



115  
891  
THS

A COMPARISON OF AMERICAN AND FILIPINO  
CHILDREN BY MEANS OF THE  
DRAW-A-PERSON TEST

Thesis for the Degree of M. A.  
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

Josefina Averilla Limuaco

1959

7111-111



A COMPARISON OF AMERICAN AND FILIPINO CHILDREN  
BY MEANS OF THE DRAW-A-PERSON TEST

By  
Josefina Averilla Limuaco

A THESIS

Submitted to the College of Science and Arts  
Michigan State University of Agriculture and  
Applied Science in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Psychology

1959

Dedication

To My Family

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author wishes to express her utmost and sincere gratitude to Dr. Albert I. Rabin, who in his capacity as chairman of this thesis committee, has been very patient and helpful in guiding the author in this undertaking.

Further gratitude is also expressed to Dr. Mary Haworth for her helpful suggestions and to Dr. Terrence Allen for his guidance on the statistical analysis.

Also a note of thanks to Mrs. Concepcion Mangona, Mrs. Isabel Fajardo, Mrs. Crisanta Limuaco Fabella and to the principals of the Michigan Avenue School and the Kellogg Elementary School who assisted in the collection of data.

A COMPARISON OF AMERICAN AND FILIPINO CHILDREN  
BY MEANS OF THE DRAW-A-PERSON TEST

By

Josefina Averilla Limuaco

AN ABSTRACT

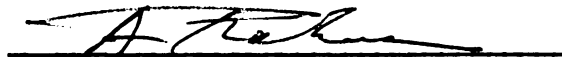
Submitted to the College of Science and Arts  
Michigan State University of Agriculture and  
Applied Science in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Psychology

1959

Approved



## ABSTRACT

The Draw-A-Person test was administered to 129 American children and 159 Filipino children to compare them in their degree of sexual differentiation. Of the American subjects, 69 were boys and 60 were girls. Of the Filipino subjects, there were 76 boys and 83 girls. The ages of the subjects ranged from nine years to twelve years. Three predictions were formulated on the basis of the different family structures in the two cultures.

1. The American children will show a lesser degree of sexual differentiation than the Filipino children.
2. The Filipino boys will tend to identify more with the male figure than the American boys.
3. The American and Filipino girls will show no differences in their identification model.

A revision of Swensen's 9-point Rating Scale for Sexual Differentiation was used as an index for sexual differentiation. The revised scale contains 5 points i.e. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, which correspond to the odd numbers 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, of Swensen's scale. The data were analyzed by means of the chi-square to determine the significance of the differences between the two groups on sexual differentiation. For the self-sex identification the Goodenough Scale was utilized as the measure. A t-test was employed on the scores obtained from the Goodenough scale (male and female figure drawings) to find out the difference between the two groups on their self-sex identification. Since there was doubt as to whether the drawing ability of the children was responsible for

the difference between the two groups, the analysis of covariance was used to show the relationship between the degree of sexual differentiation and the scores obtained from the Goodenough Scale.

The results supported the above predictions. The relationships between the results of the study and the parental roles in the two cultures were also discussed. It was concluded that the Filipino children show a higher degree of sexual differentiation as compared to the American children and the Draw-A-Person test is an adequate and useful instrument in a cross-cultural study.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

|                                                                                                       | PAGE |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|
| I. Introduction . . . . .                                                                             | 1    |
| A. Importance of child-rearing practices for person-<br>ality development . . . . .                   | 1    |
| B. Child-rearing practices in the American culture . . .                                              | 1    |
| C. Child-rearing practices in the Philippine culture . .                                              | 3    |
| D. Feeding and toilet training . . . . .                                                              | 4    |
| E. Socialization process . . . . .                                                                    | 5    |
| F. Identification . . . . .                                                                           | 5    |
| G. Sex typing . . . . .                                                                               | 6    |
| H. Differences between the American and Filipino<br>children in their sexual identification . . . . . | 7    |
| I. Measure used in the study of the degree of the<br>children's sexual identification . . . . .       | 8    |
| II. Statement of hypotheses . . . . .                                                                 | 9    |
| III. Application of drawings in the assessment of sexual ident-<br>ification . . . . .                | 11   |
| A. Historical background in the use of drawings<br>with children . . . . .                            | 11   |
| B. The Goodenough Scale . . . . .                                                                     | 12   |
| C. Drawings used as projective techniques . . . . .                                                   | 12   |
| D. The Draw-A-Person test . . . . .                                                                   | 14   |
| E. The Scale of Sexual Differentiation . . . . .                                                      | 16   |
| F. Adaptation of Swensen's Scale to children's<br>drawings . . . . .                                  | 16   |
| IV. Subjects and Procedure . . . . .                                                                  | 18   |
| V. Results . . . . .                                                                                  | 22   |

|                                       | PAGE |
|---------------------------------------|------|
| VI. Discussion . . . . .              | 27   |
| VII. Summary and Conclusion . . . . . | 30   |
| VIII. Bibliography . . . . .          | 32   |

.....

.....

.....

# LIST OF TABLES

| TABLE |                                                                                                                                             | PAGE |
|-------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|
| I     | Some Characteristics of the American and Filipino Samples                                                                                   | 19   |
| II    | Correlation between judges scores on Goodenough Scale. . . .                                                                                | 20   |
| III   | Correlation between judges rating on sexual differentiation . . . . .                                                                       | 21   |
| IV    | A comparison between groups on sexual differentiation scores . . . . .                                                                      | 22   |
| V     | A comparison between groups on the total scores obtained from the Goodenough Scale (male figure drawing) . . . . .                          | 24   |
| VI    | A comparison between groups on the total scores obtained from the Goodenough Scale (female figure drawing) . . . . .                        | 25   |
| VII   | A comparison within the culture groups on the male and female figure drawings . . . . .                                                     | 25   |
| VIII  | A comparison between groups on their degree of sexual differentiation and scores obtained from the Goodenough Scale (male figure) . . . . . | 26   |

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

## I INTRODUCTION

### A. Importance of Child-Rearing Practices for Personality Development

Child-rearing practices within various cultures play an important role in the development of the child's personality and in the parent-child relationship. It is in the family, Seward (36) points out, that the child first learns to love and to be loved. The success of his early relationships with both his parents determines to a large extent his later relationships. The mother is practically all the child knows of society in his early infancy. The amount of time spent by the mother with the child gives her more opportunities to influence the child's behavior and social growth. Symonds (41) is of the opinion that the mother's behavior and attitudes are more important in the development of the child's personality than the father's attitudes and behavior. Yet the father, although he may spend less time with the child, influences the child's behavior indirectly. He influences the mother's attitudes toward the home and the care of the child. He may have the responsibility of maintaining discipline in the home.

