

EFFECT OF A FASHION THERAPY PROGRAM ON THE
SELF-CONCEPT OF INSTITUTIONALIZED
ADOLESCENT GIRLS

By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Physical appearance is one of the personal characteristics which is obvious and visible to others in social interactions. According to Berscheid and Walster (in press), appearance telegraphs more information about people than they would care to reveal on a battery of personality inventories, intelligence tests, and character scales. From flame-colored hair through flat feet, few aspects of appearance fail to provide insight into an individual's self concept (Berscheid et al., in press). One's choice of clothing contributes to the formation of the self-concept. This is illustrated in a statement made by Horn (1968, p. 95):

The imitation of clothing behavior is a direct and tangible means of identifying one's self with a model person or referent group; this not only facilitates the learning of new social roles, but becomes an important process in the formation of the concept of self.

During adolescence the self-concept is closely related to appearance. It is during the adolescent years that the young go through difficult periods when orderly physical growth is upset by the strange and sometimes frightening changes marking the beginning of adulthood (Berscheid et al., in press).

A large number of studies appear in the literature concerning the self-concepts of delinquents, mental patients, the aged, addicts, criminals, handicapped people, those with high intelligence and

academic accomplishment, and people in various social classes; however, relatively little documented effort has been directed toward attempts to induce changes in these self-concepts (Collins, 1972). Some methods that have been used to induce changes in the self-concept, in addition to counseling and psychotherapy, include occupational and physical therapy, music and art therapy, business speaking courses, and self-improvement courses (Collins, 1972).

A study of the literature indicated that while various aspects of clothing and grooming have been investigated, little research has been found to measure the value of fashion therapy. Although research has been conducted in the area of fashion therapy for mentally ill patients and for women in correctional institutions (Matthews, 1975), the writer located very few studies on improving the self-concept of institutionalized adolescents through grooming and appearance (James, Osborn, Oetting, and Oetting, 1967; Cole, Oetting, and Miskimins, 1969).

Research in this area could lead to improving the self-concept of institutionalized adolescents. Therefore, the study was conducted to determine whether a fashion therapy program would affect the self-concept of institutionalized adolescent girls.

Objectives of the Study

In order to accomplish the purpose of this study, the following objectives were formulated. The major objective for this research was to determine whether a fashion therapy program would affect the self-esteem inventory scores of adolescent girls, age fifteen to eighteen at Whitaker State Children's Home. Sub-objectives for this research were: (1) to develop a fashion therapy program consisting of

eight lessons (Appendix A, p. 65); (2) to present the program to a group of institutionalized adolescent girls at Whitaker State Children's Home; (3) to administer a self-esteem inventory as a pre- and post-measure before and after the fashion therapy program; and (4) to determine differences between pre- and post-self-esteem inventory scores for institutionalized adolescent girls participating in the fashion therapy program and institutionalized adolescent girls not participating in the fashion therapy program and to compare the differences between the two groups.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to female students at Whitaker State Children's Home, living in one of three cottages: Whitaker, Fern, or McCarty. The duration of the fashion therapy program was limited to one afternoon per week for a period of ten weeks during the fall of 1975. Program content was limited to the following areas: care of the hair, care of the skin and use of cosmetics, care of the hands, oral hygiene, posture and modeling, proper diet and foods, selection of ready-made clothing, and care of clothing.

Description of the Sample

The sample for this study was taken from a total of approximately fifty-five institutionalized girls from fifteen to eighteen years of age, living at Whitaker State Children's Home during the fall semester of 1975. A total of forty girls were originally selected to participate in the study. These girls were separated into two groups of twenty with at least six girls from each of the three cottages in each group.

Definitions of Terms

Definitions of terms as they were used in this research are as follows:

Adolescence--a process or period of growing toward maturity from a child to an adult (Rogers, 1962).

Child-Care Institution--a group of unrelated children living together in the care of a group of unrelated adults. It is a twenty-four hour residential group care facility (Kadushin, 1967).

Fashion Therapy--a method of using the medium of grooming and clothing for assistance in social rehabilitation and the development of a positive self-concept (Crump, 1971).

Self-Concept--the image and belief that a person holds about himself as shown through attitudes related to clothing, grooming, and social interaction (Crump, 1971).

Procedures for the Study

The writer completed the following procedures to achieve the objectives of this study. First, literature was reviewed in the area of self-concept, fashion therapy (grooming and appearance), and child-care institutions. Second, approval was obtained from the Oklahoma State Department of Institutions, Social, and Rehabilitative Services to work with a group of adolescent girls at Whitaker State Children's Home in Pryor, Oklahoma. Third, the administrators at Whitaker State Children's Home were interviewed about adolescent institutions in Oklahoma and the fashion therapy program content was discussed. Following this preliminary discussion, the fashion therapy program

content was developed and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (Appendix B, p. 102) was obtained. Before presenting the fashion therapy program, the self-esteem inventory was administered as a pre-measure to the experimental group and to the control group. During the next ten weeks the fashion therapy program was presented to the experimental group. Upon completion of the fashion therapy program, the self-esteem inventory was administered to the control and experimental groups as a post-measure. The final procedure was to compare the differences between pre- and post-self-esteem scores for the two groups. The t-test was used to determine significance of the differences of:

- (1) pre-self-esteem scores for the control and experimental groups,
- (2) post-self-esteem scores for the control and experimental groups,
- (3) pre- and post-self-esteem scores for the control group, and
- (4) pre- and post-self-esteem scores for the experimental group.

Summary

This chapter included the significance of the problem, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, limitations of the study, definitions of terms, and procedures used to accomplish the objectives. Chapter II includes a review of literature and related research. The procedures followed to achieve the objectives are described in Chapter III. The analysis of data is presented in Chapter IV, and the summary, conclusions, and recommendations are presented in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The development of the self-concept during adolescence is a very important process. Many institutionalized adolescents have poor self-concepts. Several therapeutic techniques have been developed for improving the self-concept.

The review of literature is organized into the following sections: self-concept, therapeutic concepts, and child-care institutions. The self-concept review deals with five areas. They are the definition of self-concept, the effect of self-concept on academic achievement, the effect of self-concept on social behavior, the effect of clothing and appearance on the self-concept, and the effect of appearance on the self-concept of adolescents. The therapeutic concept review includes the early history of group therapy, the use of fashion therapy for the mentally ill, and the use of fashion therapy for women in correctional institutions. The section on child-care institutions includes the early history of child-care institutions, the child-care institutions of today, and the child-care institutions in Oklahoma.

Self-Concept

The self-concept is a very broad dimension and researchers have attempted to explore many areas of the self-concept. In the past few decades, psychologists and educators have shown an increasing interest

in the notion of the self-concept as important to the explanation and prediction of behavior.

Definitions of Self-Concept

Early social structure theorists such as George Herbert Mead, Charles Cooley, and John Dewey are credited with setting the stage for research dealing with self-concept (Musa and Roach, 1973). These theorists developed a type of theoretical framework within which an individual is perceived as a social being who sees himself and the world about him through the eyes of others (Musa and Roach, 1973 and Brownfain, 1952). As James (1890) pointed out many years ago, the individual has many selves. The individual might, for example, conceive of the self that he really believes he is, the self he realistically aspires to be, the self which he believes is perceived by others, the self he hopes he is now, and the self he fears he is now.

Social psychologists view man chiefly as a product of society rather than the result of biological determinants, but they vary in their views about the dimensions of self-concept and the stability of that concept (Humphrey, Klaasen, and Creekmore, 1971). McGhee (1956) defined self-concept as a social product consisting of cultural meanings an individual has about himself. In other words, the self-concept is what an individual thinks he is. If this concept includes all the beliefs the individual holds concerning the kind of person he is, then the valuation he places on himself is also a part of his self-concept. The idea of worth as a part of the concept of self defines the qualitative level of the concept, or self-esteem.

According to Pigge (1970), another theorist, self-concept is defined as those perceptions, beliefs, feelings, attitudes, and values one accepts as descriptive of oneself. This implies that self-concepts are based upon one's perception of others' responses to him, as well as his own perception of his characteristics and abilities.

Harris (1971) stated that one factor which is increasingly associated with success or failure is the individual's concept of himself. In reality the individual develops a number of self-concepts as a result of diverse experiences. Accordingly, the development of a viable concept of self is now recognized to be a multi-dimensional experience in which the individual seeks to integrate his perceptions of self within and among the several dimensions of his environment.

According to Hambleton, Roach, and Ehle (1972), the term self-concept implies an evaluation of one's self in relation to others when a person comes into the presence of others, those who see him seek visible clues to his identity and respond to him according to his appearance. Aspects of appearance subsequently become a part of the self as the reactions of others to an individual's appearance are interpreted by the observed person and integrated into his attitude toward himself.

Self-concept is especially important during adolescence. The adolescent's concept of his appearance is a part of his self-concept (Hambleton et al., 1972). However, this concept of appearance is likely to be in transition as the adolescent moves from childhood into adulthood. Sherif and Sherif (1965, p. 2) call the formulation of a self-concept that is different from one's childhood image "the fundamental problem in the psychology of the adolescent." During

adolescence the teenager's peers, who seem to understand him since they share the same developmental tasks, become a primary reference group for his evaluation of self image; and he will likely attempt to establish a self-concept according to the group's expectations. By conforming to the forms of appearance accepted and expected by his peer group, he tries to establish and maintain a social identity that, at least temporarily, is incorporated into his self-concept (Hambleton et al., 1972).

Academic Achievement

Previous researchers have investigated relationships between total self-concept and academic achievement (Fink, 1962). Rogers (1962) and Combs (1949) have stressed self-concept as an important factor in school achievement. To determine the validity of this hypothesis, investigations were conducted with elementary (Bledsoe and Garrison, 1962), junior high (Brookover, Thomas, and Paterson, 1964), high school (Fink, 1962), and college students (Roth, 1959). Results of studies indicated positive relationships between self-concepts and academic success.

Bruck (1957) measured the self-concept of 300 pupils using samples from the third through the sixth grades and from the eleventh grade in Michigan. He found a positive and significant relationship between self-concept and grade point average at all grade levels of students.

In a study of 500 college freshmen, Lecky (1945) found that low academic achievement was often due to a child's perception of himself as a non-learner. The average student was considered the best adjusted. In a study of two groups of twenty boys, Walsh (1945) found that high

ability, low achievers had a negative self-concept when matched with high ability, high achievers. Further studies by Benjamins (1950) and Buckley and Scanlan (1956) provided additional data to reveal that a person's self-concept related directly to his intellectual efficiency.

Statistically significant positive correlations between self-concept and (1) perceived evaluations of significant other, (2) general performance in academic subjects, and (3) achievement in specific subject-matter fields were found by Brookover et al. (1964). Davidson and Lang (1960) found that the more positive the student's perception of his teacher's feelings toward him, the more he achieved and the better behaved he was in the classroom. In a study of emotionally handicapped children, LaBenne (1965) found a highly significant positive relationship between the teacher's self-concept and the pupil's perception of himself in the classroom.

The self-concept influences the child's perception of the school and, correspondingly, his academic achievement (Pietrofesa, 1969). Frazier and Combs (1958) wrote that most failures in reading and spelling were not due to the incapacity of the students; rather, they were due to their attitude toward the tasks of reading and spelling.

Lowther (1963) found that the youngster with high self-concept gained greater scholastic success than the youngster with low self-concept. Snyder (1966) made the point that the self-concept of the mildly retarded adolescent was highly related to academic achievement. Many times the underachiever also sees himself as inadequate and unacceptable to others (Combs, 1964).

Social Behavior

Since self-concept affects academic growth of students, it also affects their social development. In adolescence, social development normally involves developing a sense of one's own individuality, acceptance of responsibility for self-direction, crystallization of one's sex role, acceptance by the opposite sex, and finding a preliminary vocational direction (Brown and Renz, 1973).

In the past few decades, psychologists and educators have shown an increasing interest in the notion of the self-concept or self-worth as important in the explanation and prediction of behavior. Supporting evidence for self-concept as a factor influencing behavior patterns and adjustment was found by Martire (1965), and Steiner (1957). Sheerer (1949) found that there was a positive correlation between acceptance of self and acceptance of and respect of others. Stock (1949) further found that when a person's feelings about himself changed, his attitude toward others altered in the same direction.

The self-concept is an important factor in a young child's personal-social adjustment within the school. The student who has a negative self-concept is more likely to manifest greater evidence of maladjustment than the student with a positive self-concept (Engel, 1959). Interpersonal relations are likely to be affected, for, as Radke-Yarrow, Trager, and Davis (1949) pointed out, group consciousness and social prejudices are present in the preschool and early school years. Therefore, it would be difficult to assume that group consciousness does not arise until adolescence.

The significant relationship between self-concept and indices of delinquency has been established through many studies of self-concept

and behavior (Brown et al., 1973). According to Brown and Renz (1973), girls who had low self-concepts also had learning problems, school discipline problems, and difficult inter-personal relationships. They were also likely to drop out of school early (Brown et al., 1973). Since so many school problems develop from low self-concepts, the school is an excellent place for action programs to improve the self-concept.

Clothing and Appearance

In the socialization process which leads to the development of the concept of self, clothing is believed to play a significant role (Stone, 1965). Many believe it to be an expression of self and a factor in social adjustment (Stiles, 1967). Research (Lapitsky, 1961; Brady, 1963; Dickey, 1967) has shown that individuals differ in the way they value, see, and use clothing and that these differences are related to social and psychological variables, particularly to feelings of insecurity.

