

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY TO EVALUATE THE EFFECT OF THE
TEACHING OF PERSONAL APPEARANCE, ON THE
SELF-CONCEPT OF THE HIGH SCHOOL
GIRL AS MEASURED BY THE
TENNESSEE DEPARTMENT
OF MENTAL HEALTH
SELF-CONCEPT
SCALE

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Our democratic philosophy of education includes the belief that every person should receive the best preparation for life that he is capable of receiving and that he should have the opportunity to develop to the limit of his possibilities.

Personal appearance is one facet of each person's life which has a great influence on how he is accepted by other people and on how he feels about himself. It is an accepted truism that personal appearance reflects what a person is. Because of this, it is a generally accepted standard for the initial judgment made about a person. Actors in the theatre and movies quickly convey to the audience the characters they are playing, not only by their acting, but by the skillful knowledge of wardrobe and makeup designers.

The whole fabric of fairy tales of the Western civilization is based on the assumption that Cinderella becomes a fit companion for a prince when she changes from rags to finery. Home economics teachers, although not subscribing to the fairy tale myth, still believe wholeheartedly in the importance of appearance as it influences both oneself and others. Teachers in general are in the teaching profession because of a strong feeling of social service. Homemaking teachers have this desire to help girls they teach in all areas, so it is a natural consequence that helping girls improve in personal appearance is one of

the areas stressed. Because of its importance, it would seem that helping students achieve a pleasing appearance is one of the main responsibilities of those guiding her education.

Contributions Home Economics Has to Offer

Almost every phase of homemaking studied relates in a direct or indirect way to improving one's appearance. In clothing units teachers stress the proper clothes to wear for different occasions and how to plan and coordinate a suitable wardrobe for the student's particular life. Related arts units are used to teach the principles of art as they relate to proportion, emphasis, balance, rhythm, and unity in the design of clothing and in choosing and combining colors. By combining the study of these principles with the history of design and the study of current fashion trends, help is given to the student for choosing clothes which are becoming and in good taste, without being dated or out-of-style. In construction units, the girls use these principles to select material and pattern which are suitable and appropriate to each other, to the girl, and to the occasion, and then to construct the garment as quickly, easily, and skillfully as possible. Classwork goes further to teach the student to accessorize the garment and then to care for it to insure the best wearing quality. Modelling in a style show on the completion of the garment helps the student to learn grace and poise in appearing in public and in the use of her body.

The high school girl studies food and nutrition and learns how to choose an interesting, varied diet which will keep her vitality and energy high and provide the necessary nutrients for radiant health. She also learns the caloric value of food and the importance of

maintaining a good weight in relation to her height and bone structure both for health and aesthetic reasons.

The teacher includes units on grooming and health to teach cleanliness, hair styling and make-up, care of the skin, hair, teeth, feet, and correct posture in repose and in movement.

In studying the use of time and money and in budgeting of income, the student should learn that attractive appearance should be achieved without a disproportionate share of either going to personal appearance.

In the light of the opportunities offered by instruction in homemaking, in addition to all the student can learn from her family, magazines, television, advertising, displays and demonstrations in stores, and from girl friends, it would seem that every high school homemaking girl should be a model of attractive femininity. Knowing that people are judged by the way they look and being especially self-centered at this age, it might be expected that every student would have a great desire to present an attractive personal appearance to the world. Observation of students' interest and preoccupation with looks and clothes further substantiates this.

Yet casual observation reveals that the personal appearance of many students is not nearly as attractive as it could be. Even as teachers stress areas which may help students make improvement, they realize there may be factors at work which they do not fully understand. Girls themselves might offer such excuses as lack of money, lack of time, being born with less than beautiful physical attributes, and similar reasons, yet these rationalizations have not prevented others from making the most of themselves and presenting attractive personal appearances.