### B. Child-Rearing Practices in the American Culture

In American society child-rearing practices, Masters (28) states, "have the essential characteristics of a fad: they reverse themselves every few years, destroying any real continuity from one generation of parents to the next. (p. 531)." Gorer (21) maintains that "the idiosyncratic feature of the American conscience is that it is predominantly feminine owing to the major role played by the mother (p. 56)." Child-rearing is the mother's responsibility and privilege. Her influence on

the child, Gorer further states, is reinforced from the age of six in the schools by the fact that most of the teachers are women. The role of the father in matters of discipline has been so diminished that these functions have been delegated to the mother. The father, Masters (28) claims, spends so much time earning a living that he has very little time to spend with the children. Thompson (42) points out that the father sees his children only occasionally "before bedtime, on Sundays, and during an annual vacation (p. 514)."

Davis and Havighurst (9) and Ericson (12) found significant differences in child-rearing practices of the middle and lower-class parents. The middle-class parents were considerably more rigorous than the lower-class parents in training their children for feeding and cleanliness habits. They expected their children to take responsibilities for themselves at an earlier age than the lower-class parents. Permissive feeding and weaning treatment was more characteristic of the lower-class than of the middle-class mother. A staff of investigators at the Laboratory of Human Development at Harvard University (25) found few differences between the social classes in infant feeding practices. The major differences of these studies, according to Mussen and Conger (31) are that, at present, middle-class American mothers have adopted more permissive feeding practices through education.

### C. Child-Rearing Practices in the Philippine Culture

Studies regarding child-rearing practices in the Philippines are not available at present. The following discussion is based on the writer's personal experience.



The Filipino mother has the sole responsibility of taking care of the children. The fathers are in most cases responsible for the discipline of the children over the age of six. In the middle and upper-class families the maids and "chinese amahs" take care of the children and spend more time with them than do either the mother or the father.

The middle-class Filipino mothers are quite rigid in training their children in feeding and cleanliness habits. The children are fed on schedule and are weaned at the age of one. They are toilet-trained before they reach the age of one; sometimes coercive methods are used to achieve this. A child may be punished or scolded for bedwetting. The middle-class parents are overprotective and seem to train their children to be dependent on them.

The lower-class Filipino mothers, on the other hand, are less concerned about the feeding habits and toilet training of their children. The children are fed on demand and are nursed for a long time. Sometimes the children are not weaned until they are at least two years old. Toilet training of the children is neglected and the children are neither punished or scolded for bedwetting and defecating anywhere. They may learn cleanliness habits when they reach the age of six or seven, either through imitation from the elder members of the family, or at school. These parents also give more work responsibility to their children at an earlier age.

Filipino parents, in general, are strict and authoritarian in dealing with their children. The responsibility of discipline belongs not only to the father, but also to the older brothers and sisters. The grandparents, aunts and uncles who stay in the home also take part in the rearing of the children. The only people the American child has

contact with ordinarily at home and possibly identifies himself with are usually his parents, brothers and sisters. The Filipino child may therefore identify himself with more people with whom he comes in contact at home than the American child.

#### D. Feeding and Toilet Training

Feeding constitutes the child's earliest experience in social participation. In accordance with the theory of Dollard and Miller (10), the kind and degree of satisfaction the child gets from the feeding situation may determine his future reactions to people. If the child is fed in a relaxing and comfortable way and if he is cuddled and properly held, the feeding situation becomes more pleasant and rewarding to the child. The relaxing quality of this experience will be attached to the mother who cares for the child. Thus the child develops a positive attitude toward the mother. But if the feeding situation is unsatisfactory - that is, the child is given food when not hungry or scolded while crying when hungry - "a hungry-anxiety conflict" results and a negative attitude toward the mother may develop.

Toilet training or cleanliness is another aspect of the child's experience which may have an important bearing on his subsequent interpersonal relationships. Wolfenstein(43) points out that this is one phase of the mother-child relationship that is most laden with emotional risks. Severe punishment or coercive methods used may lead to undesirable consequences for the child's future development. According to Dollard and Miller (10), infliction of punishment may arouse the child's anger toward the parent administering it. Furthermore, the anxiety and hostility produced by the harsh training may become

attached to the parent who enforces it. Consequently, the parent's presence may become capable of evoking anxiety, and the child in order to escape the anxiety may avoid interaction with the parent. The child's reactions to his parents developed during the toilet training may then generalize and affect the child's future social relationships.

#### E. Socialization Process

Aside from the feeding situation and toilet training the child experiences, his social growth may also be affected by the attitudes of his parents who may be rejecting, overprotective, or democratic. Thompson (42) states that parents are changeable and often unpredictable. Their interactions with the children are often colored with "traditions, personal prejudices, emotional tone and rule-of-thumb procedures (p. 504)."

According to Shoben (37) the parents have the duty of teaching the child certain social norms and good conduct. They often resort to punishment when these rules are violated. "Since they are associated with both the experience of drive arousal and the experience of drive reduction, they have become the objects of love and hatred (p. 51)." The parents tend to be loved by the child to the extent that they are associated with feeding, love, warmth and protection. They tend to be feared to the extent that they are associated with pain and anxiety. It is this situation that gives rise to the ambivalent attitude which the child develops for his father and mother.