Studies support in some measure the idea that socially secure individuals may use clothing for self-expression, while those who are less secure may use clothing as a means of coping with social situations (Lapitsky, 1961; Brady, 1963; Dickey, 1967). Humphrey, Klaasen, and Creekmore (1971) concluded that a particular use of clothing reflects both feelings of self-worth and feelings of insecurity for adolescents. This supports to some extent propositions from previous research that clothing may be a means of self-expression.

Clothing is important to both boys and girls in at least eight ways: aesthetic, approval, attention, comfort, dependence, interest,

management, and modesty (Kuehne and Creekmore, 1971). Clothing may also provide a means for the less secure individual to feel more accepted by his peers. In addition clothing provides a way of expressing some degree of independence from the family (Evans, 1964). Clothing may serve both an adaptive function when self-concept is low and an expressive function when self-concept is high (Humphrey et al., 1971).

Since self-concept is based in part on other people's perceptions and reactions and because adolescence brings with it heightened awareness of physical attributes, this period can be a time of turmoil for the girl who is unable to present an attractive appearance as determined by the cultural standards (Brown, et al., 1973). Of greater importance to a person's emotional health probably than any other single trait is his general appearance, a combination of "looks" and "grooming" (Stolz and Stolz, 1944). In girls from low socioeconomic backgrounds this problem may be especially acute because of inadequate adult models and instruction (basic grooming habits and information are not relayed in verbalization or practice from parent to child), and inadequate funds together with lack of wise purchasing knowledge (Brown et al., 1973).

Adolescent Appearance

Theoretical support for the relationship of appearance and self-concept can be found in a large number of research studies (Muse and Roach, 1973; Hall, 1898; James, et al., 1967; Cooley, 1922; Ellis, 1962; Goffman, 1959). Fisher (1968) stated that the self-concept deals with the whole range of complicated attitudes and fantasies an individual has about identity, his life role, and his appearance.

During adolescence self-concept is closely related to appearance (Berscheid et al., in press). During this time the young go through difficult years when orderly physical growth is upset by the strange and sometimes frightening changes marking the beginning of adulthood. Within a year or two a once familiar nose may appear too big or a compact body too skinny and underdeveloped. At this time, reactions of others to the developing physical self may change drastically according to the attractiveness maintained in the process (Berscheid et al., in press). The physical self is of more central concern during adolescence than during any other period of life except perhaps old age (Phillips, 1963). Basic physical changes force the body into the adolescent's consciousness. An additional reason for the importance of physical changes to the self-concept during adolescence is that they symbolize the end of childhood.

The concern for physical standards seems extreme, but temporarily, at least, physical traits play a disproportionate part in emotions, frustrations, and satisfactions (Brown et al., 1973). Stolz and Stolz (1944) suggested that the changing body becomes a symbol, not only of being different from last month or year, but as a new attitude toward self, toward others and toward life.

An important characteristic of adolescent change listed by McCandless (1970, p. 92) is

necessary, urgent, and dramatic changes by the adolescent in his self-concept. These must be made because of the joint demands of his biological maturity and the changes in social expectations that parallel it.

He further proposed that adolescents' bodies are exceptionally important to them in shaping their self-concept and in facilitating or

retarding their attainments of status and adequate social relations. A good body and an attractive appearance usually do much to reduce the frustration and ambiguity that surround the adolescent and add to his upsurge of general drive level. The concept of his body is central to his concept of himself. An individual's characteristics such as strength, proportion and attractiveness are ultimately related to how society responds to him. Since social feedback shapes the self-concept, it is easily seen that the interaction of body and self-concept is inevitable and important (Perrin, 1921).

From the reactions of others and from knowledge of cultural expectations, satisfaction or dissatisfaction with all, or parts, of the physical body develop. The uncertainties inherent in the growth process coupled with reactions from others cannot help but affect the adolescent's self-concept and sense of self-worth (Schonfeld, 1969).

Summary

There is an abundant amount of research pertaining to self-concept. The self-concept is defined as what an individual thinks he is. Studies have shown that during adolescence the self-concept is closely related to appearance (Bercheid et al., in press), academic achievement (Fink, 1962), and social behavior (Martire, 1965; Steiner, 1957; Sheerer, 1949). In addition, clothing and appearance are believed to play an important part in the self-concept of a person (Stone, 1965).

Therapeutic Concepts

Therapy has been used in many different ways. It had its

beginning with tubercular patients but is presently being used with people who have all types of problems. In 1959, group therapy expanded to include fashion therapy for the mentally ill. Today, fashion therapy is also being used in women's correctional institutions and in child-care institutions.

Group Therapy

The first therapeutic use of the group was educational and dates back to 1905 when Dr. J. H. Pratt, in an effort to conserve time, requested that a number of his tubercular patients gather in a group meeting at the Boston Dispensary for instruction in personal hygiene (McGovern, 1948). He recognized the emotional values involved and recorded the fact that these patients were encouraged by the experience, received help from one another and enjoyed the heartening effects (McGovern, 1948). His method was widely publicized and used advantageously by many clinics in the treatment of various chronic diseases.

The next conscious use of the group for therapy was for cases of mental disturbance and Dr. J. L. Moreno is usually credited with this development (McGovern, 1948). In 1911, in experiments conducted in Vienna, he treated children with a method he termed psychodrama or the spontaneity theatre. The fundamental principle involved was to let the children act out their fantasies on a fairy-tale level. Several other experiments were carried out with groups of mental patients during the twenties and thirties in this country (McGovern, 1948).

Group therapy has made a notable and widely publicized contribution to controlling the problem of alcoholism. Alcoholics Anonymous is a group therapy project which had its beginning in 1935 when a

physician in Akron, Ohio, and a New York broker were helping each other in overcoming the habit of drinking (McGovern, 1948).

Achievements have been outstanding in the Jewish field of child welfare in the use of group therapy for children presenting difficult problems. The experiments of S. R. Slavson with groups of children treated under the auspices of the Jewish Board of Guardians, New York City, since 1934 have received wide attention. Publications emanating from the study of these children in controlled groups have proved helpful to all those engaged in the field of social adjustment (Slavson, 1943).

Slavson's (1943) use of the group had a recreational approach. He organized small therapeutic groups where children could meet regularly and engage in club activities. Slavson (1943) found that the child, by actually living out his frustrations and aggressions and coping with real life situations in the group gained his bearings and found a new perspective.

Redl (1944), who has done considerable work with groups, subscribed to the theory that adult leaders working with groups of children can assume considerable initiative and leadership without harm to the emotional equilibrium of the group. Redl has used the group approach quite successfully in the treatment of delinquents.

Fashion Therapy for Adolescents

The success of group therapy has led other investigators to explore the possibility of group fashion therapy. In a study by Brown and Renz (1973), culturally deprived seventh grade girls received a twelve-week guidance course with emphasis on grooming and physical

appearance. Indirectly, vocational guidance for non-academically inclined girls was presented by discussion and field trips to observe what jobs were held by women who were high school graduates. The course met during school hours and consisted of topics related to visual poise, social graces, make-up, figure control, wardrobe, nails, hair, speech, and indirect vocational guidance.

The students were also taken to the dental clinic for free dental work. This trip gave them the opportunity to observe women without a college degree preparing for a vocation. Students were taken on a guided tour of facilities at a vocational-technical center. They were also provided with information about the various programs and education requirements. As a culminating activity, the girls and parents who could attend were taken to lunch at a local hotel (Brown, et al., 1973).

In a study by Fodor (1972), delinquent girls in a training school received group session treatment. Small group sessions were the major treatment vehicle. The institutionalized girls seemed more comfortable when sharing sessions with peers. In addition, if a friend lived in another cottage and contact was limited, the group meeting was an additional reinforcer (Fodor, 1972).

Early group sessions were conducted like a social club meeting. They were informal, girl-centered; the girls could come and go as they pleased and bring friends. Refreshments were served, and they were allowed to put on make-up, do their hair, listen to music and talk about anything they wished. They quickly learned that they could discuss topics here that could not be discussed elsewhere and not be reported to school officials (Fodor, 1972).

In another study, James, Osborn, and Oetting (1967) exposed a group of "acting out adolescent girls" to a series of ten self-improvement classes (hair grooming, make-up, posture, etc.), called the Adolescent Self-Concept Group. "Acting-out" is referred to as any difficult, deviant, or anti-social conduct that appears to be motivated by anxiety (Sinclair and Clarke, 1973). Pre- and post-testing involved the Draw-A-Person test, a check list of personal characteristics, and a special sentence-completion test. Although the only significant change was an increase in the size of the female figures on the Draw-A-Person test, the authors concluded that all of the tests showed changes suggesting greater feminine identification, less hostility to authority, and greater openness to criticism (James et al., 1967).

Cole, Oetting, and Miskimens (1969) compared pre- and post-treatment measures of self-concept, ideal self-concept, and anxiety in a study of 14 adolescent females with histories of delinquent and acting-out behaviors. Five subjects were in group therapy led by professional mental health workers and nine subjects were in a similar group run by community volunteers. A third (control) group contained eight subjects of comparable age and academic performance, but with no record of acting-out behavior. The therapy groups were exposed to a ten-week socialization program (make-up, hair styling, exercises and diet, clothes and accessories, etc.) designed to produce positive changes in self-concept. All subjects were given tests that provided measures of the concepts "Me as I am today" and "My ideal-self." Although there were no significant differences among the pre- and post-test means for the three groups, the variances of the two therapy groups were significantly greater than that of the control group during

the pre-testing. The lack of significant group differences in mean scores in the study by Cole et al. (1969), and the single significant change obtained by James et al. (1967) regarding the size of female figures on the Draw-A-Person test, may be attributed, in some part at least, to the types of subjects studied and the types of scales used to measure areas of change in self-concept after a self-improvement program. Therefore, Collins (1972) studied the premise that the self-concepts of female adolescents could be altered by a self-improvement program. The study by Collins (1972) indicated that the concepts of female adolescents with certain combinations of social/emotional problems were improved in therapy situations.

Fashion Therapy for the Mentally Ill

For many years, home economist-therapists who worked in rehabilitation or homemaking programs operated by community social agencies have realized that their most socially disabled clients were those so deeply troubled that they live in a "gray area" between functioning and not being able to function in society. These people often need special help in improving their self-image and their physical appearance, a form of social therapy now taking an increasing part of the therapists' time (Matthews, 1975).

Fashion therapy is being used in the treatment of the mentally ill. Doctors and personnel of mental hospitals are recognizing that personal appearance is one of the clues to mental health (Thompson, 1962).

The first fashion therapy program for the mentally ill was conducted in October, 1959 by the San Francisco Fashion Group and the

San Francisco Association for Mental Health. The Fashion Group is an organization for persons interested in the area of clothing and textiles. This fashion therapy program was designed for the women patients in Napa State Hospital. As a result of the course, the men patients started to spruce up. The nurses also improved their appearance and no longer wore uniforms. In addition, full-length mirrors were installed in the wards (Thompson, 1962). This program was so successful that it was used as a guide for Fashion Groups across the country in bringing fashion therapy to their local state hospitals.

At Elgin State Hospital in Illinois, the laundry room and bathroom were renovated to allow patients to begin caring for their own clothes and grooming. In addition, those patients who were well enough were taken on shopping trips to purchase their own clothing. For the patients, the process of making these clothing decisions resulted in their feeling that these particular clothes really belonged to them and they took consequent pride in their upkeep (Matthews, 1975).

At another mental institution, Mendocino State Hospital, a home economist has held cooking classes for the patients. She helped the patients re-establish their feminine role in the home. Small groups of chronic schizophrenic women have also attended regular organized homemaking classes (Thompson, 1962).

Since so many state hospital patients needed to relearn homemaking skills, some institutions developed homemaking programs for six to twelve patients who worked together under the guidance of an instructor to relearn old skills (basic homemaking and personal living including grooming and the selection and care of clothing); learned new skills; and discovered the use of community resources (Matthews, 1975; Fleming,

1973). A variety of classes have been held. Some examples are basic homemaking skills in both beginning and advanced classes, sewing classes, and a job exploration class to learn the skills needed for various jobs as well as to become oriented to the world of work (Matthews, 1975). A typical program of this type was the one established in 1969 by the Dodge County Mental Health Center in Juneau, Wisconsin (Fleming, 1973).

Other programs have been started in the Fond du Lac Mental Center and the Samaritan Home and Hospital at West Bend (Fleming, 1973). These programs were funded on a federal level through the 1968 Amendments to the Vocational, Technical, and Adult Education Act administered by the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The programs worked toward achieving two goals. The primary function was to provide for the mental and physical needs of the patients. The second function was to teach the patients how to live independently and become contributing members of society once again (Fleming, 1973).

Another important goal for the patients in these two programs was the acceptance of self, or the enhancement of self-image. This was encouraged by the instructor's acceptance of each student as an individual with his own dislikes, likes, abilities, and problems. The teacher showed this by:

1. using praise and encouraging the students to praise each other
2. encouraging independence and initiative
3. encouraging the students to try new things
4. enforcing acceptance of the idea that mistakes happen and are accepted - no one is blamed and no one is punished (Fleming, 1973, p. 42).

In the final analysis, it was the number of patients successfully released that provided the best evaluation of the program. Out of 109

participants, 42 have been released. The length of time these patients had been hospitalized ranged from less than a year to 43 years, and the age range was from 18 to over 75. More than twice as many women as men have been released. At the time of the study sixteen of these were competitively employed, fifteen worked at home or in foster homes, one was at a workshop, and one was in college (Matthews, 1975).

