the dominant or mainstream culture for the children from the mainstream in the United States. An explanation of the justifications for each item is below.

**Mom takes you places you like**

The roles and expectations of members in an Asian and Asian-American family are clearly defined. Traditionally, the father is the head of the family and makes the final decisions. His power and authority generally is unquestioned (Ho, 1987; Iwao, 1993). Therefore, father is the one to decide whether or not
to take their child places he/she likes. The item #4/8 is generally inappropriate to measure maternal acceptance in Asian culture.

**Mom cooks favorite foods.**

The mother in an Asian and Asian-American family, on the other hand, is regarded as the nurturant caretaker of their child's physical, social, and emotional health, self-sacrificing and protecting the child (Ho, 1987; Ho, 1992; Iwao, 1993). Thus, in order to avoid an unbalanced diet, the mother plans and cooks each meal according to the child's nutritious needs, and does not always take young children's requests except for some special occasions. Therefore, this item has little to do with maternal acceptance or love.

**Mom plays with you**

In Asian culture, a "good mother" is measured by how much she does for the sake of the child (Iwao, 1993). Because of their educationally competitive and highly academic achievement-oriented cultural background, Asian mothers, including working mothers, are closely involved in their children's education, especially in the primary school years: preparing the supplies for school, monitoring the child's homework, and keeping close eye on the child's achievement (Iwao, 1993). In Japan, 47% of mothers serve as the principal family tutor (Prime
Thus, concepts and teaching are the pervasive mother-child relationship in Asian and Asian-American families. Simply playing with the child is not considered as "quality time" and does not apply for the maternal acceptance measurement.

Mom let you eat at friends/Mom let you stay overnight

The traditional Asian values emphasize formality in social relationship (Ho, 1992; Atkinson et al., 1993; Iwao, 1993). The value of self-discipline requires the individuals to maintain modesty in behavior, be humble in expectations, and show appropriate hesitation and unwillingness to intrude on another's time, energy, or resources (Ho, 1992; Iwao, 1993).

Parents, especially mothers, are responsible to guide their children for socially acceptable behavior as an Asian. Thus, not allowing young children to eat at friends house or not letting them stay overnight with friends is a part of the processes transcending such cultural values. The cultural values should not be interpreted as low maternal acceptance by simplistic judgment from the White psychologists' eye.
Recommendations

From the results and findings of this study, recommendations to future researchers, to educators, and to counselors in the field will be provided. There are many possibilities for future research, and serious educational and counseling program needs for the multicultural related issues.

To Researchers

Further research studies employing a larger number of Asian and Asian-American children are needed in order to obtain more statistical data to analyze and conclude intercorrelations between variables. However, it is difficult for a single researcher to conduct research with a large sample population since self-reporting or self-administer tests are impossible to utilize because of the age of targeted population. It would be necessary to recruit bilingual co-researchers or bilingual assistants with at least Bachelor's degrees and to provide a careful training for interviewing skills.

Besides the number of subjects, it is important to increase independent and dependent variables of the study for further analysis of racial bias and self-esteem. Although sex differences have not been found in the previous studies on racial attitudes with Black/White subjects, sex would be an interesting independent variable
for Asian subjects because parental and societal treatments towards each sex are distinctive in Asian culture.

Additional dependent variables could be language proficiency in each language of the child, parental attitudes towards their own ethnic group and culture, and parental attitudes towards the child's racial attitudes. One of the expecting problems is the availability of assessment instruments for each variables.

The final recommendation for future researchers is utilization of a culturally appropriate self-esteem measure, if any existed written in the English language. The most important issue here is whether there is such a thing as culturally fair or bias free tests. The "one fits all" concept should not, does not, and cannot apply to any examination of the individuals from different cultural background.

It is strongly recommended that culturally specific tests suitable for each ethnic group be developed rather than force one cultural norm to fit, hiding behind the sounds-beautiful but false justification called "culturally fair". Ethnocentrism of the previous White researchers is manifested in wasting their time developing a culturally fair test, which is impossible to achieve. A cultural specific test is the culturally fair test.
Any ability of the individuals has to be tested, analyzed, and understood in their cultural context.