#### F. Identification

Further complication in the parent-child relationship is found in the development of the Oedipus Complex. Freud (17) describes the

Oedipus Complex as follows: The child's first object is the mother whom he has associated with his sucking activity, comprising both the function of obtaining nourishment and that of giving pleasure. The idea of mother is not present at the beginning, and the impression he has is that the source of pleasure and satisfaction are his mother's breast and love. This impression is later differentiated into the person of the mother who in the course of feeding and care of the child arouses in the child pleasurable and unpleasurable sensations. At about the age of 2 or 3 the child develops an interest in his genitals. At this stage the boy desires his mother and wants to get rid of his father who is his rival for the mother's love. He becomes "his mother's lover." The girl, on the other hand, takes her father as her love object because of her wish for the penis which has been denied to her by her mother and which she now expects from her father. With the increase in the family the Oedipus Complex expands into what Mullahy (30) calls the "Family Complex." The older brothers and sisters may serve as father and mother substitutes.

In view of the danger of castration the boy represses his desire for his mother and identifies with his father. The girl, because of the fear of losing her mother's love, turns to her mother and identifies with her mother. With the resolution of the Oedipus Complex the child's primary identifications with his parents are greatly intensified. Besides the parents, the child's siblings and parent surrogates may also influence the development of the child's super-ego and become the child's ideal models.

#### G. Sex-Typing

Sex-typing begins at home with the male and female names, clothes,

play patterns and toys. Seward (35) points out that the growing child adopts his sex role as early as he accepts the facts of genital sex differences. His acceptance of his social sex role is facilitated by his identification with the same-sex parent. Davis (8) claims that the emotional interaction between the child and his parents contributes to the child's learning of his appropriate sex role. As the child grows older the school plays an important role. His peers help further the achievement of his proper sex identification. Mowrer (29) is of the opinion that sex-typing is established by the parent's use of reward and punishment for appropriate and inappropriate sex responses.

#### H. Differences Between American and Filipino Children in their Sexual Identification

It would not be surprising to find a difference in the kind of sexual identification between the American and Filipino children due to the differences in the child-rearing practices in the two cultures. This is especially true of the roles of the parents. In the Filipino family both parents have somewhat specific roles. The mother is responsible for the caring of the children and the father is in charge of the discipline. The father also assumes the major role in the family and is often the source of frustration for the children. On the other hand, we find a diminishing role of the father in matter of discipline in the American family. This function is taken over by the mother who is also responsible for the care of the children. Thus the mother assumes the major role in the family. As for the training habits, there seems to be more permissiveness among the American parents as compared to the Filipino parents. The Filipino parents are more rigid. These

differences in parental roles in both cultures may therefore influence the development of the children's sexual identification.

#### I. Measures used in the Study of the Degree of Children's Sexual Identification

Various methods were used to find out the extent of the children's awareness of sex differences. Smith (39) used a list of desirable and undesirable traits to which the boys and girls gave their opinions concerning themselves. By using the Terman and Miles "Attitude-Interest (M-F) Test", Ferguson (13) sought to determine some of the cultural origins of masculinity and femininity. The use of toys to determine the child's identification with his sex-role was found to be a feasible medium of investigation by Benjamin (2) and Rabban (33). One satisfactory approach that may be used in this connection is that of children's drawings. The present study will attempt to show how the "Draw-A-Person" test can be used as a valid measure in comparing American and Filipino children in their degree of sexual identification.

## II STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESES

In the process of identification the child tends to identify with the person who is the source of frustration. This has been hypothesized by Anna Freud (16) who says:

In the identification with the aggressor the children who identified themselves with the elder's threat of punishment were internalizing other people's criticism of their behavior. When the child constantly repeats this process of internalization and introjects the qualities of those responsible for his upbringing, making their characteristics and opinions his own, he is all the time providing material from which the super-ego may take shape (p. 125).

Thus the child's perception of his sex role may be influenced by his identification with the same-sex parent.

Hypothesis I: Fewer American children, as compared to the Filipino children, show a high degree of sexual differentiation.

As has been stated earlier, the mother in the American family assumes a dominant role while the father, whom we might expect to assume this role, maintains a diminished role especially in matter of discipline. These parental roles may be perceived by the child as confusing thus accounting for the above hypothesis.

Hypothesis II: More Filipino boys, as compared to the American boys, tend to identify with the male figure.

With the resolution of the Oedipus Complex, the boy identifies with the father. This is further reinforced if the father is seen as a threat to the child. If the father is the source of frustration for the Filipino boy, the father will be serving as an appropriate model for the boy's sex role.

Hypothesis III: The American and the Filipino girls will show no difference with respect to identification with the female figure.

Because of the fear of losing the mothers' love, the girls in both cultures tend to identify with their mothers. This identification with the mother is further strengthened if the mother is the child's constant companion at home and serves as the feminine model for the girl.

### III. THE APPLICATION OF DRAWINGS IN THE ASSESSMENT OF SEXUAL DIFFERENTIATION

#### A. Historical Background in the use of Drawings with Children

Early interest in children's drawings was directed mainly at the study of the mental development of the child. This interest, Goodenough (18) points out, dates back to Cooke in 1885 and that of Ricci in 1887. Goodenough developed a scale for the measurement of children's intelligence. The drawings were later utilized as indices of children's interests and also in a number of genetic studies in the field of perception. Lamprecht, Rouma, and other investigators, as cited by Goodenough (18), conducted a series of studies to show the relationships between the drawings of modern children and those of the primitive races. Comparative studies of national and racial groups were undertaken with the use of drawings. Manuel and Hughes (27) gave the Draw-A-Man test to compare the Mexicans and non-Mexicans in Texas in their ability to draw. Papavassilion (32) used this test to evaluate its suitability for Greek children. Aside from these two investigators, several other researchers used the drawings in their studies in different cultures.

Recent interest in drawings has shifted to their use as projective devices. According to Goodenough and Harris (19) earlier studies concerning children's drawings were based on the belief that "a child draws what he knows, rather than what he sees." At present the studies are conducted on the hypothesis that "a child draws what he feels, rather than what he sees." Present day psychologists feel that drawings and other overt behavior of children reveal the children's feelings and desires. The psychologists further claim that the drawings express the children's personality.