The attitudes of the patients remaining in the institution have changed from apathy to a desire to participate in the program. One of the greatest problems in releasing the patients has been getting them to leave the security of the institution. The program has helped to give them the confidence they needed (Matthews, 1975).

Another program of this type was initiated at the Eastern State Hospital in Lexington, Kentucky by the Kentucky Vocational Rehabilitation Administration (O'Bryant, 1964). The purpose of this program was to train homemakers so they could go home and function as useful individuals. Many times the sessions were only refresher courses to help the women recall specific knowledges and skills.

Clothing was used experimentally in the Hudson River State Hospital. The hospital changed from the "custodial method" of patient treatment to the "motivational method" in order to stimulate a change in behavior but not in improved appearance. Mirrors were then placed in the ward to facilitate a change in appearance, but this effort was unsuccessful. A clothing center with a "wardrobe" was then developed to provide new and donated clothes. The center also contained a loan closet to be used on special occasions. This added a psychological boost to the patients, and did bring about a change in appearance (Cartnell and Qunlow, 1960).

Horn (1968) used the following incident as another example of the use of clothing in a mental institution at Mendocino State Hospital in Ukiah, California. One of their patients "ate" 16 to 18 dresses a day. After giving her clothing of a better quality, she stopped this habit. This experiment in clothing continued for three years, and up to 1968 the patient had not reverted to eating her clothing, and appeared to have gained confidence.

In a study conducted by Chein and Lack (1969), a 16-item scale was used to measure grooming and clothing of chronic schizophrenic patients. After three weeks of exposure to teaching aids, charts, pictures, and grooming techniques there was a significant difference in the interest of chronic schizophrenic patients regarding their personal appearance.

To obtain information regarding the extent of use of fashion therapy, Eystone (1965) conducted a national survey of private and state mental hospitals. Questionnaires were sent to 438 state and private mental hospitals with 236 being returned to the investigator. Of the number returned, 60 per cent reported having a fashion therapy program.

In reference to the reliability of fashion used as therapy Eystone (1965, p. 22) stated:

No claims are made that 'fashion therapy' is curative in itself. However, it does afford a new avenue of approach which permits a visitor or an aide to show a legitimate interest in the patients. The therapy can be two-fold, it can make the patient more acceptable socially and also can make him feel that someone is deeply and genuinely interested in helping him back to reality.

Many mental patients are unable to select what to wear and when to change clothes. The amount of assistance given to them, however,

should not be excessive since it is known that one of the positive signs toward a change in mood is for the patients to take an interest in their general appearance. Cosmetics also play a part in making the patients feel that they possess some personal property. Being denied the privilege of using cosmetics has affected the general appearance of mental patients (Manfreda and Steel, 1962). Goffman (1959) pointed out that an interest in appearance can be an indication of the association with reality.

In comments made by Leipold (1964) on the rehumanization of the mental patients in a motivated type program at a state hospital, further indications were given as to the importance of an interest in appearance. He revealed that in other types of programs, the patient depended on the staff members for making decisions and for his "very existence." Many did not even know how to turn on a shower. In a motivated program, each patient had to be responsible for his self care and personal hygiene. This new learning procedure was not an easy task for those who had been so dependent on others for a simple practical life exercise.

Precedence for someone inexperienced in therapy to work with the institutionalized schizophrenic mental patient was given in a study by Gibson (1966). He indicated that all psychologists know of chronically ill schizophrenic patients who have responded dramatically to an inexperienced therapist. Possible causes were that the need-fear dilemma was activated due to eagerness which might lead to drastic alterations in the patient's behavior.

Fashion Therapy in Women's
Correctional Institutions

Although a great deal of fashion therapy has been used in mental institutions, they are not the only institutions using fashion therapy. Women's correctional institutions are also using fashion therapy. A typical self-improvement course was the one called "Self Esteem Through Femininity" for women prisoners at the Dwight Reformatory for Women and the Cook County Jail, both in Illinois (Matthews, 1975).

The course was based on the premise that improving a prisoner's outer appearance is a necessary step in developing his inner resources. It is estimated that the recidivism rate (return of prisoners to prison life) for female prisoners who have the opportunity to take these classes is barely five per cent (Matthews, 1975). Because habits are hard to change, the program works toward change in easy stages--from lessons on posture, walking, manicuring, and make-up to work on body dynamics, physical relaxation, and physical development; from feminine hygiene and attitudes to, finally, job preparation (Matthews, 1975).

Because the women in Dwight Reformatory have been given sentences of from several months to many years, they "settle in" and become part of the prison's community, which allows time for the prison's long-range goals in this area to be accomplished. At the Cook County Jail, women are waiting to be sentenced and their stay is much shorter, from only a few days to a few months. These women are upset at being in jail at all and the result is a much more chaotic atmosphere than at Dwight. The femininity program, therefore, must be reduced from its normal twelve weeks to four weeks, making it more difficult to observe results (Matthews, 1975).

Many practices of grooming, manners, and table etiquette, which many people take for granted, are new to many of these women. Some have never worked or applied for a job. The few with work experience had been unsuccessful in keeping their jobs. Certainly at least one reason for some of them having earned their livings on the street was their lack of employment success. As the program progressed, and as the prisoners began to roleplay job interviews, two questions always arose: How do you explain the past? Do you tell the truth or do you make up a story? These women discovered that whichever method they used, they would need to be convincing and that the way they were dressed and groomed would be an important factor in how convincing they were (Matthews, 1975).

For prisoners in the Cook County Jail, a more immediate problem was their fear of facing the judge or the parole board. Many of the women were convinced that when they appeared before the judge, they would get maximum sentences and that little could be done about this (Matthews, 1975).

Several program participants acquired new clothes, had their hair styled, and improved their grooming before appearing in court. The judge remarked to one that she did not appear to be the kind of person who would commit such a criminal act. She later received a reduced sentence and was much surprised that a better appearance "worked." Her feelings about herself immediately began to change (Matthews, 1975).

Summary

In summary, therapy has been used for many purposes. Fashion therapy or self-improvement courses have been very successful in mental

hospitals and women's correctional institutions. Also, some researchers have investigated the use of fashion therapy for adolescent girls.

Child-Care Institutions

Institutions were developed many years ago. They have changed rapidly from the beginning institutions for the sick, the poor, the abandoned, and the orphaned, to the present institutions for three distinct categories of children. Many different types of child-care institutions are found in Oklahoma and throughout the United States.

History of Child-Care Institutions

The child-care institution has a long history. The xenddochein (home for strangers or travelers) established by the Council of Nicaea in 324 A. D., to give shelter to the sick and the poor became asylums for abandoned children, a fact that led some of them to be called Brephotrophia (orphan home) (Kadushin, 1967; Hopkirk, 1944). In 787 A.D., Datheus, Archbishop of Milan, established an institution to care for children. Concerned about the abandonment of children, he noted:

These horrors would not take place if there existed an asylum where the adulterer could hide her shame but now they throw the infants in the sewers or the rivers and many are the murders committed on the new born children (Payne, 1916, p. 294).

Although a limited number of institutions exclusively concerned with caring for children existed, the typical pattern was to have the children share an institution with other deprived groups in the population. Thus, in Colonial America, only a few institutions for dependent children had been established by the end of the eighteenth century. One had been established in New Orleans as a result of the need to care

for a large number of children orphaned by an Indian massacre at Natchez (Kadushin, 1967; Hopkirk, 1944). The first institution found by a fraternal order was established by the Masons in California in 1850, but it had been preceded by several church organizations in the state (Hopkirk, 1944). Another institution was established as a result of a yellow fever epidemic in Philadelphia. More frequently, however, children requiring institutional care were assigned to mixed almshouses

to live with the aged, the insane, the feeble-minded, and the diseased. They were usually cared for by the ignorant employees; their physical needs were neglected. . . . Those who survived knew only the life and routine of a pauper institution (Abbott, 1938, p. 4).

Although additional institutions for children were built early in the nineteenth century, the number of children in mixed almshouses continued to grow. As investigation after investigation confirmed the undesirable conditions under which the children lived, a growing dissatisfaction led to increasingly insistent demands that this method of caring for the children be prohibited (Kadushin, 1967).

For a time, there were some attempts at compromise by making separate institutional facilities available to children on almshouse grounds, but these attempts were few and unsatisfactory. In 1866, Ohio passed a law, the first of its kind, that permitted counties to establish children's homes (Hopkirk, 1944). In 1874, Michigan opened its State Public School, now called the Michigan Children's Institute (Hopkirk, 1944).

During the latter part of the nineteenth century, many states prohibited almshouse care for children (Folk, 1902). In 1875, New York passed a law stating that children living in New York should "be removed from almshouses and provided for in families, asylums or other

appropriate institutions" (Kadushin, 1967, p. 519). This meant that alternative forms of care had to be provided for the tens of thousands of children that had to be removed from almshouse care. By this time, both foster care and institutions exclusively concerned with children, such as orphanages, had been developed. Thurston (1930, p. 3), noted, "as children were withdrawn or refused admission to almshouses, the tendency to build orphan asylums--already strong--was stimulated."

Institutions were developed under a variety of auspices--benevolent organizations, charitable individuals, and religious groups. Public institutions were also developed under municipal, county, and state auspices. The first state institution was established by Massachusetts in 1866, and many states followed Michigan's pattern of housing dependent children in one central institution and placing them in families as soon as possible. The nineteenth century also witnessed the development of special institutions for the care of the physically handicapped, the deaf, the blind, and the mentally retarded and the juvenile delinquents (Kadushin, 1967).

Child-Care Institutions of Today

The number of child care institutions has increased sharply since the nineteenth century. Today the child-care institution is a facility that offers total substitute care for the child whose parents cannot and/or will not implement their parental role (Kadushin, 1967). The boarding home is a temporary facility for the child whose parents can implement their parental role by placing their child in a temporary housing facility. The adoptive home is a permanent home with legal adoptive parents. Both the boarding home and the adoptive home have

in common the fact that they provide the child with a family care arrangement. The institution is similar to the boarding home in that it may provide temporary substitute care. It may be like the adoptive home in that it offers permanent care but, unlike the boarding home or the adoptive home, it offers group care rather than family care (Kadushin, 1967).

According to Kadushin (1967, p. 517), "a children's institution is defined as a group of unrelated children living together in the care of a group of unrelated adults. It is a twenty-four hour residential group care facility."

There are many different kinds of institutions serving different types of children. Among them are the following:

1. Institutions for the normal, but dependent and neglected child. This is the closest modern analogy to the old orphan asylum.
2. Institutions for the physically handicapped child. There are separate institutions for children who are blind, deaf, crippled, asthmatic and so on.
3. Institutions for the mentally retarded or mentally defective child.
4. Institutions for the confinement and rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents. These are often called training schools.
5. Institutions for the emotionally disturbed child, known as residential treatment centers (Kadushin, 1967, p. 517).

Other institutions do not necessarily serve a special population of children but are distinguished by their special purpose:

1. Emergency facilities that accept children on a short-term basis while a study is made of the situation to determine the best plan. Such a facility might also be used for children who need short term care.

2. Diagnostic or observation centers to which a child is referred for the explicit purpose of undergoing a detailed physical, psychological, and social study (Kadushin, 1967, p. 517).

Although institutions deal with the child who faces some problem in the parent-child relationship network, many institutions are not under the state welfare department. This may be due to the fact that the central problem is perceived as a medical problem in the case of the physically handicapped child; as a problem of law enforcement in the case of the juvenile delinquent; as a medical or education or vocational problem in the case of the emotionally disturbed or mentally deficient child. Hence, institutions operate under the auspices of many groups.

The heterogeneous responsibility for the child-caring institutions stems also from the attitude of the social work profession. Well into the 1920's, the profession saw the child-caring institutions as a somewhat disreputable last resort. Only after World War II did professional social work "accept" the institution as a specialized service to be selectively and appropriately used for some groups of children (Konopka, 1954).

The different institutions serving different groups of children are, of course, apt to differ in many essential details. All institutions have in common the fact that they are group-care facilities that provide total substitution of the natural parents' care of the child. This implies, then, that many significant elements are common to all institutions (Kadushin, 1967).

Institutions for dependent and neglected children, maternity homes, and institutions for the physically handicapped (other than the

blind or deaf) are largely under private voluntary auspices. Eighty-seven per cent of all institutions for dependent and neglected children reported in a recent national survey were under such auspices; only thirteen per cent were public institutions. In fact, "seventeen of the forty-two reporting states had no public institution for dependent and neglected children" (Jeter, 1963, pp. 222-223). Institutions for the mentally handicapped, training school for delinquents, and institutions for the deaf and the blind are all primarily under public auspices (Kadushin, 1967).

Two out of every three children living in institutions are boys. Half of the children are fifteen years of age or older, and only five per cent are under five years of age (Jeter, 1962). The preponderance of boys results partly from the fact that boys are much more apt to be adjudged delinquent than girls are, and therefore to be remanded to training school or residential treatment centers (Statistics on Public Institutions for Delinquent Children, 1968).

According to the United States Children Bureau, in 1958 there were 36,000 children in state training schools. In 1962, the figure was 3000 higher; in 1964 it was 5000 higher, the total being 44,000. In 1968 there were 54,000 children in training school, campus, reception and diagnostic centers (Statistics on Public Institutions for Delinquent Children).

Children stay in institutions varying amounts of time depending on the institution and the condition of the child. The severely mentally or physically handicapped children are likely to be long-term residents. Hylton (1964) found that the average length of stay for all children in residential treatment centers was about two and two-thirds years.

According to the 1960 census, the largest proportion of children had resided in institutions for a period of less than sixteen months (Low, 1966).