The Psychology of Personal Appearance

For the purpose of this study, personal appearance is defined as the total outward aspect of an individual, including size, posture, clothing, grooming, stylishness, appropriateness, and color harmony. In thinking of why girls often do not make the most of their appearances, one of the factors which must become suspect is the psychology of the way a girl feels about herself. This factor will be dealt with in detail in this study. It is a realm which is often not apparent on the surface--which may be hidden under layers of reserve and deception. There is a scarcity of research in this field, insofar as the writer was able to discover, but a few glimmers may be found which may be partial explanations.

As stated by Elliot¹ in her master's thesis, G. Stanley Hall studied the relationship between clothes and the sense of self as early as 1898. He developed a questionnaire on clothing which was answered by 500 adults about the reactions of children in their charge to clothing. Hall believed that clothing played an important part in developing the concept of self.

Nearly forty years ago in the Journal of Home Economics, Morton quoted the following incident:

Margaret Story writes of an experiment tried out in one of our city slums. A ragged, dirty child from the street was taken to a welfare home. She was scrubbed, shampooed, and dressed in clean, attractive clothes. The transformation was startling. She was changed almost

¹Willetta Marie Elliot, "An Identification of Some of the Expressed Attitudes Relating to Clothing of a Selected Group of High School Girls in Home Economics," (unpub. thesis, Oklahoma State University, 1961), pp. 7-8.

immediately from a listless, broken-spirited child to a self-respecting and well-mannered little lady.²

Stepat of Hunter College made an intensive study of clothing and appearance as they relate to personality in college girls.³ She found that those with problems concerning their appearance had health problems, maladjustment, limited interests and activities. On the other hand, those who were generally well-adjusted, bright, alert and happy seemed to have fewer appearance problems.

A study of junior and senior high school girls shows that there is a relationship between personal appearance and the degree of social acceptance in the peer group. This may have been because a good personal appearance contributed to self-assurance with resulting social acceptability or it may indicate that girls with strong social interest tend to adopt a standard of dress and grooming which meets peer approval.⁴

Along this same line and perhaps in more direct connection, Ryan found:

that if the college freshman girl feels well dressed, she thinks she is apt to be more talkative, peppier, and can enter more into the activities at hand and feel part of the group. If she feels poorly dressed she thinks that she is quieter, self-conscious, that she tries to keep away from the center of activity

²Grace M. Morton, "The Psychology of Dress," Journal of Home Economics, Vol. 18, October, 1926, p. 585.

³Dorothy Stepat quoted in Marion Ross, "Is Your PAQ Plus?" American Vocational Journal, Vol. 33, December, 1958, pp. 20-22.

⁴Kenneth L. Cannon, Ruth Staples, and Irene Carl, "Personal Appearance As A Factor in Social Acceptance," Journal of Home Economics, Vol. 44, November, 1952, pp. 710-713.

and may feel a spectator and not a part of the group.⁵

If we presuppose that girls in college who select home economics as a major are more interested in personal appearance than the average, then the conclusion in Logan's study that home economics subjects tend to hold a positive self-concept is significant.⁶

Rogers says as the perception of self alters, behavior alters.⁷ The present study was based on the premise that the opposite might also be true: as behavior alters, the perception of self alters.

Carroll found the subject resists change when threatened, so a home that gives warmth and understanding allows the child to change more readily.⁸ Other factors which might influence the subject to change or resist change are the following:

Even though the self is subject to change as it adjusts to environmental pressures, it is at the same time striving to maintain itself. There is a marked consistency in the behavior of individuals. This is true even though the person sees himself as inferior. He resists anything which is incompatible with his own set of evaluations.⁹

⁵M. S. Ryan, "Effect on College Girl of Feeling Well Dressed," Journal of Home Economics, Vol. 43, December, 1951, p. 799.

⁶Nell P. Logan, "Personality Correlates of Undergraduates Selecting Home Economics As An Area of Specialization in College," Journal of Home Economics, Vol. 53, March, 1961, pp. 232-233.

⁷C. R. Rogers, Counseling and Psychotherapy, p. 350, as quoted in Bonner, Hubert, Social Psychology, New York: American Book Company, 1953, Ch. 5, pp. 112-144.