## B. The Goodenough Scale

As has been mentioned earlier, Goodenough devised a scale to measure the intellectual factors involved in the drawings of children. This scale is based on the drawing of the human figure. It consists of fifty-one points. These points were obtained by means of "(a) the observation of differences which appeared to be characteristic of the performances of children at successive ages or school grades; (b) the formulation of objective definitions or descriptions of these differences; and (c) their statistical validation based on a comparison between the performances of children of different ages, and also between the performances of children who were accelerated in school and those who were retarded (18, p. 81)." Goodenough claims that this scale is useful for making comparisons between groups and is applicable for investigating the mentality of children from other cultures.

## C. Drawings used as Projective Techniques

The present trend in the use of drawings is their utilization as projective devices. A number of studies have been undertaken using drawings for this purpose. Appel (1) used a child's drawing of his home and family in the course of psychiatric interview with the child. He claimed that drawings can be used as aids in the free verbal expression of the child. To distinguish between the socially adjusted and the socially maladjusted mentally deficient subjects, Brill (3) utilized the Draw-A-Man test. He concluded that there was a strong probability that the adjusted group would score higher than the maladjusted group, but the differences was not satisfactory enough to be of diagnostic value in individual cases.

Fingert et. al. (14) gave the Draw-A-Man test to schizophrenics to measure their improvement following insulin and metrazol therapy. They felt that by this method they could get a deeper insight of the mental states of the patients. They found a steady increase in score during the period of recovery from the treatment.

England (11) investigated the manifest expression of parent selection and identification by the use of sexless stick figures. A total of 134 children (84 boys and 50 girls) were subjected to the experiment. The experiment consisted of three exercises. In the first exercise, a drawing of a woman and a man both seated on a bench with a tree between them was presented to the subject. A sexless figure was seated beside the woman labeled "mother" and the man labeled "father." The subject was asked whether the stick figure was a boy or a girl. In the second exercise, a drawing of a man and a woman walking down the street with joined hands was shown to the subject. In this drawing the stick figure held hands of each parent. The subject was again asked whether the figure was a boy or a girl. The third exercise was a drawing of a woman seated on a bench. Immediately at her left was a tree. The subject was told to draw a boy and a girl near the woman. Since there was no space left for him to draw at the woman's left, he was forced to draw the boy and the girl at the mother's right. In this experiment England found that the boys and girls identified the girls with the mother and the boys with the father. The boys, however, were more confused in their feelings in identifying the sex of the stick figure with either the father or the mother. He felt that the exercises were well framed to obtain the true projective feelings.

The above experiments are just a few of the studies which have tried to use children's drawings as projective devices. Since these drawings uncover the deep-seated feelings and unconscious motives of the person who draws them, their use as indices of identification seem very feasible. This has been demonstrated by England. But the "Draw-A-Person" test is more suited for this purpose. Since the drawing of each sex will enable the examiner to get an insight into the subject's conception of sexual roles and attitudes toward parental roles.

#### D. The Draw-A-Person Test

After the publication of Goodenough's scale in 1926, Machover (26) in the course of her work with psychiatric patients found that although the intellectual development of any two children was the same, their drawings of the man were not identical. The drawings produced valuable materials which she believed could be used in the study of the adult's personality. These findings prompted her to devise the Draw-A-Person test. Instead of utilizing just the male figure as used by Goodenough in her scale, she used both the male and female figures in her test. She also formulated some assumptions for the analysis and interpretation of the figure drawings. Her basic assumption is that "the human figure drawn by an individual who is directed to draw a person relates intimately to the impulses, conflicts, and compensations characteristic of that individual (p. 35)."

In recent years increasing interest has been shown in the use of this test as a projective technique. It has become an instrument used routinely by many clinical psychologists. King (24) showed by means of a single case the usefulness of the test as an adjunct to therapy.

She found an interesting feature of the test was the subject's remark that the drawings seemed sexless. This brought into focus of therapy the subject's confusion of sex identity.

Fisher and Fisher (15) in their study concluded that the general sex role structure which the subject projects in the figure drawings have important meaning in relation to the subject's past sexual conduct. The relationship between the sexual adjustment and the nature of the human figure drawings of psychotherapy patients was explored by Siprelle and Swensen (38). The drawings were rated on sexual differentiation using Swensen's (9-point scale (40)). The patients were also rated on a sexual adjustment rating scale. The patients were compared on the basis of these two scales. The investigators found that women who drew the female figure first tend to be dissatisfied with their sexual partners, and women who drew more feminine figures tend to be better adjusted sexually.

Cutter (7) used the DAP to verify the hypothesis that poor sexual differentiation in the figure drawing may reflect general deficit or specific sexual disturbances. He used as subjects sexual psychopaths. He found that the sexual offenders did not differentiate between the sexes on the DAP any worse than the normals.

The DAP and the M-F scale of the MMPI were administered by Granick and Smith (20) to 185 male and female students for the purpose of determining the relationship between the self-sex drawing as the first response to the DAP and the results obtained from the M-F scale of the MMPI. They found that the tendency to draw the self-sex first was stronger in men than in women. No relationship was found between the order of the human figures and the scores of the M-F scale of the

MMPI. According to them, cultural factors might be the cause for the tendency of most of the subjects to draw their own sex.

#### E. The Scale of Sexual Differentiation

Using the Draw-A-Person test Swensen (40) devised a scale for rating sexual differentiation. The object of his experiment was to investigate the relationship between sexual differentiation on the DAP and various behavioral characteristics. In developing this scale he used the drawings of the patients of the Veterans Administration Mental Hygiene Clinic at Knoxville, Tennessee. The scale contains nine points, ranging from little or no sexual differentiation (point 1) to excellent sexual differentiation (point 9). It is arranged in ascending numerical order with the poorest sexual differentiation coming first and the best sexual differentiation coming last. The five odd numbers i.e. 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, contain descriptions and three examples of drawings and the four even numbers i.e. 2, 4, 6, 8, are used for rating drawings that may be considered to fall between the defined points on the scale.