To Educators

Since school segregation is no longer constitutional, educators cannot avoid having contact with racially different children from themselves. Thus, it is necessary in the twentieth century to attend more than one multicultural training to be aware of their own bias and to learn to manage their bias in professional settings in order not to do harm to children and to teach and work effectively.

As the results of this study showed, peer acceptance has particularly significant meanings for ethnic minority children in terms of development of a positive view of their belonging to a minority group. Enhancing peer acceptance of minority children cannot be achieved only by their own effort. Without environmental or climate changes, it would never be accomplished.

The part educators need to play in multicultural pluralism is large. Planning and implementing school intervention is indispensable. Here, the first mentioned training becomes very important. Without any training, school intervention for racial prejudice will not be operated properly and will not work effectively. School intervention has an impact, however, educators'
consistent attitudes and behavior in daily situations are the most authentic education for young children.

To Mental Health Professionals

Development of counseling programs for both parents and children is highly recommended. Among mental health professionals, Asians and Asian-Americans are famous for alienating themselves from counseling. However, it is not necessarily true for all kind of counseling. Although Asians and Asian-Americans rarely use therapy, a large number of parents are willing to attend seminars and workshops which benefit or have a potential to benefit their children. Thus, didactic, educational counseling programs focused on bicultural issues will satisfy and support Asian parents' needs and concern.

Since Asian culture generally does not differentiate psychiatric treatment, psychotherapy, from counseling, mental health professionals have to carefully choose the name for their sessions in order to avoid scaring Asian clients away.

It is the undeniable fact that Asian and Asian-American children do need counseling to develop a healthy sense of ethnic identity and to maintain high self-esteem. However, few parents are willing to put them into a special group for mental health. Thus, counseling programs, though they cannot be called such,
for parents are indirect but the best possible counseling use of Asian and Asian-American children. Support groups are not necessary to be planed by mental health professionals. Because the Asian community itself has counseling functions serving as a support group, there are many pre-existing "self-directed support groups" in Western words.

Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed motivation and significance of the study. An overview of the research findings and results was also provided followed by discussions about cultural inappropriateness of the self-esteem instrument utilized in this study. Finally, recommendations were made to future researchers, to educators, and to professionals in the mental health fields.
APPENDIX A:

STORIES FOR THE PRESCHOOL RACIAL
ATTITUDE MEASURE II AND LIST OF ITEMS FOR
THE PICTORIAL SCALE OF PERCEIVED COMPETENCE
AND SOCIAL ACCEPTANCE FOR YOUNG CHILDREN
PRAM II Procedure:
Picture Descriptions and Stories for the Racial Attitude (RA)
and Sex-Role (SR) Items

Series A

1. SR - Euro girl - Euro boy sitting
   Here are two children. One of these children has four dolls with which they like to have tea parties. Which child likes to play with dolls?

2. RA - Afro little boy - Euro little boy - walking
   Here are two little boys. One of them is a kind little boy. Once he saw a kitten fall into a lake and he picked up the kitten to save it from drowning. Which is the kind little boy?

3. RA - Euro little girl - Afro little girl - standing
   Here are two little girls. One of them is an ugly little girl. People do not like to look at her. Which is the ugly little girl?

4. SR - Afro teenage boy - Afro teenage girl - sitting
   Here are two children. They are thinking about what they want to be when they grow up. One of them wants to be a policeman. Which one wants to be a policeman?

5. RA - Euro teenage boy - Afro teenage boy - standing
   Here are two boys. One of them is a friendly boy. He has a lot of friends. Which one is the friendly boy?

6. RA - Afro teenage girl - Euro teenage girl - walking
   Here are two girls. When a lady asked one of them where she lived, the girl gave the wrong answer. Which is the wrong girl?

7. SR - Euro man - Euro woman - walking
   Here are two people. After supper one of these people clears the table and washes all the dishes. Which person washes the dishes?

8. RA - Euro woman - Afro woman - sitting
   Here are two women. One of them is a nice woman. She does nice things for her husband and children. Which is the nice woman?

9. RA - Afro man - Euro man - standing
   Here are two men. One of them is a bad man. He took money out of his children's piggy bank and never put it back. Which is the bad man?

10. SR - Afro teenage girl - Afro teenage boy - standing
    Here are two young people. One of them works at a gas station after school. Which one works at a gas station?
11. RA - Afro man - Euro man - standing
Here are two men. One of them is a healthy man. He never has a cold or a high temperature. Which is the healthy man?