Oklahoma Child-Care Institutions

In Oklahoma child-care institutions there are three categories of children: (1) the child who is dependent and neglected, (2) the child who is in need of supervision, and (3) the child who is delinquent.

In order to be placed in an institution a child must be adjudicated through the court and then placed in the custody of the Oklahoma State Department of Institutions, Social, and Rehabilitative Services. The State Department must then decide which children will be placed in institutions. A child may also be placed in a foster home or with relatives.

In Oklahoma there are two types of institutions. The open institution is the type in which there are no fences or walls to retain the child. The other type is the closed institution called a reformatory or state training school. Training schools are considered the last resort for dealing with delinquent youth. The key organizing principle of a training school is punishment.

There are three training schools in Oklahoma, one for girls and two for boys. One of the training schools for boys is located at Helena, Oklahoma in Alfalfa County. It has a capacity of approximately 166 boys. The other boys' training school, with a capacity of approximately 130, is located at Boley, Oklahoma in Okfuskee County. The girls' state training school, Girls Town, is located at Tecumseh, Oklahoma in Pottawatomie County. This institution has facilities for

approximately 130 girls.

An open institution is located in Mayes County at Pryor, Oklahoma. This institution is called Whitaker State Children's Home, and it can accommodate approximately 280 children. Other institutions are located at Taft, Oklahoma. There are two campuses about one mile apart that have a capacity of 160 in each institution. These campuses are known as the Oklahoma Children's Center. Another institution with the Welfare Department is the Lloyd E. Rader Center, a diagnostic and evaluation center at Sand Springs, Oklahoma.

Summary

Many changes have taken place since the establishment of the early child-care institutions where the children shared the institution with other deprived groups. Today, in Oklahoma, children are placed in institutions if they are dependent and neglected children, children in need of supervision, or juvenile delinquents.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

The major objective for this research was to determine whether a fashion therapy program would affect self-esteem inventory scores of adolescent girls, age fifteen to eighteen, at Whitaker State Children's Home. Sub-objectives for the research were: (1) to develop a fashion therapy program consisting of eight lessons (Appendix A, p. 65); (2) to present the program to institutionalized adolescent girls at Whitaker State Children's Home; (3) to administer a self-esteem inventory as a pre- and post-measure before and after the fashion therapy program; and (4) to determine differences between pre- and post-self-esteem inventory scores for institutionalized adolescent girls participating in the fashion therapy program and institutionalized adolescent girls not participating in the fashion therapy program and to compare the differences between the two groups.

The Sample Group

The sample for this study was a group of institutionalized adolescent girls living at Whitaker State Children's Home. A discussion of the selection process and description of the sample is presented in the following section.

Selection and Description of Sample

The sample for this study was taken from a total of approximately fifty-five girls at Whitaker State Children's Home, from fifteen to eighteen years of age. Interest questionnaires (Appendix C, p. 106) were distributed by social workers to all girls living in Fern, McCarty, and Whitaker cottages. These three cottages were selected for the project because these cottages housed girls who were fifteen to eighteen years of age. The girls were placed in one of these three cottages based on their behavior. Girls with the 'best' behavior lived in Whitaker cottage which is considered an honor cottage. These girls have many more privileges than girls living in Fern or McCarty. McCarty cottage is the intermediate cottage that girls may live in according to their behavior. Girls considered to have the 'poorest' behavior are placed in Fern cottage.

The interest questionnaires (Appendix C, p. 106) were filled out by all girls interested in participating in a grooming program. The returned questionnaires were then used to equally divide the girls into two groups, with at least six girls from each of the three cottages in the control group and with at least six girls from each of the three cottages in the experimental group. Selection of girls to participate in the program was done by a social worker who placed the girls in either the control or experimental group. No attempt was made to place girls in groups according to any criteria other than forming two groups in which the girls were equally divided among the cottages. Girls from each cottage were placed in both groups to insure that each group would contain girls with similar behavior patterns.

Only those girls who were expected to remain at Whitaker State Children's Home for at least one semester were allowed to participate in the program. All students residing at Whitaker State Children's Home are placed there by the courts because of some combination of financial and behavioral, academic, truancy, or emotional problems. Students may be transferred after a short period of time from Whitaker State Children's Home to other institutions, foster homes, group homes, or their parent's home.

A total of forty girls participated in the pre-testing. These girls were divided into experimental and control groups. The fashion therapy program was presented to only the experimental group. During the ten-week duration of the fashion therapy program, three girls in the experimental group and four girls in the control group were transferred from Whitaker State Children's Home to other places of residence. Therefore, a total of thirty-three girls completed the project; seventeen in the experimental group and sixteen in the control group.

Working in Institutions

The assistance and cooperation of the administrators and staff members at Whitaker State Children's Home (Oklahoma State Department of Institutions, Social, and Rehabilitative Services) was secured through personal visits and letters. The research required no access to case or social background material on any of the girls; therefore, permission was granted through the state office to work with the girls at Whitaker State Children's Home. When working with administrators in institutions such as this, a great deal of cooperation is necessary to prevent scheduling problems in class time and room location. Extra

activities, such as the fashion therapy program, must be planned so as not to interfere with the routine schedule of activities within the institution.

In the fall of 1975 a small grant was received from the Oklahoma State Department of Vocational and Technical Education for funding the project, A Fashion Therapy Program for the Employability of Institutionalized Adolescent Girls. The grant provided a salary for teaching the fashion therapy program and funds for duplicating materials used in the program and for purchasing supplies such as grooming products and refreshments. The fashion therapy program was designed to help improve the grooming and appearance of the girls in order to increase their employability.

The Fashion Therapy Program

The fashion therapy program was developed for adolescent institutionalized girls. The program included information on grooming and clothing.

Development of Learning Materials

Development of learning materials for the fashion therapy program involved determining subject matter to be presented, selecting appropriate teaching methods and techniques, and analyzing space and facilities in relation to use of various methods. It was also necessary to identify capabilities of this group of students.

Methods used in this study were based on previous research studies and previous experience of the researcher in working with institutionalized adolescents. Several students participating in the fashion

therapy program were taught by the researcher in a vocational home economics class in a public school. A few students had been enrolled in these home economics classes during the past three years; therefore, the researcher was familiar with characteristics of the students. The researcher detected a need for improved appearance among these students. They generally had problems relating in a traditional classroom and often misbehaved in order to attract attention. They were generally among the slow learners in the class.

A variety of learning experiences within the performance and understanding level of the students was planned for each lesson. Some of the learning techniques included brainstorming, circular response, question and answers, total class discussion, demonstrations, oral presentations by resource people, observations, and team teaching. The variety of materials and media planned for use in each lesson included books, magazines, pamphlets, samples, and displays. Various audio-visual aids were also used in each lesson.

Each lesson consisted of a concept idea, objectives, learning activities, content or basic learning, evaluation, student resources and references, and teacher resources and references (Appendix A, p. 65). The fashion therapy program included the following eight concepts: care of the hair, care of the skin and use of cosmetics, care of the hands, oral hygiene, posture and modeling, proper diet and foods, selection of ready-made clothing, and care of clothing. The selection of these concepts was based on several research studies that indicated positive results with institutionalized adolescent girls.

Implementing the Fashion Therapy Program

The duration of the fashion therapy program was limited to one afternoon per week for a period of ten weeks during the fall of 1975. The classes were held in various places on the Whitaker State Children's Home campus including the library, the home economics room, the cafeteria, and the business conference room. This eliminated the problem of transporting students to an off-campus location.

The students were allowed to walk from their cottages to the designated meeting place. The researcher would call the house parents at each cottage and indicate the time and place for each meeting. Then at the close of the meeting the house parents would be called again to indicate that the meeting had ended and the girls should be arriving at their cottages. This precaution was taken to prevent runaways or tardiness.

Each session was approximately two hours in length. Nutritional snacks were served during a break or at the end of each session. The first session of the fashion therapy program was conducted as a "get acquainted" time. The researcher introduced herself and explained the ideas for the series of classes. The students were given the opportunity to express their ideas and suggestions for the classes. All the girls were asked to "Make a New Year's Resolution" for grooming problems they wanted to solve or overcome or specific things they wanted to learn during the grooming program. At the end of the course these resolutions were called to the attention of the students and they evaluated their progress.

During the course of the program volunteers in the community spoke to the group on selected topics. The speakers were selected for their

value as identification figures. Resource people were contacted by telephone to speak to the class. They were informed of the research study, the information the researcher desired to have presented, and the type of girls participating in the fashion therapy program. One speaker was a former institutionalized adolescent at Whitaker State Children's Home, so the girls had many questions for her regarding living at Whitaker. Girls participating in the program were requested to set up a schedule including the following grooming activities: have a dental check-up, use deodorant or anti-perspirant, have a complete physical check-up, brush teeth, use mouthwash, use dental floss, take a shower or bath, shampoo hair, comb or brush hair, wash face and hands, manicure and pedicure nails. The girls were asked to check whether they did each of these once a day, several times a day, once a week, twice a week, every six months or once a year. Following the program the girls were to check their schedules to see if they actually followed them. Various methods of evaluation, both written and oral, were used throughout the program to collect information regarding the progress of the students.

At the end of the program each girl was asked to respond to the handout "There's Something Special About You...What Is It?" Following the completion of the fashion therapy program, a party was given for the girls who had participated in the experimental group. Music and refreshments were provided. The girls were allowed to invite dates to this activity.

Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (Appendix B, p. 102) was used

as a pre- and post-measurement for experimental and control groups. This inventory consists of fifty-two trait descriptive sentences (e.g., I'm pretty sure of myself.) to which the students responded by indicating either 'Like Me' or 'Unlike Me.'

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was selected as a self-concept measure because the wording was simple and easy to understand. The instrument was easy to administer and only fifteen to twenty minutes were required to complete it. The instrument was designed for junior and senior high students and a variation of the inventory is available for use with students at lower educational levels.

The self-esteem scale was printed in mimeographed form, with the directions printed on the first page. Specific instructions were read aloud. Students were told to mark each statement in the following way: If the sentence does describe how you usually feel, put an X in the parentheses next to the statement in the column labeled 'Like Me.' If the sentence does not describe how you usually feel, put an X within the parentheses next to the statement in the column labeled 'Unlike Me.' Students were assured that there were no right or wrong answers, and that each statement should be answered to the best of their ability, telling how they usually felt.

Both the control and experimental groups completed the scale independently after instructions were read. Only a few questions needed explanation such as defining words or rephrasing items.

The girls were allowed as much time as needed for test completion and were encouraged to give honest answers to the questions. They were told that the purpose of the testing was to help them express how they felt about themselves.

The girls in the control group were told before pre-testing that they would also have an opportunity to participate in a grooming program after the experimental group had completed their program. Students were also informed prior to the testing that social workers, administrators, house parents, or teachers would not have access to their responses to the testing material.

The self-esteem scores were calculated by summing the items scored in the direction of positive or high self-esteem. Each positive response was given one point and each negative response was given zero points. The total for each girl was then calculated.

Statistical Analysis

The t-test was used to determine significance of the differences in the following: (1) pre-self-esteem scores for the control and experimental groups, (2) post-self-esteem scores for the control and experimental groups, (3) pre- and post-self-esteem scores for the control group, and (4) pre- and post-self-esteem scores for the experimental group.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

Data analyzed in the study were obtained as responses to the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, a self-concept inventory measurement. A total of forty girls participated in the study initially. The forty girls were separated into control and experimental groups with at least six girls from each cottage included in each group. During the ten-week duration of the fashion therapy program, three girls in the experimental group and four girls in the control group were transferred from Whitaker State Children's Home and did not participate in the post-testing. A total of thirty-three girls completed the project; seventeen in the experimental group and sixteen in the control group.

How Objectives Were Accomplished

The major objective for this research was to determine whether a fashion therapy program would affect self-esteem inventory scores of adolescent girls, age fifteen to eighteen, at Whitaker State Children's Home. This objective was accomplished through the following sub-objectives.

One sub-objective for this research was to develop a fashion therapy program consisting of eight lessons. The eight lessons were developed with a concept idea, objectives, learning activities, content or basic learning, evaluation, student resources and references, and

teacher resources and references (Appendix A, p. 65). The lessons were very flexible allowing for a great deal of student interaction. Evaluation followed each lesson and an overall evaluation was made following the completion of the program.

The second sub-objective was to present the program to institutionalized adolescent girls at Whitaker State Children's Home. The program was presented over a ten-week period to the experimental group.

The third sub-objective was to administer a self-esteem inventory as a pre- and post-self-esteem measure before and after the fashion therapy program. The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was completed by the girls as a pre-test and as a post-test. The total number in the experimental group who completed the project was seventeen girls and the total number for the control group who completed the project was sixteen girls.

The fourth sub-objective was to determine differences between pre- and post-test self-esteem inventory scores for institutionalized adolescent girls participating in a fashion therapy program and institutionalized adolescent girls not participating in a fashion therapy program and to compare the differences between the two groups.

Analysis of Data

The t-test was used to make four comparisons: (1) pre-self-esteem scores for the control and experimental groups, (2) post-self-esteem scores for the control and experimental groups, (3) pre- and post-self-esteem scores for the control group, and (4) pre- and post-self-esteem scores for the experimental group.

The analysis indicated no significant difference in the pre-self-esteem inventory scores between the control and the experimental groups. As indicated in Table I, the mean score for the control group pre-test was 32.31. The experimental group had a pre-test mean of 27.88. No significant difference was found in the post-self-esteem inventory scores between the control and the experimental groups. Table II indicates the mean score for the control group post-test was 32.50. The experimental group had a post-test mean of 30.53.