#### F. Adaptation of Swensen's Scale to Children's Drawings

Swensen's scale was developed on the basis of the drawings of adult subjects. Using the scale for children's drawings which are more simple and less complicated than the adult drawings, might present some difficulties. To overcome these difficulties the scale was reduced to a 5-point scale containing numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 corresponding to the odd numbers i.e. 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, of Swensen's Scale. The scale is as follows:

1. Little or no sexual differentiation  
There is little or no difference between the two figures, and what difference exists between them does not particularly suggest sexual differentiation.
2. Poor sexual differentiation  
Longer hair on the female than on the male. There may be a slight suggestion of difference in body contour and/or clothing.
3. Fair sexual differentiation  
The female definitely has longer hair than the male. The female clearly has different body contour, with either rounded hips or breasts, or both present. There may be a suggestion of difference in the clothing of the pair.
4. Good sexual differentiation  
The female has longer hair than the male. The female has rounded body contour, the male has angular contour. Breasts and/or rounded hips present, with both usually present. There is a clear difference in clothing, with the female wearing feminine apparel, although the apparel may be copied after that of the male, e.g. slacks. There may be the suggestion of differentiation in minor details, such as eyelashes or fuller lips on the female.
5. Excellent sexual differentiation  
Female hair is longer than male hair, with definite feminine hair styling in the female. The male body has angular contour, the female body has rounded contour with both breasts and rounded hips present. The male wearing clothing that is definitely masculine, the female wearing clothing that is clearly feminine. Minor details, such as eyes, mouth, earrings, bracelets, etc., clearly appropriate for the sex of the figure on which they are drawn, (40, p. 38).

#### IV SUBJECTS AND PROCEDURE

##### A. Subjects

The subjects used in the present study were 129 American children and 159 Filipino children. The American subjects are currently enrolled in the Michigan Avenue School in Lansing and in the Kellogg Elementary School at Hickory Corners, Michigan. The Filipino subjects are in the Francisco Benitez Memorial School in Pagsanjan, Laguna and in the Juan Luna Elementary School and in the J. Zamora Elementary School in Manila. These subjects were made up of two groups - one comprising the ten-year olds and the other, the eleven-year olds.

The school children in the Philippines are classified according to their scholastic achievement. There are seven sections in the fourth and fifth grades. The upper sections represent the bright students and the lower sections the slow students. The subjects for this study were selected at random from all these sections. The American subjects were chosen from the fifth and sixth grades. The drawings of some of the fourth grade subjects from the Perrin-Palmer School were obtained from the files of the Psychological Clinic, Michigan State University.

The subjects were equated both for age and social status. They were classified into the middle-class and the lower-class groups, according to their parents' occupations. The middle-class group comprise subjects whose parents are doctors, engineers, lawyers and those engaged in other professions. The lower-class group is made up of subjects whose parents are laborers, factory workers and those engaged in

the unskilled work. Of the American subjects, 21 per cent and 79 per cent were classified into the middle-class and lower-class groups respectively. Of the Filipino subjects, 22 per cent were in the middle-class group and 78 per cent in the lower-class group. Table I shows the classification and ages of the subjects.

TABLE I  
Some Characteristics of the American and Filipino Samples

|                  | Boys |       | Girls |       | Age   | Total |
|------------------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
|                  | N    | M Age | N     | M Age | Range |       |
| Ten-year olds    |      |       |       |       |       |       |
| Americans        | 41   | 10.3  | 37    | 10.1  | 10-11 | 78    |
| Filipinos        | 44   | 10.2  | 46    | 10.0  | 9-11  | 90    |
| Eleven-year olds |      |       |       |       |       |       |
| Americans        | 28   | 11.1  | 23    | 11.1  | 11-12 | 51    |
| Filipinos        | 32   | 11.1  | 37    | 11.0  | 10-12 | 69    |
| Total N          | 145  |       | 143   |       |       | 288   |

#### B. Instructions

The subjects were given plain white paper (8 1/2" x 11") and pencils and were told to "Draw-a person." After they had completed their drawings they were given the following directions: "On the back of your paper draw the opposite sex of the first figure you drew. If you drew a man, draw a woman; and if you drew a woman, draw a man."

### C. Scoring

In scoring the drawings Swensen's Rating Scale for Sexual Differentiation was used as an index for sexual differentiation and the Goodenough Scale as a measure of the self-sex identification. All the drawings were first scored using Goodenough's scale. Based on this scale a drawing could receive a maximum score of 51 points. To establish the scorer reliability two independent judges<sup>1</sup> scored every fourth drawing. The pearson product-moment correlation between the two sets of scores is presented in Table II.

TABLE II  
Correlation Between Judges Scores on Goodenough Scale

|                  | Male Figure | Female Figure |
|------------------|-------------|---------------|
| Ten-year olds    |             |               |
| Americans        | .79         | .86           |
| Filipinos        | .94         | .93           |
| Eleven-year olds |             |               |
| Americans        | .94         | .92           |
| Filipinos        | .91         | .96           |

The drawings were further rated for sexual differentiation. The 5-point rating scale for sexual differentiation described above was used. Two independent judges<sup>2</sup> rated the drawings. Complete agreement was reached between the two judges after a discussion of the major differences in the rating of the drawings. The Rulon formula (22, p.497)

<sup>1</sup>Mrs. Mary M. Boroughs in addition to author.

<sup>2</sup>Mr. Gilbreth DeRath in addition to author.

was used to find the reliability of judgments. Agreement between the two judges is shown in Table III.

TABLE III

Correlation Between Judges Rating on Sexual Differentiation

|                  | Boys | Girls |
|------------------|------|-------|
| Ten-year olds    |      |       |
| Americans        | .90  | .96   |
| Filipinos        | .87  | .84   |
| Eleven-year olds |      |       |
| Americans        | .92  | .88   |
| Filipinos        | .96  | .87   |

## V RESULTS

An analysis of the data by means of the chi-square (see table IV) shows the results of the test to be significant in relation to hypothesis I. According to the hypothesis, the American children will show a lesser degree of sexual differentiation as compared to the Filipino children. The data were based on the 5-point Rating Scale for Sexual Differentiation. In computing for the chi-square the data were dichotomized because of the small frequencies in the 5 cells. Points 1 and 2 of the scale were combined into one category and points 3 to 5 in another category. The analysis indicates a significant difference at the 0.01 level.