⁸Herbert A. Carroll, Mental Hygiene, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959, p. 81.

⁹Ibid.

The child is likely to resist anything that is inconsistent with his own evaluation of himself.¹⁰

Any type of achievement, if acknowledged by others, raises one's feelings of self-importance and adequacy.¹¹

There may be other factors which affect a person's personal appearance.

In the Psychology of Clothes, J. C. Flugel explains what the difference in attitude regarding clothes might be by dividing people into nine types, which may have roots in physiological as well as psychological implications.¹² The first two are types who dislike clothes, the third is indifferent, the next two have an inhibitory reaction, the next three groups receive conscious satisfaction from clothes, and the last is a small group in which the author has observed only men. These attitudes may overlap in persons, but they are described as follows:

Rebellious type---This person gets little positive satisfaction from clothes and has never become fully resigned to the necessity of wearing them. He feels that clothes restrict and imprison, and wears the thinnest and lightest, or none at all. These characteristics are usually found:

- a. Strongly developed skin and muscle erotism,

¹⁰Arthur T. Jersild, Child Psychology, "Selfhood and Social Relationships," New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1933, Ch. 6, p. 180.

¹¹Justin Pikunas and Eugene Albrecht, Psychology of Human Development, "Personality Reorganization," New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961, Ch. 15, p. 185.

¹²J. C. Flugel, The Psychology of Clothes, "Individual Differences," London: Hogarth Press, 1950, Ch. 6, pp. 85-102.

which is unfavorable to the development of clothes interest.

b. Relatively little pleasure in decoration. Such a person will tend to be indifferently or carelessly dressed; comfort is of far more importance than appearance.

c. Relatively little modesty. He tends to regard modesty as an external, conventional matter and has little shame about exposure of the body or wearing shabby, "incorrect", or unconventional garments.

Resigned type--This person has much the same general make-up as the rebellious type, except that the habits and conventions of wearing clothes have become sufficiently strong enough to make it seem impossible to gratify the desire to throw off his clothes. There is little conscious satisfaction in clothes; modesty, decoration, and protection make little appeal. Inhibitions occurred early in life and now work at a relatively unconscious level.

Unemotional type--The lack of strong conscious affect of any kind is carried a step further. The whole emotional life of clothes seems reduced to a minimum. Clothes are chosen, put on and off, worn and discarded, with little satisfaction, but also with little annoyance, worry, or discomfort. The whole clothes-life has been mechanized. As with the resigned type, everything is a matter of course, but there is no sign of their underlying discontent. He neither struggles for freedom which is the goal of the

rebellious, nor longs for it as does the resigned; but at the same time has little need for--or satisfaction in-- clothing, as do the later types. Decoration does not appeal to him (though he is often neat and tidy in appearance), while modesty and protection are taken for granted. He does not spend much consideration on clothing, but will dress quickly and efficiently in order to pass on to matters of greater importance.

Prudish type--The triumph of modesty definitely conquers exhibitionistic tendencies for this group. The thought of exposing their bodies is embarrassing or disgusting and they strongly disapprove of exposure by others. Sometimes this disapproval is rationalized as aesthetic abhorrence, hygienic disapproval, extravagance, or over-elaboration of costume.

Duty type--Certain features of the costume have become symbols of work and duty. This type exhibits a reaction directed against all manifestations of "softness" or "self-indulgence". He is apt to draw sharp distinction between clothes worn for work and less severe clothes for rest and recreation.

Protected type--Needs warm clothing to combat a very general tendency to chilliness. Protection is all-important. The imagined need for warmth may be rationalized by modesty or may be due to the psychological need for love. This type seems to have feeble development of the auto-erotic skin and muscle elements.

Supported type--These feel pleurably strengthened and supported by their clothes, especially tight or stiff clothes. They do show appreciation of the narcissistic or auto-erotic elements.