12. RA - Euro woman - Afro woman - sitting
Here are two women. One of them is a sad woman. She has been left alone with no one to talk to. Which is the sad woman?

13. SR - Euro woman - Euro man - standing
Here are two people. One of these people has baked two delicious apple pies. Which person baked the pies?

14. RA - Euro little boy - Afro little boy - standing
Here are two little boys. One of them is a clean little boy. Whenever he washes his face he also washes behind his ears. Which is the clean little boy?

15. RA - Afro teenage girl - Euro teenage girl - sitting
Here are two girls. One of them is a stupid girl. She doesn’t even know how to spell her name. Which is the stupid girl?

16. SR - Afro man - Afro woman - standing
Here are two people. When the car won’t run, one of them is always able to fix it. Which person can fix the car?

17. RA - Euro man - Afro man - sitting
Here are two men. One of them is a very selfish man. He does not care about anyone except himself. Which is the selfish man?

18. RA - Afro woman - Euro woman - walking
Here are two women. People say that one of them is a wonderful woman. She can do almost anything. Which is the wonderful woman?

Series B

19. SR - Euro little girl - Euro little boy - standing
Here are two children. One of them wants to grow up and be a cowboy. Which child wants to be a cowboy?

20. RA - Afro little girl - Euro little girl - sitting
Here are two little girls. Everyone says that one of them is very pretty. Which is the pretty girl?

21. RA - Euro little boy - Afro little boy - sitting
Here are two little boys. One of them is a very naughty little boy. He drew pictures on the walls of his house with his crayons and upset his mother. Which is the naughty little boy?
22. SR - Afro little boy - Afro little girl - standing
Here are two children. One of them likes to dress up in their mother's clothes and pretend that they are grown up. Which child likes to dress up in their mother's clothes?

23. RA - Euro teenage girl - Afro teenage girl - standing
Here are two girls. One of them is a happy girl. She smiles almost all of the time. Which one is the happy girl?

24. RA - Afro teenage boy - Euro teenage boy - sitting
Here are two boys. One of them is a cruel boy. When he comes home from school and his dog runs to meet him, he kicks the dog. Which is the cruel boy?

25. SR - Euro woman - Euro man - sitting
Here are two people. One of them likes to go shopping. When they go shopping they like to buy new dresses. Which person likes to buy new dresses?

26. RA - Euro man - Afro man - walking
Here are two men. One of them is a mean man. He throws rocks at dogs and cats when they come into his yard. Which is the mean man?

27. RA - Afro woman - Euro woman - standing
Here are two women. One of them is a good woman. She does things for her neighbors and her children. Which is the mean man?

28. SR - Afro man - Afro woman - sitting
Here are two people. One of them built a barn for their animals to live in. Which person built the barn?

29. RA - Afro woman - Euro woman - standing
Here are two women. One of them is a helpful woman. Whenever someone is sick she goes to help them. Which is the helpful woman?

30. RA - Euro man - Afro man - sitting
Here are two men. One of them is an unfriendly man. He will not speak to any of the children playing in his neighborhood. Which is the unfriendly man?

31. SR - Euro woman - Euro man - standing
Here are two young people. One of them likes to play football every afternoon after school. Which one likes to play football?

32. RA - Euro teenage boy - Afro teenage boy - walking
Here are two boys. One of them is a smart boy. When the T.V. set breaks, he can fix it all by himself. Which is the smart boy?

33. RA - Afro little girl - Euro little girl - walking
Here are two little girls. One of them is a dirty little girl. People say she does not take a bath very often. Which is the dirty little girl?
34. SR - Afro teenage boy - Afro teenage girl - walking
Here are two young people. One of them likes to wear lipstick. Which one likes to wear lipstick?

35. RA - Euro man - Afro man - walking
Here are two men. One of these men is right. When someone asks him a question, he always knows the right answer. Which man is right?

36. RA - Afro woman - Euro woman - standing
Here are two women. One of them is a sick woman. She has to stay in the house most of the time. Which is the sick woman?
## PRESchool Racial ATTITUDE MEASURE (PRAM II)

**Record and Scoring Sheet**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>SCHOOL</th>
<th>DATE TESTED</th>
<th>RACE <em>(Code)</em>: C or N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BIRTHDATE</th>
<th>EXAMINER</th>
<th>SEX <em>(Code)</em>: M or F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Circle L or R for "left" or "right" figure indicated

### SERIES A

**A. Notes:**

1. R L
   
   *(1)* Responses are recorded from S's point of view, i.e., E circles L or R according to S's choice from S's viewpoint.