TABLE IV

A Comparison Between Groups on Sexual Differentiation Scores

|                  | Ten-Year Olds |           |                  |      |
|------------------|---------------|-----------|------------------|------|
|                  | Americans     | Filipinos | Chi <sup>2</sup> | p.*  |
| <hr/>            |               |           |                  |      |
| A. Boys          |               |           |                  |      |
| Categories 1 - 2 | 31            | 18        | 10.58            | 0.01 |
| Categories 3 - 5 | 10            | 26        |                  |      |
| B. Girls         |               |           |                  |      |
| Categories 1 - 2 | 24            | 17        | 6.93             | 0.01 |
| Categories 3 - 5 | 13            | 29        |                  |      |
| C. All Children  |               |           |                  |      |
| Categories 1 - 2 | 55            | 35        | 16.84            | 0.01 |
| Categories 3 - 5 | 23            | 55        |                  |      |

\*Two-sided test

TABLE IV (Cont.)

| Eleven-Year Olds                  |           |           |                  |        |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|-----------|------------------|--------|
|                                   | Americans | Filipinos | Chi <sup>2</sup> | p.*    |
| A. Boys                           |           |           |                  |        |
| Categories 1 - 2                  | 19        | 5         | 17.88            | 0.01   |
| Categories 3 - 5                  | 9         | 27        |                  |        |
| B. Girls                          |           |           |                  |        |
| Categories 1 - 2                  | 11        | 8         | 4.46             | 0.05** |
| Categories 3 - 5                  | 12        | 29        |                  |        |
| C. All Children                   |           |           |                  |        |
| Categories 1 - 2                  | 30        | 13        | 20.04            | 0.01   |
| Categories 3 - 5                  | 21        | 56        |                  |        |
| Ten-and Eleven-Year Olds Combined |           |           |                  |        |
|                                   | Americans | Filipinos | Chi <sup>2</sup> | p.     |
| Categories 1 - 2                  | 85        | 48        | 33.47            | 0.01   |
| Categories 3 - 5                  | 44        | 111       |                  |        |

\*Two-sided test.

\*\*Yates correction applied.

For hypotheses II and III the t-test was used to find out the mean difference between the two groups on the total scores obtained from the Goodenough Scale. Hypothesis II states that the Filipino boys will tend to identify more with the male figure than will the American boys. The results show that the Filipino boys drew more details in their drawings indicating identification with the self-sex figure. There is a significant difference at the 0.01 level among the boys on the scores obtained from the male figure drawing as shown in Table V.

TABLE V

A comparison Between Groups on the Total Scores Obtained from the Goodenough Scale (Male Figure Drawing)

| Boys             |           | N  | M    | SD  | t    | p    |
|------------------|-----------|----|------|-----|------|------|
| Ten-year olds    | Americans | 41 | 24.4 | 6.1 | 3.33 | 0.01 |
|                  | Filipinos | 44 | 29.5 | 7.6 |      |      |
| Eleven-year olds | Americans | 28 | 27.2 | 6.3 | 3.57 | 0.01 |
|                  | Filipinos | 32 | 33.5 | 7.4 |      |      |
| Girls            |           |    |      |     |      |      |
| Ten-year olds    | Americans | 37 | 24.3 | 6.9 | 0.27 | N.S. |
|                  | Filipinos | 46 | 24.6 | 6.5 |      |      |
| Eleven-year olds | Americans | 23 | 27.9 | 5.7 | 2.11 | 0.05 |
|                  | Filipinos | 37 | 23.9 | 6.3 |      |      |

The results of the test of significance of hypothesis III are presented in Table VI. Based on this hypothesis we will expect to find no difference between the American and Filipino girls in their degree of identification with the female figure. The t-tests of 1.67 and 0.25 are are not significant.

In the comparison within cultures, which is shown in Table VII, we find a significant difference at the 0.01 level among the American children based on their scores obtained from the female figure drawing. The girls drew more details than did the boys. On the other hand, a significant difference at the 0.01 level was found among the Filipino children on the basis of their scores obtained from the male figure drawing. Here we find the boys drew more details than did the girls.

TABLE VI

A Comparison Between Groups on the Total Scores Obtained from the Goodenough Scale (Female Figure Drawing)

| Boys             |           | N  | M    | SD  | t    | p    |
|------------------|-----------|----|------|-----|------|------|
| Ten-year olds    | Americans | 41 | 20.8 | 6.4 | 3.49 | 0.01 |
|                  | Filipinos | 44 | 25.9 | 6.9 |      |      |
| Eleven-year olds | Americans | 28 | 24.1 | 5.8 | 2.61 | 0.05 |
|                  | Filipinos | 32 | 29.4 | 9.6 |      |      |
| Girls            |           |    |      |     |      |      |
| Ten-year olds    | Americans | 37 | 23.9 | 6.7 | 1.67 | N.S. |
|                  | Filipinos | 46 | 26.4 | 6.7 |      |      |
| Eleven-year olds | Americans | 23 | 27.4 | 5.9 | 0.25 | N.S. |
|                  | Filipinos | 37 | 27.8 | 6.1 |      |      |

TABLE VII

A Comparison Within the Culture Groups on the Male and Female Figure Drawings (Goodenough Scale)

|           | Male Figure |      |     |      |      | Female Figure |     |      |      |
|-----------|-------------|------|-----|------|------|---------------|-----|------|------|
|           | N           | M    | SD  | t    | p    | M             | SD  | t    | p    |
| Americans |             |      |     |      |      |               |     |      |      |
| Boys      | 60          | 25.5 | 6.3 |      | N.S. | 22.0          | 6.4 | 2.67 | 0.01 |
| Girls     | 69          | 25.7 | 6.7 |      |      | 25.0          | 6.6 |      |      |
| Filipinos |             |      |     |      |      |               |     |      |      |
| Boys      | 76          | 31.2 | 7.8 | 5.71 | 0.01 | 27.4          | 8.4 |      | N.S. |
| Girls     | 83          | 24.4 | 6.4 |      |      | 27.0          | 6.4 |      |      |

Since the results so far have shown a significant difference between the two groups, we might ask whether this difference is due to the drawing ability or intelligence of the children. An analysis of covariance was employed to show the relationship between the degree of sexual differentiation and the scores obtained from the Goodenough Scale (male figure drawing). Scores obtained from the female figure drawing were not utilized because there was no significant difference between the two groups based on these scores. By eliminating drawing ability as a factor, a difference between the two groups was still found. The F-ratio of 14.20 which is significant at the 0.01 level is shown in Table VIII. The results indicate that the difference between the two groups on their degree of sexual differentiation can not be accounted for by the mean difference in their scores obtained from the Goodenough Scale.