The t-test also indicated no significant differences between the pre- and post-self-esteem scores for the control group (Table III). The pre-self-esteem mean scores for the control group was 32.31. The post-self-esteem mean score was 32.50. This indicated only a slight change from pre- to post-self-esteem testing. No significant differences were found in pre- and post-self-esteem scores for the experimental group (Table IV). The pre-self-esteem mean score for the experimental group was 27.88. The post-self-esteem mean score was 30.53. Even though the difference was not significant, the increase of the mean score for the experimental group from pre- to post-self-esteem testing was greater than the increase of the mean score for the control group. Mean scores of the experimental group increased by 2.65 points while mean scores of the control group increased by only .19 of a point.

It could be speculated that one of the reasons for no significant difference might have been due to the variation in pre-test scores. The mean pre-test score for the experimental group was 4.43 points lower than for the control group. The raw scores for the self-esteem inventory indicate that ten out of seventeen girls participating in the

TABLE I
 COMPARISON OF PRE- COOPERSMITH SELF-ESTEEM SCORES
 FOR THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS OF
 INSTITUTIONALIZED ADOLESCENT GIRLS

Group	Sample Size	Mean	Variance	Standard Deviation	Degrees of Freedom	t-Value
Control	16	32.31	97.43	9.87	31	1.53*
Experimental	17	27.88	42.49	6.52		

* Not significant.

TABLE II
 COMPARISON OF POST- COOPERSMITH SELF-ESTEEM SCORES
 FOR THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS OF
 INSTITUTIONALIZED ADOLESCENT GIRLS

Group	Sample Size	Mean	Variance	Standard Deviation	Degrees of Freedom	t-Value
Control	16	32.50	117.20	10.83	31	0.57*
Experimental	17	30.53	79.51	8.92		

* Not significant.

TABLE III

PRE- AND POST- COOPERSMITH SELF-ESTEEM SCORES FOR
THE CONTROL GROUP OF INSTITUTIONALIZED
ADOLESCENT GIRLS

Test	Sample Size	Mean	Variance	Standard Deviation	Degrees of Freedom	t-Value
Pre	16	32.31	97.43	9.87	15	0.16*
Post	17	32.50	117.20	10.82		

* Not significant.

TABLE IV
 PRE- AND POST- COOPERSMITH SELF-ESTEEM SCORES FOR
 THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP OF INSTITUTIONALIZED
 ADOLESCENT GIRLS

Test	Sample Size	Mean	Variance	Standard Deviation	Degrees of Freedom	t-Value
Pre	17	27.88	42.49	6.52	16	1.42*
Post	17	30.53	79.51	8.92		

* Not significant.

fashion therapy program increased their scores one to nineteen points from pre- to post self-esteem test (Appendix D, p. 108). Other reasons for no significant difference might be the limitation of the student's capacity to improve beyond this level and the relatively short duration of the course.

Results Observed After the Fashion Therapy Program

During the fashion therapy program several of the girls did show greater interest in their personal appearance, especially by improving care of the hair and application of make-up. Those who participated in the fashion therapy program wanted to know when another program would be started indicating their great interest in the program. Those students participating in the program sparked interest in younger institutionalized adolescent girls who did not have a chance to participate in the fashion therapy program. One student who participated in the program and then was transferred to another institution has written several times to say that she learned a great deal by attending the sessions. The attitudes of students participating in the fashion therapy program improved greatly. They appeared to be more disciplined and could listen and follow instructions more easily. The enthusiasm of the students indicated their desire and need for fashion therapy. Throughout the program students made comments regarding their interest in what they learned in the fashion therapy program (Appendix E, p. 111).

Suggestions for Course

From observations made during the fashion therapy program, the following suggestions might be helpful when planning another course. The girls had very short attention spans so it was very difficult to keep them interested for the full two hours. The sessions should perhaps be shortened from two hours to one hour in length. The classes were held after school and the girls were tired and were getting hungry at that time of day. If another time could have been scheduled the program might have proven more effective. A Saturday morning or afternoon program might have been more conducive to learning.

The results might have proven more statistically significant if students had been separated into control and experimental groups according to pre-test scores since there was a difference of several points in mean scores of control and experimental groups on the pre-test.

Field trips to local clothing stores might have proven beneficial if transportation could have been arranged. Working with several small groups rather than one large group might have helped students by providing them more individual assistance.

Development of the Program

During the development of the program, many factors were identified which might prove beneficial to another who wished to develop a similar program. All learning activities must be very simple and highly motivating. Care should be used in arranging for guest speakers

who will present specific information planned rather than trying to sell their products. All lessons and guest speakers must be planned well in advance and secondary arrangements should be planned in case speakers are unable to attend.

Teaching Techniques

The institutionalized adolescent girls desired and needed a great deal of individual attention. Praise for small things they were able to accomplish seemed to be the most effective motivation. The girls enjoyed helping with the distribution of handouts and samples. They also enjoyed helping with the operation of the filmstrip projector and arranging the room. In addition, they liked to help with the preparation and serving of snacks and carrying supplies to and from the car.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine whether a fashion therapy program would affect the self-concept of institutionalized adolescent girls. Such information could be useful to teachers and institutional personnel and others who could aid in the improvement of appearance and self-image of institutionalized girls.

To fulfill the stated purpose of this study, the following objectives were formulated. The major objective was to determine whether a fashion therapy program would affect the self-esteem inventory scores of adolescent girls, age fifteen to eighteen, at Whitaker State Children's Home. Sub-objectives for this research were: (1) to develop a fashion therapy program consisting of eight lessons (Appendix A, p. 65); (2) to present the program to institutionalized adolescent girls at Whitaker State Children's Home; (3) to administer a self-esteem inventory as a pre- and post- measure before and after the fashion therapy program; and (4) to determine differences between pre- and post-self-esteem inventory scores for institutionalized adolescent girls participating in a fashion therapy program and institutionalized adolescent girls not participating in a fashion therapy program and to compare the differences between the two groups.

The sample selected for this study included institutionalized adolescent girls from fifteen to eighteen years of age, living at

Whitaker State Children's Home in one of three cottages during the fall of 1975. A total of thirty-three girls participated in the complete study. The total number for the experimental group was seventeen girls, with seven girls from Fern cottage and five girls from both McCarty and Whitaker cottages. The total number for the control group was sixteen girls, with five girls from both Fern and McCarty cottages and six girls from Whitaker cottage.

Data for the study were collected by means of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory which yielded a self-esteem score. The t-test was used to determine significance of the differences in (1) pre-self-esteem scores for the control and experimental groups, (2) post-self-esteem scores for the control and experimental groups, (3) pre- and post-self-esteem scores for the control group, and (4) pre- and post-self-esteem scores for the experimental group.

Conclusions

No significant differences were found in the pre- or post-self-esteem inventory scores between the control and experimental groups. Also no significant differences were found between pre- and post-self-esteem scores for either the control group or the experimental group. Results might have been different if the girls had been selected for control and experimental groups according to their pre-test scores.

Although no significant differences were found, mean scores of the experimental group increased by 2.65 points while mean scores of the control group increased by .19 of a point. The researcher also observed an improvement in appearance and attitudes of students participating in the fashion therapy program. Many favorable comments were

made to the researcher and others regarding the fashion therapy program.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are suggested for consideration in replicated studies:

1. expand the study to include several institutions of adolescent girls;
2. compare findings between institutionalized and non-institutionalized adolescent girls;
3. assign students to control and experimental groups according to pre-test scores;
4. use different age groups and include men and boys;
5. evaluate changes in appearance by taking before and after pictures and use a grooming rating scale to determine improvement in appearance;
6. extend fashion therapy program lessons over a longer period of time;
7. check to see whether students participating in the fashion therapy program continue to use the good habits developed during the program over a period of time;
8. administer the self-esteem inventory after a period of a year or more since feelings of self-esteem change slowly.

Recommendations regarding the fashion therapy program are

1. provide fashion therapy for other institutionalized adolescents;
2. video-tape sessions in order to see appearance changes in

- students from beginning to end of program;
3. identify an appropriate time for the fashion therapy program and keep the lessons relatively short;
 4. include a variety of learning experiences.

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APPENDIX A

DESCRIPTION OF THE LESSONS

FASHION THERAPY UNIT

DESCRIPTION OF THE LESSONS

FASHION THERAPY UNIT

LESSON 1: Hair Care and Styles or a Comely Crown

CONCEPT: Hair is one of the most important ingredients for a good appearance.

OBJECTIVES: Students will be able to:

- Identify the steps in proper hair care.
- Identify hair problems and solutions to hair problems.
- Analyze and compare a variety of hair styles.
- Discuss the importance of clean hair as a social asset, a health requirement.
- Identify the procedures for rolling hair.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES:

- Poster to introduce lesson- "Do You Have Questions About Your Hair?"
- Display of various types of combs, brushes, and hair setting equipment.
- Discuss: (a) wearing curlers in public
 - (b) adopting a hair style because it's in
 - (c) long hair on guys and girls requires extra care
 - (d) hair care as well as styles for various face shapes.
- Analyze individual face shapes and recommend hair styles for face shape.
- Take student to beautician for hair cut, wash, and style. Let other students see the results.
- Question and answer period with local beautician as the guest speaker.

-Demonstration on rolling hair (guest speaker).

CONTENT OR BASIC LEARNING:

Presentation by guest speaker

A. Facts About Hair

1. An appendage of the skin

-slender thread-like outgrowth of the skin and scalp of the human body

-no sense of feeling, hair contains no nerves.

2. Composition

-protein called keratin

(a) present in all horny growths, such as nails, claws, and hoofs.

-50.65% carbon, 6.36% hydrogen, 17.14% sulphur, and 20.85% oxygen.

B. Care of the Hair

1. Shampooing

-will not hurt hair

-use good shampoo to improve appearance of hair

-clean hair on a regular basis

(a) oils and perspiration accumulate and mix with natural scales and dirt that offer a breeding place for disease-producing bacteria

(b) can lead to scalp disorders

-plain shampoo recognized by clear and transparent color

(a) use only on virgin hair

-cream shampoo

(a) use on hair if not virgin

-most shampoos are basically good shampoos

2. Conditioning

-after each shampoo condition with a cream rinse

-color treated or permanent waved hair needs conditioned more often than virgin hair

C. Hair Styling

1. Face shapes

-pear, oval, round, square, long, diamond, triangle

-oval shape is perfect

-contour and proportions of oval face form bases for modifying all other facial types

-aim to maintain oval contour

Information students received during question and answer session:

(This session was audio-taped)

-There is no special amount of hair washing for everyone. At least twice a week if your hair is oily.

-Brush hair when dry not wet.

-Massage the scalp by brushing.

-Squeaking hair does not mean it is clean.

-Do not use anyone else's comb or brush.

-Use a good conditioner after shampooing to help split ends.

-A hot olive oil conditioner is very good for the hair.

-Use the type of shampoo for the condition of your hair- dry, oily, or normal.

-There are 11 stages of hair color from black to white.

-Virgin hair is hair that has no permanent wave or hair coloring.

-The hair styles of today are soft and natural. The "blow cut" is

good with no rattling or back combing.

- Everyone has good points to emphasize- Don't hide the good points.
- The best thing you can do for your hair is to have a proper diet.
- Obtain hair height without back combing by rolling your hair properly.
- Hair should go around the roller at least $1\frac{1}{2}$ times for any type of curl.
- Stimulate hair growth by massaging the scalp.
- Dramatic emotional experiences can cause loss of hair.
- Hair over bleached will become brittle and burned.
- The three parts of the hair are the cuticle, the cortex, and the medulla.
- Look feminine-like a woman, just by the way you fix your hair.
- A good setting lotion will help to hold the curl in your hair.
- Brushing helps to relax the curl in hair.
- Curling irons if used properly will not harm the hair.

EVALUATION: Students will be evaluated by completing the following worksheets- "How Can I Make My Hair More Attractive," "What Can Be Done About Special Hair Problems," "How Should They Wear Their Hair?"

STUDENT RESOURCES AND REFERENCES:

- Local beautician (guest speaker)
- Samples for students (shampoo and hair rinse)
- Display of combs, brushes, and other hair setting equipment
- Poster "Do You Have Questions About Your Hair?"
- Handouts- The Gentle Touch for Your Hair- Johnson and Johnson Baby Products Company, New Brunswick, New Jersey, 1973.

"You're Beautiful"- Johnson and Johnson Baby Products Company,
New Brunswick, New Jersey, 1974.

"Lesson on the Care and Feeding of Hair"- General Electric Company,
Bridgeport, Connecticut.

"Beautiful Hair--Naturally"- The Gillette Company, 1973.

"Dry It-Style It-Love It"- The Gillette Company, 1975.

"Total Beauty Care"- Noxell Corporation, Baltimore, Maryland.

"The Care and Feeding of the Hair- Everything"- Helene Curtis

"That Special Something"- Avon Products, Inc., 1972.

"The Alberto Balsam Way to Naturally Beautiful Hair"- Alberto-
Culver Company, Melrose Park, Illinois, 1973.

"The Beauty Habit"- The Florida Sunshine Tree, Lakeland, Florida,
1974.

"A Special Hair Vocabulary and Some Do's and Don'ts"- General
Electric, Bridgeport, Connecticut.

-Worksheets- "How Can I Make My Hair More Attractive," "What Can Be
Done About Special Hair Problems," and "How Should They Wear Their
Hair?"- Proctor and Gamble Personal Grooming Unit.