Sublimated type--Attained through the sublimation of the narcissistic element from body to clothes. This type fuses clothes and body into a harmonious unity and is most fully capable of the satisfaction sartorial display can give. If the person has aesthetic capacity, the most satisfactory development of clothes is possible. It could lead to an excessive interest in clothes which limits time and energy available for other things. In a man a high degree of narcissism is usually correlated with some degree of sexual abnormality. Society expects and tolerates a higher degree of narcissism in women.

Self-satisfied type--These have something in common with the unemotional and sublimated types, but exhibit rather irritating smugness and self-complacency which are not found elsewhere. Dresses efficiently and becomingly, and cannot understand why others do not also. This group consists only of men, in the author's experience.

Still another reason for the fact that women present far different pictures is the want-satisfaction type theory of Anspach.¹³

¹³Karlyne Anspach, "Clothing Selection and the Mobility Concept," Journal of Home Economics, Vol. 53, June 1961, pp. 428-430.

According to her, women fall into these three classifications:

Type I: Chic.

This person likes fashion and change. She has a spirit of competition, and keeping abreast of current mode is more important to her than true art.

Type II: Use.

To this person, the long wear, comfort, and satisfaction a garment gives is most important. Clothes are selected which are classic in design and so do not go out of style rapidly and also which may be worn in most places by most people.

Type III: Self-expression.

This person is free of the dictates of others and uses imagination and initiative to express herself.

If she has real artistic sense, her dress may reach a highly creative form, and she may become one whom fashion itself imitates.

Women in the middle level of society, whose standards most nearly represent society as a whole, are concerned with respectability or conformity. The woman in this group may have limited imaginative resources, a restricted and repressed emotional life, and low spontaneity. She will emphasize the use concept and select clothing which will give the greatest satisfaction and most wear and so be less conscious of artistic self-expression or reflecting a fashionable appearance.

In an article in Vogue, Haynes, who was assisted by psychologist,

Dr. Arthur Weider, states:

The cultivation of beauty....is considered a sign of health....The ability to look one's best proves these normal characteristics: that a woman is flexible (she likes to change with her times and her environment); that she is realistic (she knows the true value of her looks, and will find the means to enhance them); that she likes to please people with whom she lives and works (for attractiveness is pleasant and polite)....

....The psychologist knows that the way a woman presents herself visually is the Code-book which can reveal the secret of her specific, sub-conscious elaboration....The stubbornly tasteless, graceless, unattractive woman is, usually....using an unconscious pseudo-aggressive and defensive attack on the enshrined mother image. Often she felt herself unloved as a child.¹⁴

The foregoing discussion of the psychology of personal appearance gives several clues, but no final answers, as to why high school girls may not make the most of their personal appearances. Since the psychology involved seems to revolve around the girl's opinion of herself, the self-concept should be considered in detail next.

The Self-Concept

Through most of the discussions or studies involving personal appearance runs the thread of what the person thinks of himself. Here the realm of the self-concept may be explored.

Socrates, who died in 399 B.C., said, "Know thyself," and knowing oneself has continued to be of primary importance. As Bonner reports:

In the early development of psychology the concept of self was of critical importance. Then in the second and third decades of this century the behaviorism of John B. Watson (1913) dominated psychology as a science

¹⁴Evelyn Haynes, "What Your Looks Reveal About You," Vogue, Vol. 131, April 15, 1958, pp. 90-92.

of "animal" behavior and therefore the self was a "mentalistic" concept too "subjective" for scientific consideration.

Since about 1930, interest has once more been focused on the subject of self; and today it is not only respected in psychological circles but has become a problem of fundamental, theoretical, and practical importance. Although a number of forces have been at work in reviving interest in the concept of self, considerable credit for it belongs to two Gestalt psychologists, Koffka and Lewin, and to Allport, Sherif, and Cantril. The views of these scientists pervade our analysis of the self.¹⁵

For the purposes of this study, self-concept is defined as the person as known to himself. It is a composite picture of what he has learned about himself through all the experiences he has had, through the roles he is called on to play, and through what others think of him reflected back into his thinking about himself. The self-concept is commonly divided into the self-image, the ideal self, and the reality-self.