TABLE VIII

A Comparison Between Groups on their Degree of **Sexual** Differentiation and Scores Obtained from the Goodenough Scale (male figure)

|                         | Total   | Within  | Between |
|-------------------------|---------|---------|---------|
| Sum of products         | 794.9   | 699.2   | 95.7    |
| Sum of squares: X       | 15344.4 | 13202.9 | 2141.5  |
| Sum of squares: Y       | 201.8   | 176.9   | 24.9    |
| df                      | 287     | 284     | 3       |
| Adjusted sum of squares | 160.7   | 139.8   | 20.9    |
| df                      | 286     | 283     | 3       |

Note:      N = 288              F = 14.20              p. 0.01

X - scores obtained from the Goodenough Scale..

Y - rating on Sexual Differentiation.

## VI DISCUSSION

The present study is an attempt to compare the American and Filipino children in their degree of sexual differentiation and self-sex identification as projected in the Draw-A-Person test.

In the first hypothesis, fewer of the American children show a high degree of sexual differentiation as compared to the Filipino children. The major role of the mother at home and the diminishing role of the father especially in the matter of discipline may have accounted for the confusion on the part of the American children in the perception of their proper sex roles.

The American parents are also more permissive in the training of their children in the sense that the children do not have rigid patterns to follow. As Seward (35) states, "Today in the post World-War United States there is a good deal less self-consciousness about the sex role and probably more freedom of choice for the individual than ever before (p. 175)." Brown (6) further claims that the feminine and masculine roles in the American society are "becoming broader, less rigidly defined, less sex typed and more overlapping with each other (p. 239)." There seems, according to him, a developing convergence of the two sex roles. This trend is seen in the parental roles which may in turn affect the children's perception of their appropriate sex roles.

In the Filipino family the parents assume specific roles - the mother cares for the children and the father takes charge of the discipline of the children. The father also assumes the dominant role in the family. This family structure may have helped the children in perceiving their appropriate sex roles. Furthermore, the parents are

strict and rather rigid in the training of their children. In this kind of family system, the children tend to conform to some standards such as, the girl should stay at home and the boy is given the privilege to go out with his friends. These standards which have been set up by the parents may enable the children to identify more clearly with their proper sex roles.

We may also advance Britton's hypothesis (4) that the children from the higher socio-economic status do better in the Draw-A-Man test because of the attention given by the parents to their children in the details of dressing and personal neatness. This, he claims, may have influenced the children's awareness of specific details and thus affected the scores in the test. In this connection, we may say that in the course of training the Filipino parents might give more attention to the dressing and personal appearance of their children than do the American parents.

The second hypothesis deals with the greater degree of identification of the Filipino boy with the male figure. Since he sees the father as the source of threat, he tends to identify with the father. Besides the father, the elder brothers who take part in the discipline of the boy may also serve as identification models for the boy. The American boy tends to identify less clearly with the father than does the Filipino boy. The mother, rather than the father, is seen not only as the source of threat, but she also plays the principal role in the home. Brown (5) points out that a great number of boys are more exposed to the feminine patterns when the mother is seen as the prominent figure than the father. This situation is further complicated by the fact that the father is away most of the time while the mother is around

serving continually as the model. This results in the complication in the identification of the boy with the same-sex parents.

In the third hypothesis, the American and Filipino girls show no difference with respect to identification with the female figure. As has been mentioned earlier, because of the fear of losing their mother's love the girls of both cultures tend to identify with their mothers. This identification is facilitated because the mothers are the girls' constant companion at home and serve as the feminine models for the girls.

Another example which may show why the girls tend to identify with the female figure is Brown's findings (5) which showed that girls of the ages from 9 to 11 exhibit a change in their preference. In contrast to their masculine preference during their earlier years, they demonstrate a greater degree of identification with the female figure.

In the comparison within cultures, we can clearly see the parental roles in the child-rearing process in the two cultures. In the American family the mother plays a major role while it is the father who assumes this role in the Filipino family. These parental roles seem to have affected the identification of the children with the same-sex parent. The pattern in the Filipino family seems to give the boy an opportunity to identify more with the father. The girl in the American family seems to have more advantage than the boy in identifying with the same-sex parent. The dominant role of the mother results in the confusion of the boy's sex identity.

We can conclude from the above study that the Filipino children show a greater degree of sexual differentiation than the American children and that the Draw-A-Person test is an adequate and valid instrument in comparing two cultural groups in the degree of sexual differentiation.

## VII SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The Draw-A-Person test was administered to 129 American children and 159 Filipino children to compare them in their degree of sexual differentiation. Of the American subjects, 69 were boys and 60 were girls. Of the Filipino subjects, there were 76 boys and 83 girls. The ages of the subjects ranged from nine years to twelve years. Three predictions were formulated on the basis of the different family structures in the two cultures.

1. The American children will show a lesser degree of sexual differentiation than the Filipino children.
2. The Filipino boys will tend to identify more with the male figure than the American boys.
3. The American and Filipino girls will show no differences in their identification model.

A revision of Swensen's 9-point Rating Scale for Sexual Differentiation was used as an index for sexual differentiation. The revised scale contains 5 points i.e. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, which correspond to the odd numbers 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, of Swensen's scale. The data were analyzed by means of the chi-square to determine the significance of the differences between the two groups on sexual differentiation. For the self-sex identification the Goodenough Scale was utilized as the measure. A t-test was employed on the scores obtained from the Goodenough scale (male and female figure drawings) to find out the difference between the two groups on their self-sex identification. Since there was doubt as to whether the drawing ability of the children was responsible for

the difference between the two groups, the analysis of covariance was used to show the relationship between the degree of sexual differentiation and the scores obtained from the Goodenough Scale.