2. R L

3. R L
   
   *(2)* The 24 Racial Attitude items are indicated with an asterisk; underlined responses are pro-Caucasian and anti-Negro.

4. R L

5. R L
   
   *(3)* The 12 Sex-Role items are those with no asterisk; underlined responses are sex-appropriate responses.

6. R L

7. R L
   
   **B. Scoring:**

8. R L
   
   *(1)* RA Score =

9. R L
   
   *(Consider as asterisked items, and count number of underlined letters which have been circled.)*

10. R L

11. R L
   
   *(2)* SR Score =
   
   *(Consider non-asterisked items, and count number of underlined letters which have been circled.)*

12. R L

13. R L

14. R L

15. R L

16. R L

17. R L

18. R L

19. R L

20. R L

21. R L

22. R L

23. R L

24. R L

25. R L

26. R L

27. R L

28. R L

29. R L

30. R L

31. R L

32. R L

33. R L

34. R L

35. R L
Sample of the Pictorial Materials

Accompanying the verbal description which the examiner reads is a scoring key for that item. For each of the four possible circles which the child may choose as his or her response, there is a corresponding circle on the examiner's page designating the numerical score for that choice. These scores range from 1, for the least competent choice, to 4 for the most competent choice. Recording these responses and scoring is described in the next section.

Instructions

The child is given a sample item at the beginning of the booklet and instructed as follows:

I have something here that's kind of like a picture game and it's called WHICH BOY (GIRL) IS THE MOST LIKE ME. I'm going to tell you about what each of the boys (girls) in the picture is doing.

Sample: In this one, (E then points to picture on the left) this boy/girl is usually kind of happy, and this boy/girl (E points to the picture on the right) is usually kind of sad. Now, I want you to tell me which of these boys/girls is the most like (Child's Name).
### III. MASTER LIST OF ITEMS
GROUPED ACCORDING TO SUBSCALE FOR EACH FORM
The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPETENCE</th>
<th>PRESCHOOL-KINDERGARTEN (P-K) Item</th>
<th>FIRST-SECOND GRADES (1-2) Common Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. Good at puzzles</td>
<td>a. Good at numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Gets stars on paper</td>
<td>b. Knows a lot in school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Knows names of colors</td>
<td>c. Can read alone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13. Good at counting</td>
<td>d. Can write words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17. Knows alphabet</td>
<td>e. Good at spelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21. Know first letter of name</td>
<td>f. Good at adding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Good at swinging</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Good at climbing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11. Can tie shoes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15. Good at skipping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19. Good at running</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21. Good at hopping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Has lots of friends</td>
<td>a. Has lots of friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Stays overnight at friends' house</td>
<td>b. Others share their toys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. Has friends to play games with</td>
<td>c. Has friends to play games with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14. Has friends on the playground</td>
<td>d. Has friends on the playground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18. Gets asked to play with others</td>
<td>e. Gets asked to play with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22. Eats dinner at friends' house</td>
<td>f. Others sit next to you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Mom smiles</td>
<td>a. Mom lets you eat at friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Mom takes you places you like</td>
<td>b. Mom takes you places you like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12. Mom cooks favorite foods</td>
<td>c. Mom cooks favorite foods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16. Mom reads to you</td>
<td>d. Mom reads to you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20. Mom plays with you</td>
<td>e. Mom lets you stay overnight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24. Mom talks to you</td>
<td>f. Mom talks to you</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

m number refers to position of the item in the order administered to the child.