TEACHER RESOURCES AND REFERENCES:

Textbooks

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Craig, Hazel T. Clothing- A Comprehensive Study. Philadelphia:
J. B. Lippincott Company, 1968, 198-201.

Whitcomb, Helen, and Cochran, L. Charm for Miss Teen. St. Louis:
McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969, 34-42.

Whitcomb, Helen, and Lang, Rosalind. Charm. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971, 87-109.

Vanderhoff, Margil. Clothes: A Part of Your World. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1970, 42-44.

Transparencies

"Hair Styles- Face Shapes"- 3M Company

Posters

Facial Shapes- Diamond, round, oval, rectangular, triangle, and inverted triangle

"All About Hair and How To Keep It Shiny, Silky, Soft, and Beautiful"- Noxell Corporation, Baltimore, Maryland, 1973.

LESSON 2: Oral Hygiene- Clean Up Tooth Decay and Save Your Smile

CONCEPT: Proper home care and regular visits to the dentist should prevent most dental decay and make it possible to keep your teeth throughout life.

OBJECTIVES: Students will be able to:

- Identify the parts of a tooth.
- Identify the steps for care of teeth and breath.
- List at least four products for care of teeth and breath.
- Demonstrate the proper technique for brushing and flossing teeth.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES:

- Demonstration on the proper technique for brushing, massaging, and flossing teeth. (Guest speaker- dentist and dental assistant).
- Practice techniques as demonstrated by the guest speakers.
- Discuss why people choose specific toothpaste, mouthwash, and other oral hygiene products.

-View parts of tooth.

CONTENT OR BASIC LEARNING:

A. Facts About Teeth

1. Physical Structure

-proper care includes eating nutritious foods; providing proper exercise through chewing firm, crunchy foods; proper cleaning and regular dental check-ups every six months

-proper care will keep good teeth good and improve poor teeth

-parts of tooth

(a) enamel- outer coating; hard white material; may be attacked by bacteria to cause decay; excess sugars which are not brushed from teeth surfaces may react with bacteria to cause tooth decay.

(b) crown- part of tooth that is visible, covered by enamel.

(c) dentin- inner portion of the tooth structure

(d) pulp- center of tooth which contains nerve cells and blood vessels

(e) neck- prong-like structure that fits into jaw and secures tooth in position

(f) root- contained in neck, carries nerves and blood vessels

(g) cementum- substance which secures tooth in position

2. Gums

-tissue surrounding teeth; need exercise and massaging to keep healthy

-food particles can collect between teeth and gums and cause decay or loosening of gums from teeth; correct brushing and flossing is important to prevent this

B. Procedures For Care of Teeth

1. Brushing

-after every meal or snack; if it isn't possible to brush,
swish water around in mouth as a substitute technique

-every person should brush at least twice a day

(a) rotate brush up-and-down firmly but not forcefully in
front and back of all teeth

(b) use toothpaste, toothpowder or water

(c) rinse thoroughly

2. Cleaning with a Water-Jet

-effective cleaning method when combined with regular brushing

-follow manufacturer's directions for use of a water jet device

3. Massaging

-helps circulate blood to gum tissue

(a) place balls of fingers in front and back of teeth, move in
a firm circular motion

(b) do regularly after cleaning, at least once a week

4. Flossing

-helps dislodge food particles which have not been removed by
brushing

(a) use dental floss between teeth; move gently up and down
between teeth; be careful not to put excess pressure on
gums

(b) rinse thoroughly

5. Regular Dental Check-ups

-necessary to get teeth professionally cleaned and polished

-important in identifying decay or other deteriorating

conditions early when treatment is most successful

C. Products for Care of Teeth and Breath

1. Toothpaste

- cleans food debris from teeth and areas between teeth
- removes unsightly film which may accumulate and cause discoloration or gum problems
- aids in dislodging and destroying odor-causing bacteria
- must not be: harmful if accidentally swallowed; irritating to gums; abrasive enough to wear away sound tooth structure; or damage dental appliances such as braces or fillings

2. Mouthwash

- contains ingredients to inhibit odor
- helps remove food particles which even a toothbrush can't reach
- gives a refreshing taste
- use as desired, generally after brushing

3. Dental Floss

- use a product designed for flossing since it will not harm gum tissue if properly used

4. Brushes

- use a soft or medium brush which will not scratch gum tissue
- when a brush starts losing bristles or becomes misshapen, replace it
- rinse brush thoroughly after use

EVALUATION: Students will be evaluated by the techniques they use when they practice brushing, flossing, and massaging the teeth and gums. Evaluation will also be made by the answers they list on the

worksheet- "How Can I Make a Bright Smile Brighter."

STUDENT RESOURCES AND REFERENCES:

Handout

- Structure of a Tooth- Proctor and Gamble Personal Grooming Unit, Visual 5a, Cincinnati, Ohio, 1975.
- Don't Pollute Your Mouth With Tooth Decay- Ethel Wittenberger, Nutrition Action Committee, California School Service Association in Cooperation with the Cling Peach Advisory Board.

Worksheets

- "How Can I Make a Bright Smile Brighter"- Proctor and Gamble Personal Grooming Unit, Visual 5b, Cincinnati, Ohio, 1975.

Samples

- Dental floss and disclosure tablets

TEACHER RESOURCES AND REFERENCES:

Textbook

Carson, Byrta. How You Look and Dress. St. Louis: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969, 34-37.

Booklet

Personal Care Unit- Proctor and Gamble Educational Services, Cincinnati, Ohio, 1975.

LESSON 3: Skin Care and the Application of Make-Up or Saving Face or Magic with Make-Up

CONCEPT: Cleanliness is the basis of healthy skin for girls of all complexions.

OBJECTIVES: Students will be able to:

- Identify steps in skin care.
- Demonstrate how to apply make-up.

- State the importance of cleanliness for their social success as well as their health.
- Identify causes and treatment of complexion problems.
- Identify personal care procedures that can be used for good grooming.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES:

- Demonstration on skin care and make-up application. Apply make-up to several students.
- View filmstrip- "All About Acne."
- Discuss the difference between a deodorant and an antiperspirant.
- Display of necessary aids (soap, water, clean washcloth and towel) to wash the face.

CONTENT OR BASIC LEARNING:

Presentation by guest speaker

A. Make-up

1. Application and removal

- Apply make-up only to an absolutely clean face.
- Use soap and water to remove make-up before going to bed.
- Use a light touch in applying make-up.
- Keep make-up to a minimum for school hours and other daytime occasions.

B. The Way to a Good Complexion

1. Good Health

- Regular exercise, eight hours sleep and a well-balanced diet.

2. Cleanliness

- Daily bath
- Pore-deep facial cleansing with a medicated liquid cleanser to

remove excess oil, dirt, and stale make-up.

3. Stimulation

- Helps speed up the blood flow
- A medicated liquid cleanser stimulates as it cleans
- A medicated masque, used twice a week, tightens pores, draws out impurities

4. Protection

- A moisture lotion protects skin from drying sun and wind, and keeps make-up out of pores.
- A medicated make-up hides as it heals blemishes

5. Hands-Off

- Keep fingers off your face.
- Squeezing a blackhead, whitehead, or pimple will only enlarge pores, spread infection and may scar skin tissue

C. Facts About Acne

1. Causes

- Is a psychologically depressing problem.
- Develops as a result of the endocrine changes that take place in the teen years.
- Oil glands beneath the surface of the skin excrete oily matter to lubricate the hair and skin.
- Sudden elevation of androgen level during puberty overstimulates the sebaceous glands. The pores of the skin narrow, and together with the excess oil, plug these openings.
- Result is a blackhead or whitehead.

2. Treatment

- frequent washing with medicated soaps

- keep hair and scalp clean to avoid oiliness and dandruff
- select hair styles that keep the hair well away from the face
- avoid creamy, greasy cosmetics and make-up preparations
- get plenty of sleep
- do not squeeze pimples
- limit foods such as chocolate, nuts, creams, fats, candy, cake, and pop

D. Facts About Skin

1. Skin is the body's largest and one of the most important organs, the skin performs many vital functions:
 - regulating body heat
 - relaying messages of temperature, touch, and pain, to and from the brain
 - excreting wastes

EVALUATION: Students will be evaluated by a question and answer session following the lesson on skin care.

STUDENT RESOURCES AND REFERENCES:

- Guest speaker- Skin care and make-up specialist
- Display of various types of make-up
- Samples- Make-up for all students
- Posters
 - "What Skin Does--What Skin Needs"- Noxell Corporation, Baltimore, Maryland, 1974.
 - "The Honest Way To a Beautiful Complexion"- Bonne Bell, Lakewood, Ohio
- Handouts
 - "Let's Talk Skin"- Noxell Corporation, Baltimore, Maryland, 1973.

- "Open Your Eyes to Beautiful Color"- Maybelline.
- "Baby Yourself"- The Beauty and Health Institute, New York, 1972.
- "You're Beautiful"- Johnson and Johnson, New Brunswick, New Jersey, 1974.
- "That Special Something"- Avon Cosmetics, New York.
- "A Mirror Is a Girl's Best Friend"- Helena Rubinstein, New York.
- "Bonne Bell Guide"- Bonne Bell Products, Lakewood, Ohio.
- "A Girl's Guide to Good Make'up"- Avon Cosmetics, New York, 1964.
- "Sophie's Beauty Guide"- Bonne Bell Cosmetics, Lakewood, Ohio.
- "Total Beauty Care"- Noxell Corporation, Baltimore, Maryland, 1973.
- "Personal Care Procedures and Products"- Proctor and Gamble, Cincinnati, Ohio.
- "Dry and Oily Skin Analysis- How To Recognize Dry and Oily Skin"- Mary Kay Cosmetics.
- "You Should Know About Acne"- Policano-Rothholz, Inc., Westwood Pharmaceuticals, Inc., Buffalo, New York, 1975.

TEACHER RESOURCES AND REFERENCES:

Textbooks

- Craig, Hazel T. Clothing--A Comprehensive Study. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1968, 195-197, 202.
- Vanderhoff, Margil. Clothes: A Part of Your World. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1970, 44-45.
- Whitcomb, Helen, and Cochran, L. Charm for Miss Teen. St. Louis: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969, 18-33.
- Whitcomb, Helen, and Lang, Rosalind. Charm. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971.

Filmstrip

"You Should Know About Acne"- Policano-Rothholz, Inc., Westwood
Pharmaceuticals, Buffalo, New York, 1975.

LESSON 4: Proper Diet or Out of Fuel? or Eat the Right Foods.

CONCEPT: For optimum health and well-being a proper diet is very
essential.

OBJECTIVES: Students will be able to:

- Identify the basic four food groups and list the number of serv-
ings that should be eaten daily.
- Plan menus with five types of contrast.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES:

- View filmstrip- Mix and Match for Good Meals
- Identify foods from the basic four food groups
- Discuss the foods in terms of the mix for variety in color,
flavor, texture, shape, and temperature.
- Measure height then compare height and weight to chart- Height/
weight Guidelines
- Read handout- Proper Diet, Proper Rest, Exercise, Drink Enough
Water, Proper Elimination, and Cleanliness
- Read handout- Caution: Wide Load and Out of Fuel? Fill Up With
Breakfast
- Answer questions on Weight Control- Fact or Fiction?

CONTENT OR BASIC LEARNING:

A. Menu Planning (Filmstrip - Mix and Match for Good Meals)

1. Mix foods for contrast in
 - color
 - flavor

- texture

- shape (form)

- temperature

2. To meet daily food needs, food should supply:

- protein for growth, maintenance and repair of the body

- minerals and vitamins for growth and to keep the body running smoothly

- fat and carbohydrates to furnish energy

B. Basic Four Food Group

1. Foods which are the chief sources of the nutrients needed daily have been classified in these four broad groups:

- milk group

- meat group

- vegetable-fruit group

- bread-cereal group

2. Meat group foods are:

- lean meats (beef, veal, lamb, pork); variety meats such as liver, heart, tongue; fish and shellfish; poultry;

- meat alternates- dry beans and peas; nuts and peanut butter; eggs

- two or more servings are needed daily

- foods from this group are important sources of protein, B-vitamins, fat and minerals- to aid growth- build blood- build and repair body tissues- help maintain the nervous system.

3. Vegetable-fruit group should include one serving daily of a citrus fruit or other vitamin C rich sources and one serving

at least every other day of a dark green or deep yellow vegetable or yellow fruit.

-Four or more servings from this group should be eaten daily.

-Foods from this group are sources of the vitamins and minerals needed for growth, health, and fitness- they are sources of energy- and provide bulk in the diet.

4. Bread-cereal group includes the various grains and grain products

-Four or more servings from this group should be eaten daily.

-Foods from this group are sources of starch to furnish energy- they provide B-vitamins, protein, and minerals.

5. The milk group includes cheese, whole and skim milk, cottage cheese, ice cream, custards, puddings, and other dairy products.

-Teenagers need four or more cups of milk daily.

-Milk is our best food source of calcium, which helps to build strong bones and teeth in growing children and helps to keep the bones of adults strong. Milk also provides high quality protein, vitamins, and many other nutrients needed by the body. Milk supplies a greater variety of the many nutrients needed daily than any other food.

6. Match foods to meet daily food needs.

EVALUATION: Students will be evaluated by their answers to the quiz- Weight Control- Fact or Fiction? Students will also be asked to identify the basic four food groups and state the number of servings needed from each group daily.

STUDENT RESOURCES AND REFERENCES:

Handouts

"Caution Wide Load," Berdie W. Cannon, R. D., Nutrition Action Committee, California School Food Service Association in Cooperation with the Cling Peach Advisory Board.