The self comes into being gradually, beginning in infancy, as there is interaction with others. Bonner quotes Lewin as believing that the child's "I" is not formed earlier than the second or third year.¹⁶ He himself estimates that the basic design of a child's self is fairly well established by the age of six years.

The self-concept is learned. This is a fact of great importance to the individual and to those persons who are responsible for his development during the early years of his life when the foundations of his self-structure are being laid. Everything that one knows about one's self comes from experience, with social experience being of major importance. During

¹⁵Hubert Bonner, Social Psychology, "The Self and Its Involvements," Ch. 5, p. 112. New York: American Book Company, 1953.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 114.

infancy these social experiences are largely confined within the limits of the family circle.¹⁷

As time goes on the child becomes more and more conscious of the appraisals made of him by others and his concept of his self in turn becomes a reflection of these appraisals.¹⁸

Characteristics of the Self-Concept

Some studies about the stability of the self-concept and some related areas might be reviewed briefly.

A Japanese study in grades 2, 4, and 6 shows that the self-concept does become more stable and more objective with an increase in age.¹⁹

Carroll says, "There is no point in an individual's life when the self-concept becomes completely established in the sense that it is no longer subject to change. Actually it is continuously being modified as the result of constant interaction with the environment. These changes are much less during adult years than they are during childhood."²⁰

In her dissertation, Engel refers to a large number of other studies of the self-concept.²¹ Concerning the beginning of the self

¹⁷ Carroll, p. 80.

¹⁸ Carroll, p. 81.

¹⁹ Abstract 2763, Psychological Abstracts, Vol. 34, 1960, p. 269.

²⁰ Carroll, p. 81.

²¹ Mary Engel, "The Stability of the Self-Concept in Adolescence," (unpub. Ph.D. dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1956, pp. 4-121.

she quotes Hollingworth as stating that "...the self is.... very gradually evolved from nebulous beginnings in earliest childhood. By the end of adolescence it is shaped into the essentials of its lifelong pattern, selected, determined, or as we may say, found."

Engel states that Taylor studied the stability of the self-concept in college students and adults without any therapeutic intervention and concluded that the self-concept remains relatively stable over time intervals ranging up to almost a year. But on the other hand, she affirms that many studies do show fluctuation or inconsistency in the self-concept. She further says:

Erikson, Piaget, Freud, and Sullivan and others who saw adolescence in a pessimistic light implied that the self-concept is in a state of flux during adolescence....Extrapolation from the basic views of these writers would lead us to believe that there is little predictability in the self-concept of adolescents. Balester, in reviewing the literature on the issue of adolescent consistency and self-concept changes, summarized: 'It appears from the standpoint of theory, that there is considerable agreement that the self-concept of the non-adult lacks consistency.'

Engels theorized from studies by Tryon, Mathews, and Kuhlen which showed greater adjustment problems in girls than in boys, that there might also be a difference in the stability of the self-concept between the sexes, with girls being less stable than boys. Also she related that Chodorkoff found that the better adjusted an individual was, the more accurate was his self-description. She herself also concluded that there seems to be a high degree of relationship between the positive self-concept and good adjustment.

Engels describes research done at the Counseling Center of the University of Chicago. It was found that clients coming to the Center for counseling presented a much more negative picture of themselves

on Q-sorts than did control subjects. After therapy there was a tendency to describe themselves more positively. Other studies she quoted which also found that after therapy subjects showed an improvement toward the ideal self-concept were those of Dymond and of Butler and Heigh. She states that Calvin, Holzman, and Wayne concluded that the tendency to see the self in a positive light is inversely related to maladjustment.

In a study by Brandt, "Intelligence was found to be related to the accuracy of self-estimate" and "self-rating accuracy tends to increase over the developmental span of the subjects" (from the sixth to the eleventh grade).²²

McCandless says, "Those with good self-concepts seem more honest with themselves than people with poor self-concepts and appear to be less defensive."²³

According to Cowen there seems to be a high positive correlation between self-concept and social desirability.²⁴ But Smith gave "further support,...to findings that show poor correspondence between

²²Richard M. Brandt, The accuracy of self estimate: A measure of self-concept reality. *Genet. Psychol. Monogr.* 1958. 58:55-99. (Psychological Abstracts. Vol. 34, No. 1, Abstract 1006, p. 97.)