* Asterisk designates items common to both forms.
The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children*
Individual Recording and Scoring Sheet, Form P-K

Child's Name ________________________________________________ Age __________ Gender M F
Class/Grade ___________________________________ Teacher _______________________ Testing Date ________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Order and Description</th>
<th>Cognitive Competence</th>
<th>Peer Acceptance</th>
<th>Physical Competence</th>
<th>Maternal Acceptance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Good at puzzles</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Has lots of friends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Good at swinging</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Mom smiles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Gets stars on papers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Stays overnight at friends</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Good at climbing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Mom takes you places</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Knows names of colors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Has friends to play with</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Can tie shoes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Mom cooks favorite foods</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Good at counting</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Has friends on playground</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Good at skipping</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>16 Mom reads to you</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>17 Knows alphabet</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>18 Gets asked to play by others</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 Good at running</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>20 Mom plays with you</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 Knows first letter of name</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 Eats dinner at friends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 Good at hugging</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 Mom talks to you</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Column (Subscale) Total

Column (Subscale) Mean
(Total Divided by 6)

Comments:
The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children
Individual Recording and Scoring Sheet, Form 1-2

Child's Name ___________________________ Age ______ Gender: M F
Class Grade ___________________________ Teacher __________________ Testing Date ______

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Order and Description</th>
<th>Cognitive Competence</th>
<th>Peer Acceptance</th>
<th>Physical Competence</th>
<th>Maternal Acceptance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Good at numbers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Friends to play with</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Good at swinging</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Eats at friends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Knows alot in school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Others share</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Good at climbing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Mom takes you places</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Can read alone</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Friends to play games with</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Good at bouncing ball</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Mom cooks favorite foods</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Good at writing words</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Has friends on playground</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Good at skipping</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Mom reads to you</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 Good at spelling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 Gets asked to play by others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 Good at running</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 Stays overnight at friends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 Good at adding</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 Others sit next to you</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 Good at jumping rope</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 Mom talks to you</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Column (Subscale) Total: ____________ ____________ ____________ ____________

Column (Subscale) Mean (Total Divided by 6) ____________ ____________ ____________ ____________

Comments: _______
APPENDIX B:

PERMISSIONS
PARENT CONSENT/PERMISSION FORM

The purpose of this letter is to inform you of a research project to study the "Ethnic Identity and Self-Esteem in Asian children" by Teruyo Mori.

This research project will employ scientific methods to explore the psychological perspectives of Asian children. The aspect of the socialization process that impact the mental health of Asian children will be studied. Children's attitudes toward races and self-concept will be examined. The results of this research will be an invaluable source of appreciation of Asian in the United States.

Your child is free to withdraw from the project at any point. Your child can refuse to answer any question if he/she wishes. Any materials collected from your family can be withdrawn from the project, if you or your child decided to do so.

The information gathered will be kept strictly confidential. No names will be placed on the interview materials, only identification numbers. Only I, Teruyo Mori, will have a complete list of names and ID numbers. The list will be destroyed at the completion of my thesis.

I, ____________________________, agree that
(Parent's name)

my child, ____________________________,
(Child's name)
participate in this project. Date: ____________.

I, ____________________________, have explained
(Interviewer's name)

__________________________ the nature and
(Child's name)
procedures of this project and have witnessed the parent sign the consent form.

Date: ____________________________.
CHILD PERMISSION FORM

(To be read to child by Interviewer:)

I, Teruyo Mori, am doing a study of Asian children. I want to find out what you think about being Asian in America. I will talk to you, show you pictures, and play games with you.

If you do not want to answer a question, you don't have to. If your family does not want to be in the study, you can drop out.

I will not let anyone know what you said. I will not even put your name on the papers. I will send you a short report of our study when it is over.

You will have fun playing my games. I want you to be in my study. Please put your name on the paper here if you would like to do this.

__________________________  ______________________
(Child's name, signed by self)    (Date)

__________________________  ______________________
(Parent's name, as witness)    (Date)

Interviewer: ________________________________
APPENDIX C:
HUMAN SUBJECTS APPROVAL
December 9, 1992

Teruyo Mori, B.S.
Department of Counseling & Guidance
Education Building, #218
Main Campus

RE: RACIAL BIAS AND SELF-ESTEEM OF ASIAN AND ASIAN-AMERICAN CHILDREN

Dear Ms. Mori:

We received documents concerning your above cited project. Regulations published by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services [45 CFR Part 46.101(b)(2)] exempt this type of research from review by our Committee.

Thank you for informing us of your work. If you have any questions concerning the above, please contact this office.

Sincerely yours,

William F. Benny, M.D.
Chairman,
Human Subjects Committee

WFD: sj

cc: Departmental/College Review Committee
REFERENCES