"Out of Fuel? Fill up with a Good Breakfast," Nutrition Action Committee, California School Food Service Association in Cooperation with the Cling Peach Advisory Board.

"Proper Diet, Proper Rest, Exercise, Drink Enough Water, Proper Elimination, and Cleanliness," Proctor and Gamble Personal Grooming Unit, Visual 2b.

"Height-Weight Guidelines," United States Department of Agriculture.

Quiz- Weight Control- Fact or Fiction?

Poster

Fight Fat, Miles Laboratories, Inc., 1973.

TEACHER RESOURCES AND REFERENCES:

Filmstrip

Mix and Match for Good Meals

Handouts

"How Do You Score on Nutrition?" Vitamin Information Bureau, Inc., New York.

"Can Food Make the Difference?" American Medical Association, Chicago, Illinois, 1974.

"Feeding the Teen Machine," General Mills Consumer Center and Nutrition Department, 1974.

Poster

"Shape Up at the President's Table," Sophie Porter, California Raisin Advisory Board, Fresno, California.

LESSON 5: Care of the Hands- Beauty At Your Fingertips or Lovely Hands

CONCEPT: Your hands--their grooming and their grace--add greatly to your total image.

OBJECTIVES: Students will be able to:

- Demonstrate correct manicuring techniques.
- State the importance of hand grooming for job appeal.
- Identify three rules for career success.
- Identify at least three requirements for an attractive appearance.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES:

- Manicure demonstration by local beautician.
- Demonstration on the correct method of removing nail polish.
- Demonstration on the correct use of the emery board.
- Demonstration on the use of a nail brush.
- Demonstration on the application of a base coat and nail polish.
- View filmstrip- Careers Ahead - New Opportunities and Choices
- Demonstration on the use of the orangewood stick.
- Each student will practice doing a manicure following demonstrations.

CONTENT OR BASIC LEARNING:

Presentation by guest speaker

A. Hand Care

1. Manicure

- Remove old polish with cotton balls or cotton-tipped sticks dipped in polish remover.

- Shape nails with emery board from beneath the nail in one direction towards center. Loosen nail dirt with cotton-wrapped stick dipped in warm, soapy water.
- Massage cuticle with cream, then push back with cotton-wrapped, blunt edge of a wooden stick dipped in cuticle remover. Never use sharp objects to push back cuticle.
- Wash hands. Examine for rough spots or calluses.
- Begin the base coat with a protenized conditioner or nail hardener for fragile nails. Let dry.
- Brush on two thin coats of polish five minutes apart. Use three strokes: down the center of your nail first, then down each side.
- Brush a colorless sealing coat on nail and under tip.
- Whisk off extra polish around cuticle area with cotton moistened with remover.

B. Careers Ahead- filmstrip content

1. Career Success

- Advanced technology has opened doors for women in all fields.
- Today there are no barriers to career opportunities, for laws forbid discrimination of any type.
- Women are more educated than ever before causing an increased presence of women in the working world.
- Reliable rules for career success are:
 - (a) An attractive appearance
 - (b) The right career choice
 - (c) Good preparation

2. Attractive Appearance

- Good health. Outdoor exercise, well chosen meals and enough sleep.
- A good complexion begins with clean skin. Wash face at least twice a day with a mild soap or a reliable facial cleanser.
- Try products especially formulated for oily skin or blemishes.
- Clean, shining hair. Shampoo at least once a week, and brush well everyday.

3. Hands

- Hands help to create an important impression. Well-groomed hands give extra confidence.
- A good lotion helps to restore natural moisture, it softens rough skin.
- Include clean, well-shaped nails. Add a light coat of a neutral polish.
- Clean and well-cared for face, hands, hair, and clothes clean and pressed.

4. Career Choices

- Match abilities and interests with career requirements and opportunities.
- Get to know yourself.
- Select careers from those growing in opportunity
 - (a) white-collar
 - (b) professional
 - (c) technical
 - (d) service workers
- Check the school library and public library for books,

- pamphlets, and filmstrips about careers.
- Write to companies and industry, trade, and professional associations for free literature.
 - Talk to people working in the field, teachers, counselors, parents, and friends.
 - Get good preparation in high school
 - Fields for career girls with only high school diplomas
 - (a) data processing
 - (b) the travel industry
 - (c) banking
 - (d) secretarial work

EVALUATION: Students will be evaluated on their performance of a manicure and also by answering questions following the filmstrip.

STUDENT RESOURCES AND REFERENCES:

Handout

"Bonne Bell Beauty Guide," Bonne Bell Products, Lakewood, Ohio.

"Manicuring"

Samples

Emery boards for all students

TEACHER RESOURCES AND REFERENCES:

Textbooks

Craig, Hazel T. Clothing--A Comprehensive Study. Philadelphia:

J. B. Lippincott Company, 1968, 201-202.

Whitcomb, Helen, and Cochran, L. Charm for Miss Teen. St. Louis:

McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969, 43-50.

Whitcomb, Helen, and Lang, Rosalind. Charm. New York: McGraw-

Hill Book Company, 1971, 111-117.

Filmstrip

"Careers Ahead- New Opportunities and Choices," The Andrew Jergens Company, Audio-Visual Service, New York.

Magazines

Co-Ed. "How To Save Your Fingernails," (February), 1974, 60.

"The Fine Art of Finger Painting," (February), 1974, 61. Midge Turk Richardson, Editor, New York.

Evaluation for Filmstrip- Careers Ahead

After the filmstrip, the following questions were answered and then discussed.

1. Why do women have a better chance today to follow the career of their choice?
2. What are the three reliable rules for career success?
3. Why are the good-grooming habits you develop now an important part of preparing for a career?
4. Discuss some of the requirements for an attractive appearance.
5. What has the grooming of your hands to do with your job appeal?
6. How does a good lotion work in keeping the hands soft and smooth?
7. To help make a wise career choice, what are some of the questions you should ask yourself?
8. Discuss some of the fields expected to be in great demand during the next ten years.
9. What are some of the ways you can find out about careers that interest you?
10. Why is it good to make some kind of decision about a career while you are still in school?

11. What are some of the career fields open to high school graduates who do not plan to go on to college?

LESSON 6: Posture and Modeling--A Graceful You or Put Your Best Foot Forward

CONCEPT: Regular exercise and a constant awareness of posture and poise contribute toward physical attractiveness. Correct posture and good health enhance appearance.

OBJECTIVES: Students will be able to:

- State the value of a complete exercise program
- Identify and demonstrate various exercises
- Demonstrate how to apply a simple posture formula
- Demonstrate how to pivot and turn correctly
- Demonstrate the techniques of walking, standing, and sitting properly
- Demonstrate how to get in and out of a car correctly

LEARNING ACTIVITIES:

- View posters of "grace in motion" to introduce lesson
- Practice pivoting with pivot charts
- "Sit and Stand Tall--What Does It Mean to You?"
- Posture demonstrations, with good and bad examples worked out by students themselves. Teams of students will be assigned to present examples of posture in typical situations--walking (carrying books); sitting at a desk, table, typewriter; standing to give a talk; standing while waiting for someone; walking up and down stairs.
- Practice graceful methods of getting in and out of a car.

-Practice walking, standing, and sitting with music.

-Demonstrate and practice various exercises.

CONTENT OR BASIC LEARNING:

A. Posture

1. Standing

-Stand with head high, chest out, shoulders relaxed, hips tucked in and under, abdomen as flat as possible, knees slightly flexed and not locked, and feet pointed straight ahead.

-To check your standing posture, stand in front of a mirror, the three heavy sections of the body--head, chest section, and hip section--should be balanced one over the other.

2. Walking

-Don't lead with the chin. Walk smooth and easy, keep your knees easy and your toes straight ahead. Let your thigh lead in walking.

3. Sitting

-Do sit in line from hips to head. For proper sitting, the same rule applies with the head, chest, and hip sections--good alignment, one directly over the other. Keep knees together and feet as close together as possible. When sitting at a desk writing, bend from the hips rather than from the waist.

-Points to remember when sitting

(a) graceful carriage

(b) erect posture

(c) knees together

(d) ankles crossed

-Don't break in the middle when sitting or bending. In sitting down or getting up from a chair, put one foot behind the other and raise or lower yourself easily. In picking up something off the floor, kneel rather than bend over. In getting in or out of a car, sit on the edge of the seat and swing your leg into the car.

B. Exercises

1. Jumping Jacks

- Stand with feet together.
- Jump to a wide stride and swing arms sideward and upward, clapping hands over head.
- Jump to a feet-together position with arms at the sides.
- Repeat in quick rhythm 20 times.

2. The Bobber

- Stand with feet apart.
- Keeping knees straight, relax forward from the hips, and let arms hang loosely.
- Bounce easily eight times toward the floor.
- Return to starting position and repeat.

3. Windmill

- Stand in straddle position, arms extended sideward to shoulder level, palms down.
- Twist and bend at waist, bringing right hand to left toe.
- Keep arms and legs straight.
- Remain in same position (head in fixed spot) and touch the left hand to the right toe.

4. Airlift

- Extend arms sideward at shoulder level.
- With palms up, thumbs back, circle arms upward and backward, gradually increasing the size of the circle each time until almost touching ears and the upper part of thighs.
- Do 20 times.
- Repeat 20 more times going upward and forward.
- Adding a book adds even more weight to firm up arms.

5. The Hand Press

- Stand with palms touching and elbows at shoulder height.
- Press palms together hard.
- Hold for the count of ten and relax.
- Do this four times.

C. Modeling

1. Pivot

- Place the left foot straight ahead, the right foot should be at the instep of the left foot. Take a step with the right foot (always lead off with the foot which is in front) and turn on the balls of feet towards the left. Take a step, then return to the modeling stance.

EVALUATION: Students will be evaluated by their participation in the various activities.

STUDENT RESOURCES AND REFERENCES:

Transparencies

"Good Posture--Poor Posture," Whitcomb, Helen, and Lang, Rosalind,

Charm, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971.

"Posture Check Points," 3M Company, 1967.

"Graceful Carriage--Erect Posture," 3M Company, 1967.

"Knees Together Ankles Crossed," 3M Company, 1967.

"Control Weight for Health and Appearance," 3M Company, 1967.

"Your Body Needs Food," 3M Company, 1967.

"Gaining Weight Fast," 3M Company, 1967.

Posters

"How Do You Walk," "How Do You Sit," "How Do You Stand," "Horrible Habits,"- National Dairy Council, Chicago, Illinois.

Handout

Bonne Bell Beauty Guide- Bonne Bell Products

TEACHER RESOURCES AND REFERENCES:

Textbooks

Craig, Hazel T. Clothing--A Comprehensive Study, Philadelphia:

J. B. Lippincott Company, 1968, 194-195.

Vanderhoff, Margil. Clothes: A Part of Your World, Boston:

Ginn and Company, 1970, 33-39.

Booklet

"Diet and Exercises"- Bonne Bell Cosmetics, Lakewood, Ohio.

Leaflet

"Be a Model Everyday"- Simplicity Pattern Company.

"Girls Your Appearance Counts"- Circular E-793, Janelle Allison,

Oklahoma State University Extension Service, 1967.

Handout

Health and Your Figure- Oklahoma Home Economics Core Curriculum

Magazine

Woman's Day, Weston, Elizabeth, "101 Ways to Lose Weight and Stay Healthy," 1, 1973.

Woman's Day, (February), 1975, 58-59.

LESSON 7: Care of Clothing or TLC for Clothes (Tender Loving Care for Clothes)

CONCEPT: Care of clothes is essential for the girl who wants to have a good appearance. Proper care of a garment is often dependent upon the knowledge and skill of the owner and the availability of reliable facilities for cleaning the garment. Good personal habits in the daily and occasional care of clothing can save money and simplify good grooming.

OBJECTIVES: Students will be able to:

- List the eight basic steps to good laundering
- Identify clothes to be sorted by color, construction, type of fabric, amount of soil, and size or bulk of the item
- Identify the steps to prepare clothes for washing

LEARNING ACTIVITIES:

- List on worksheet, garments usually worn in a given week, such as blouses, blue jeans, underwear, pajamas, and nylon hose.
- List on paper the eight basic steps to good laundering
- Identify from pictures the process to prepare clothes for washing

CONTENT OR BASIC LEARNING:

A. Sorting

1. Why Sort Clothes?

- The purpose of sorting clothes is to separate items which could in some way damage other garments. In the process of sorting, combine items of similar color, construction, and

amount of soil into loads of a size that is suitable for the washer method used.

2. Guidelines for Sorting

-Color

- (a) Make separate loads for white; pastels and light prints; medium and bright colors. Any dyed item that bleeds should be washed alone or only with like colors.

-Type of Fabric

- (b) Fabrics that require special care (loose knits, very sheer or delicate items, woolens) should be separated from the regular family wash loads. Fabrics that shed a lot of lint should be washed alone.

-Garment Construction

- (c) Garments that fray easily at the seams (even sturdy items such as skirts or slip covers may do this) or garments that are poorly constructed will need gentle care and should be separated from other more durable items.

-Amount and Kind of Soil

- (d) Heavily soiled things should be separated from the rest of the wash to prevent transfer of soil in the wash water.

-Size of Item

- (e) Heavy, bulky items like blankets, bedspreads, slip covers, etc., should be washed alone.

3. Before or during the sorting, prepare clothes for washing

(Handout)

-Check all pockets for forgotten items

-Remove heavy buckles, ornate buttons

- Close and fasten zippers
- Repair pulled out seams, tears, weak spots in fabric
- Pretreat items as needed

4. Basic Steps to Good Laundering

-Good laundry procedures are essential for keeping clothes looking their best. A little extra time and care during washing will not only keep garments looking new longer, but also extend their wear life.