²³Boyd R. McCandless, Children and Adolescents, Ch. 6, "The Self-Concept," New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961, p. 180.

²⁴Emory I. Cowen and Phoebus N. Tongas, The social desirability of trait descriptive terms: Applications to a self-concept inventory. J. Consult. Psychol., August, 1959, pp. 361-365.

....self-concept and external criteria of adjustment."²⁵ Brandt found that "performance ability was only slightly related to the accuracy of self-estimate."²⁶

Summary

Homemaking teachers, with a strong drive toward social service, would like to help their students become as attractive as they possibly can. They believe that this is one factor in implementing the broader goal of helping every student in a democracy to develop to the limits of his potentialities, and that the homemaking curriculum is ideally suited to achieving this goal.

Students, in spite of an apparent eagerness to be attractive and in spite of the help available to assist them, in many cases do not achieve this goal. Reasons for the disparity may be examined. Obvious explanations such as unattractive features, money, time, and ignorance are not always the plausible reasons. In delving into further possibilities, the psychology of the way a person feels about himself (the self-concept) and the psychology of personal appearance seem to hold clues to the puzzle.

Studies of the psychology of personal appearance do not really answer the question, either, though they are in agreement that a person does reveal much of himself in his appearance. Studies also

²⁵ Philip A. Smith, System Development Corp., Santa Monica, Calif. A factor analytic study of the self-concept. J. Consult. Psychol., April, 1960, Vol. 24, p. 191.

²⁶ Brandt, p. 97.

indicate that there may be some physiological reasons underlying these differences in people's psychological attitude toward appearance. Unattractive appearance may be a deliberate attack on the enshrined mother image. Other psychological factors may underlie the image one presents to the world, but the writer found comparatively little research in this area.

Since the area of personal appearance is so closely related to the way a person feels about himself--his self-concept--then the way the self-concept is formed, when it is formed, how stable it is, how it related to other traits such as adjustment, intelligence, defensiveness, and social desirability, all become of interest to those studying in this field.

If a person's personal appearance could be changed to become more attractive, perhaps her self-concept would also become more positive, possibly in direct proportion to the improvement in her personal appearance. Since the self-image factor is only one part of the self-concept, there would be the possibility that the social factors and the sense of self-worth and achievement might outweigh it and so prevent changes in appearance from actually changing the whole self-concept score to an extensive degree.

CHAPTER II

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Purposes

The purposes of the study were (1) to determine if improvements are made by students in their personal appearance during a school year when emphasis is placed on this as a part of the home economics curriculum for the year, and (2) whether as personal appearance improves, the self-concept will become more positive.

It was planned to include a year's course of study which emphasized personal appearance. Measurements at the first of the year and again at the last of the year were to be made to see whether actual improvement was achieved. Measurements of the self-concept at the first and last of the year would also show whether the two were in direct ratio.

Hypotheses

1. Personal appearance of students will be improved when emphasis is placed on this area as a phase of the total homemaking curriculum.
2. As personal appearance improves, the self-concept becomes more positive.
3. Natural maturation may bring a more positive self-concept.

4. There may be different amounts of change in self-concept at different ages.

Limitations of Study

Subjects used for the study were the homemaking pupils of the writer of Erick High School in grades 9, 10, 11, and 12. Control subjects were to be secured from a school which was as similar as possible, except that it would be one in which homemaking was not a part of the curriculum. In this way it was hoped that comparison of the results of tests given the two groups would give support to some of the hypotheses.