The results supported the above predictions. The relationships between the results of the study and the parental roles in the two cultures were also discussed. It was concluded that the Filipino children show a higher degree of sexual differentiation as compared to the American children and the Draw-A-Person test is an adequate and useful instrument in a cross-cultural study.

## VIII BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Appel, K. Drawings by children as aids to personality studies. Amer. J. Orthopsychiat., 1931, 1, 129-144.
2. Benjamin, H. Age and sex differences in the toy preferences of young children. J. Genet. Psychol., 1932, 41, 417-429
3. Brill, M. A study of instability using the Goodenough Scale. J. Abnorm. Soc. Psychol., 1937, 32, 288-302
4. Britton, J. Influence of social class upon performance on the Draw-A-Man test. J. Educ. Psychol., 1954, 45, 44-51
5. Brown, D. Masculinity and femininity development in children. J. Consul. Psychol., 1957, 21, 197-202
6. Brown, D. Sex-role development in a changing culture. Psychol. Bull., 1958, 55, 323-341
7. Cutter, F. Sexual differentiation in figure drawings and overt deviation. J. Clin. Psychol., 1956, 12, 369-372
8. Davis, A. American status system and the socialization of the child. Amer. Soc. Rev., 1941, 6, 345-356
9. Davis, A. and Havighurst, R. J. Social classes and color differences. Amer. Soc. Rev., 1946, 11, 698-710
10. Dollard, J. and Miller, N. Personality and Psychotherapy. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1950
11. England, A. Cultural milieu and parental identification. Nervous Child, 1947, 6, 301-305
12. Ericson, Martha Child rearing and social status. Amer. J. Socio., 1946, 52, 190-192
13. Ferguson, L. The cultural genesis of masculinity - femininity. Psychol. Bull., 1941, 38, 584-585
14. Fingert, H.; Kagan, Julia and Schilder, P. The Goodenough test in insulin and metrazol treatment of schizophrenia. J. Gen. Psychol., 1939, 121, 349-365.
15. Fisher, S. and Fisher, Rhoda Lee Style of sexual adjustment in disturbed women and its expression in figure drawings. J. Psychol., 1952, 34, 169-179
16. Freud, Anna The Ego and the Mechanisms of Defense. New York: Internat'l. Univer. Press, 1946

17. Freud, S. New Introductory Lectures on Psychoanalysis. New York: Internat'l Univer. Press, 1946
18. Goodenough, Florence Measurement of Intelligence by Drawings. Yonkers, New York: World Book, 1926
19. Goodenough, Florence and Harris, Dale Studies in the psychology of children's drawings. Psychol. Bull., 1950, 47, 369-433
20. Granick, S. and Smith, L. Sex sequence in the DAP test and its relation to the MMPI M-F scale. J. Consul. Psychol., 1953, 17,, 71-73
21. Gorer, G. The American People. New York: W. W. Norton, 1948
22. Guilford, J. P. Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1950
23. Havighurst, R., Gunther, Minna Korol, and Pratt, Inez Ellis Environment and the Draw-A-Man test: The performance of Indian children. J. Abnorm. Soc. Psychol., 1946, 41, 50-62
24. King, Frances The use of drawings of the human figure as an adjunct in psychotherapy. J. Clin. Psychol., 1954, 10, 65-69
25. Maccoby, Eleanor; Gibbs, Patricia and the Staff of the Laboratory of Human Development - Harvard University. In Martin and Stendler (Ed.) Readings in Child Development. New York: Harcourt and Brace, 1954
26. Machover, Karen Personality Projection in the Drawings of the Human Figure. Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1949
27. Manuel, H. T. and Hughes, Lois S. The Intelligence and drawing ability of young Mexican children. J. Applied Psychol., 1932, 16, 383-387
28. Master, E. E. Modern Courtship and Marriage. New York: McMillan, 1957
29. Mowrer, O. H. Learning Theory and Personality Dynamics. New York: Ronald, 1950
30. Mullahy, P. Oedipus Myth and Complex. New York: Grove Press, 1955
31. Mussen, P. and Conger, J. Child Development and Personality. New York: Harper, 1956
32. Papavassilion, Th. The validity of the Goodenough Draw-A-Man test in Greece. J. Educ. Psychol., 1953, 44, 244-248
33. Rabban, M. Sex-role identification in young children in two diverse social groups. Genet. Psychol. Monogr., 1950, 42, 81-158

34. Sears, R., Maccoby, Eleanor and Levin, H. Patterns of Child Rearing. New York; Row, Peterson, 1957
35. Seward, G. Sex roles in postwar planning. J. Soc. Psychol., 1944, 19, 163-185
36. Seward, Georgene Sex and the Social Order. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1946
37. Shoben, E. Theoretical Frames of Reference in Clinical Psychology. In Pennington and Berg (Ed.) Introduction to Clinical Psychology. New York: Ronald Press, 1954
38. Sipprelle, C. and Swensen, C. Relationship of sexual adjustment to certain sexual characteristics of human figure drawings. J. Consul. Psychol., 1956, 20, 197-198
39. Smith, S. Age and sex differences in childrens' opinion concerning sex differences. J. Genet. Psychol., 1939, 54, 17-25
40. Swensen, C. Sexual differentiation on the Draw-A-Person. J. Clin. Psychol., 1955, 11, 37-41
41. Symonds, P. Some basic concepts in parent-child relationships. Amer. J. Psychol., 1937, 50, 195-206
42. Thompson, G. Child Psychology. New York: Riverside Press, Cambridge, 1952
43. Wolfenstein, Martha Trends in infant care. Amer. J. Orthopsychiat., 1953, 33, 120-130

ROOM USE ONLY

11 Aug 59

~~JUL 28 1960~~

~~AUG 5 1960~~

~~AUG 19 1960~~

~~AUG 31 1960~~

~~SEP 26 1960~~

~~JUN 2 1960~~

~~SEP 7 1960~~





MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES



3 1293 03145 6118