- (a) sort carefully
- (b) pretreat stains and heavily soiled areas before washing
- (c) use correct wash temperature
- (d) use right kind and amount of washing products
- (e) know your washer and how to use it
- (f) use correct washing action
- (g) rinse items thoroughly
- (h) dry clothes properly

EVALUATION: Students will be evaluated by the answers they give on the worksheets--"Steps to Good Laundering," "Which Item Doesn't Belong in This Load?", and "Preparing Laundry."

STUDENT RESOURCES AND REFERENCES:

Handouts

"Lots About Laundering - The Clothes We Wear," Proctor and Gamble Educational Services, Cincinnati, Ohio.

"The Laundry Book," Consumer Service Institute, Calgon Consumer Products Company, Inc., Pittsburg, Pennsylvania.

"What Do We Wash," "Which Item Doesn't Belong in This Load,"

"Eight Basic Steps to Good Laundering," "Preparing Laundry,"

Proctor and Gamble Educational Services, Cincinnati, Ohio.

TEACHER RESOURCES AND REFERENCES:

Textbooks

Craig, Hazel T. Clothing--A Comprehensive Study. Philadelphia:
J. B. Lippincott Company, 1968, 273-286.

Teaching Unit

"Lots About Laundering," Proctor and Gamble, Educational Services,
Cincinnati, Ohio.

LESSON 8: Selection of Ready-Made Clothing or Be a Fashion Winner

CONCEPT: Skills in clothing selection, alterations, construction and
care can decrease clothing costs and increase clothing satisfaction.

OBJECTIVES: Students will be able to:

- List at least five Do's and Don'ts of Buying.
- Identify specific figure problems and indicate how to hide these figure problems by using optical illusions.
- Identify various styles or fashions for spring and fall.
- Define the differences between a fashion loser and a fashion winner.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES:

- Read and discuss handout on figure types--too short, too tall, too heavy, too thin
- Read and discuss handout on The Do's and Don'ts of Buying
- View current patterns for figure types and styles
- View filmstrip--Options in Fashion and the Fashion Game
- View Chart--Anyone can look better by selecting the right styles.

Each student will define their own figure problems and locate them on the chart. Then use optical illusion to emphasize good points and hide bad ones.

CONTENT OR BASIC LEARNING:

A. Figure Problems

1. Thick waist

- Avoid belts, natural waistlines, any dress that clings, or anything that cinches at the waist.
- Do choose long waisted, easy fitting dresses; A-line styles; long semi-fitted jackets; long tunic tops with pants; belts at the hip.

2. Broad shoulders

- Avoid wide dolman sleeves; leg-of-mutton sleeves; extended shoulder lines; exaggeratedly bare necklines; halter or widely curved ones.
- Choose V necklines; any soft natural shoulder lines; vertical collar lines.

3. Wide hips

- Avoid constricting figure styles that hug the hips; skimpy tops; box pleats.
- Choose A-line gored or soft gathered skirt; easy-fitting tunic tops over pants or skirts; more bulk at the top to balance out figure.

4. Heavy calves

- Avoid hem interest--border prints; heavy-textured stockings; high thin heels. Choose easy-fitting pants; tunit tops; deep toned stockings; skirt lengths at the knee or ankle.

5. Heavy thighs
 - Avoid tight, clingy pants and dresses; jackets, sweaters or any top that ends at the broadest part of the thigh.
 - Choose A-line skirts or any silhouette that doesn't hug the hips; split front skirts and dresses; good fitting pants, soft gathered or draped skirts; knife pleats.
 6. Large bust
 - Avoid empire waistlines; bolero jackets; surplus closings; wide collars with bows; clingy tops.
 - Choose A-line silhouettes; cardigan jackets; shirtwaist dresses with easy-fitting tops; shawl and convertible collars.
- B. Filmstrip--Options in Fashion (Spring, 1975)
- Exercise personal taste by the way pants and tops are put together.
 - One of the cleverest ways to get fashion options is through coordinates. Select the exact items wanted, or buy several and put them together in any number of ways.
 - When putting together a coordinated wardrobe, it is best to start with the most expensive item and build around it.
 - Another option open to the coordinate wardrobe builder is that of pants or a skirt.
 - Every wardrobe needs outwear.
 - To make a wardrobe really exciting--a selection of colorful accessories helps.
 - Fashion ideas for the spring include: pants and tops, shorts, denim fabric, longer length skirts (flared and gored), the touch of lace and ruffles, high-heeled toeless sandals, sweaters, sweatshirts, the Big Top, T-dresses, jacket dresses, and sunback

dresses.

-Other fashions include calico and chintz prints, belted jackets, bikinis with cover-ups, rope-soled espadrilles, fabric bags, plastic bracelets, chunky beads, hats, and shorter hair-dos.

C. Filmstrip--The Fashion Game

-A fashion loser is a girl who isn't sure of herself. She wears the wrong thing at the wrong time and is self-conscious about her appearance. She sometimes uses fashion to show the world how unworthy she feels she is.

-A fashion winner is sure of herself. She is aware of what's "in" and she is not afraid to reject it when it isn't right for her. She makes the appropriate response to the season and to the occasion. She enjoys fashion and uses it to enhance her enjoyment of life.

-Use color coordination.

-Sweater dress with the layer look.

-One of the best ways to achieve a multiple wardrobe is to buy coordinate pieces.

-Good looks for the fall include: belted wrap sweaters, matching vest, figurative vest, heavy fisherman sweaters, V-neck cardigans, sweat shirt toppers, embroidered pullovers, hooded sweatshirts, zip-up sweatshirts, knit sweater dresses, dresses with more than one look, knee-length skirts, blue jeans, Western look, print and lace overblouses, knit vests over a shirt, menswear look, and bow blouses. In addition, fake leathers, classic leathers such as the leather trench or belted suede jacket, denim outerwear, fake furs, bright or patterned knit hat and scarves, pea jacket, Big Tops

such as capes, coats, or jackets, tuxedo coats, and slinky dresses with the look of the 40's, evening pajamas. and

-Use natural looking make-up that emphasizes the clean healthy look and keep the hair shining and simple.

EVALUATION: Students will be evaluated by their responses on a written quiz following the learning activities.

STUDENT RESOURCES AND REFERENCES:

Handouts

The Do's and Don'ts of Buying

Figure Problems

Pattern Envelopes

TEACHER RESOURCES AND REFERENCES:

Filmstrips

"Options in Fashion" and "The Fashion Game"--Sears, Roebuck, and Company, Chicago, Illinois, 1975.

Textbooks

Vanderhoff, Margil. Clothes: A Part of Your World. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1970, 52-73, 82-90.

Whitcomb, Helen, and Cochran, L. Charm for Miss Teen. St. Louis: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969.

APPENDIX B

COOPERSMITH SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY

COOPERSMITH SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY

DIRECTIONS: Please mark each statement in the following way: If the statement describes how you usually feel, place an X in the parentheses next to the statement "Like Me." If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, place an X in the parentheses next to the statement "Unlike Me." There are no right or wrong answers.

	Like Me	Unlike Me
EXAMPLE: I'm a hard worker	()	()
1. I spend a lot of time daydreaming	()	()
2. I'm pretty sure of myself	()	()
3. I often wish I were someone else	()	()
4. Every time I plan to do something (make a plan) something goes wrong	()	()
5. I'm easy to like	()	()
6. My parents and I have a lot of fun together	()	()
7. I wish I were younger	()	()
8. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could	()	()
9. I can make up my mind without too much trouble	()	()
10. I'm a lot of fun to be with	()	()
11. I get upset easily at home	()	()
12. Luck decides most things that happen to me	()	()
13. Someone always has to tell me what to do	()	()
14. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new	()	()
15. I'm often sorry for the things I do	()	()
16. I'm popular with people my own age	()	()
17. My parents usually consider my feelings	()	()
18. I don't stick up for myself very much	()	()
19. I can usually take care of myself	()	()

	Like Me	Unlike Me
20. I'm pretty happy	()	()
21. If I work hard, I can be what I want to be	()	()
22. My parents expect too much of me	()	()
23. I would rather associate with people younger than I	()	()
24. I understand myself	()	()
25. It's pretty tough to be me	()	()
26. Things are all mixed up in my life	()	()
27. If I stick to something long enough, I can make it work	()	()
28. No one pays much attention to me at home	()	()
29. If I work hard, I can get a good job	()	()
30. I can make up my mind and stick to it	()	()
31. I have a low opinion of myself	()	()
32. I don't like to be with other people	()	()
33. I often feel ashamed of myself	()	()
34. I'm not as nice looking as most people	()	()
35. If I have something to say, I usually say it	()	()
36. People pick on me very often	()	()
37. My parents understand me	()	()
38. There isn't much of a chance for a person like me to succeed in life	()	()
39. I get upset easily when I'm scolded	()	()
40. I don't care what happens to me	()	()
41. Most people are better liked than I am	()	()
42. I usually feel as though my parents are pushing me	()	()
43. If I work at something long enough, I will succeed	()	()

	Like Me	Unlike Me
44. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class . .	()	()
45. I'm proud of my school work	()	()
46. I'm doing the best work I can	()	()
47. I like to be called on in class	()	()
48. I wish I could do much better in school	()	()
49. I often feel upset in school	()	()
50. My teacher(s) make(s) me feel I'm not good enough . .	()	()
51. I often get discouraged in school	()	()
52. I'm pleased with my appearance	()	()

APPENDIX C
INTEREST QUESTIONNAIRE FOR
FASHION THERAPY PROGRAM

GET INTO GOOD GROOMING--HAVE MORE FUN!

Are you interested in improving your looks? Would you like to learn about applying make-up, how to walk, sit, and stand correctly, or how to care for your hair?

If you are interested, come to the first get together Wednesday, October 8, in the Whitaker Home Economics room at 4:00 p.m.

Each week we will cover one of the following topics:

1. Care of the hair
2. Care of the skin and use of make-up
3. Care of the hands and fingernails
4. Care of the teeth
5. Selecting the proper diet
6. Posture, modeling, and exercises
7. Selection of clothing
8. Care of clothing

The teacher for these charm sessions will be Miss Joyce Thomas. Guest speakers, films, and field trips will be included at each of the sessions.

Don't miss out on the fun! Fill out this blank and return it to your house parent.

Name _____

Age _____ Cottage _____

APPENDIX D

RAW SCORES FOR SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY OF CONTROL
AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS OF INSTITUTIONALIZED
ADOLESCENT GIRLS

RAW SCORES FOR SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY OF CONTROL
GROUP OF INSTITUTIONALIZED
ADOLESCENT GIRLS

Subject No.	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Differences
39	42	49	7
28	22	29	7
30	32	37	5
21	40	44	4
27	33	36	3
38	9	11	2
25	27	28	1
31	44	45	1
24	48	48	0
37	31	31	0
34	32	30	-2
36	31	28	-3
40	19	16	-3
22	40	36	-4
32	35	30	-5
23	32	22	-10

RAW SCORES FOR SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY OF
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP OF
INSTITUTIONALIZED
ADOLESCENT GIRLS

Subject No.	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Differences
7	19	38	19
13	31	45	14
3	22	32	10
15	19	27	8
2	40	48	8
19	29	36	7
14	25	31	6
16	30	32	2
20	31	32	1
5	35	36	1
17	24	24	0
10	33	31	-2
18	17	14	-3
12	33	29	-4
11	22	16	-6
8	33	26	-7
4	31	22	-9

APPENDIX E

SELECTED COMMENTS OF STUDENTS REGARDING
THE FASHION THERAPY PROGRAM

SELECTED COMMENTS OF STUDENTS REGARDING
THE FASHION THERAPY PROGRAM

The following comments were made by students who participated in the fashion therapy program.

- The class was super nice.
- You've really helped me a lot.
- I'm smart now as long as it's got something to do with clothes, make-up, or hair styles, but I'm not smart in school.
- I have a better personality now.
- You helped me very much.
- I feel good about myself lately.
- I learned how to put make-up on evenly.
- I learned how to have better posture.
- I had a lot of fun.
- When are we going to have another grooming class?
- The class has helped me to change my looks.
- I've been able to control my eating by eating sensible foods.
- You really did help me at those grooming classes.
- The class really helped me with my problems.

VITA

Joyce Elaine Thomas

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: EFFECT OF A FASHION THERAPY PROGRAM ON THE SELF-CONCEPT OF
INSTITUTIONALIZED ADOLESCENT GIRLS

Major Field: Clothing, Textiles and Merchandising

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Caney, Kansas, November 11, 1951, the
daughter of Mr. and Mrs. Lloyd Dean Thomas.

Education: Graduated from Copan High School, Copan, Oklahoma in
May, 1969; received Bachelor of Science degree in Home
Economics Education from Oklahoma State University in 1973;
completed requirements for the Master of Science degree at
Oklahoma State University in July, 1976.

Professional Experience: Vocational Home Economics Teacher, Pryor
Senior High, Pryor, Oklahoma, 1973-1976.

Professional Organizations and Honors: American Home Economics
Association, Oklahoma Home Economics Association, Phi Kappa
Phi, Omicron Nu Honor Society, Oklahoma Vocational Associa-
tion, Phi Upsilon Omicron, Kappa Delta Pi, American Voca-
tional Association, Oklahoma Education Association,
President Beta Epsilon Conclave of Kappa Kappa Iota, National
Education Association, and Business and Professional Women.