Data were limited to the results of two tests. One was a personal appearance rating scale which gave a score showing the girl's comparative degree of attractiveness. The other was the Tennessee Department of Mental Health Self-Concept Rating Scale.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE

As previously stated the purposes of this study were to determine if students would improve their personal appearances when personal appearance was stressed in the homemaking curriculum, and if so whether the self-concept would also improve. The procedure included locating personal appearance and self-concept scales, locating a control school, testing, teaching for improved personal appearance, and retesting.

Developing Personal Appearance Scale

In making this exploratory study, an instrument was needed which would give a comparative rating of the subjects' personal appearance. Only a few personal appearance rating scales were found. One of these was the "Rating Scale for Personal Appearance" by Lillian Navratil, Regina Friant, and Rosalie Rathbone, published by Chas. A. Bennett Co., Inc. (undated).

In addition, a lengthy rating scale was fabricated by the writer using all the items which she found on personal appearance in texts and magazine articles. A third scale was made by shortening the above to a more brief form.

These scales were labeled A, B, and C. All three were first given to the writer's high school daughter and some revision made on her suggestion. Then mimeographed copies were prepared and were given by

the homemaking teacher of Sayre (Oklahoma) High School to one of her classes. The comments of her pupils and her suggestions were helpful in the decision to use Form A.

Location of Self-Concept Scales

In seeking for a self-concept scale to use in this study, the writer went to the Mental Measurements Yearbook by Oscar Krisen Buros. (Highland Park, New Jersey: The Gryphon Press. 1959). While there were no tests labeled as self-concept measures, several were personality and character inventories or questionnaires which seemed to be possibilities and so were selected as possible tests to use. Other tests on file in the Education Office of Oklahoma State University, plus additional ones suggested by Dr. Hazel Ingersoll and Dr. Harry K. Brobst were added. Another source to learn of studies made in the field of self-concept was Children and Adolescents by Boyd R. McCandless (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston. 1961).

Next, recent volumes of Psychological Abstracts were searched for studies involving self-concept. The list from these was then looked up in the magazines in which the studies were originally published. Main sources were the Journal of Educational Psychology, Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology and the Journal of Consulting Psychology. If the instrument listed in the study was a published one, a copy was obtained. If the instrument listed was not a published one, the researcher was contacted to learn if and where a copy could be obtained. Correspondence regarding tests was quite extensive, but the number of replies was encouraging and finally twenty or so tests were obtained. Several of these were not suitable to the present study,

but perhaps eight of them seemed to be possibilities.

Selection of Type of Self-Concept Scale

Several types of tests to measure the self-concept and other psychological personality factors are used, so it was first necessary to decide what type would be best in the present study.

The R-technique was the one in general use until recent years and is still championed by many statisticians and psychologists. This method is rooted in the study of individual differences and the use of large numbers of cases as a basis for generalizations against which a particular person can be compared. Statistical techniques of factor analysis of man's abilities, personality, and attitudes have been felt to be the most scientific way to study such concepts as the self-concept. But some criticism is made because no one knows when to stop factoring or how to estimate factors. The meaning of any particular factor is derived from norms for a large number of subjects, against which a particular subject's score may be compared. In this method a large number of people are given a small number of tests.

A newer method is the Q-technique, championed by William Stephenson, which makes possible factor studies on a single or a few individuals. In this method a small number of people are given a large number of tests or many responses. Persons are correlated instead of tests. Quoting from Stephenson,

Cicero, a very long time ago (106-43 B.C.) provided us with a text of concern to us in these chapters. He distinguished between five areas of interest to students of human conduct--there are, he said,

- a. What you think of yourself.
- b. What others think of you.
- c. The part or role you play in life.

d. A special selfhood is sometimes reached. Of great distinction and dignity perhaps, that may characterize a person and lift him above the common mass of a, b, or c.

e. There is a vast assemblage of personal qualities that constitute a man's capabilities or potentialities, which, as Cicero put it, 'fit a man for his work.'²⁷

The concern of R-methodology is "e". The concern of Q-methodology is "a-d".

In Q-technique the subject is given a set of statements, each statement being typed on a separate card, which he must then sort into a given number of piles, usually eleven. The subject places the cards into the eleven piles, with those statements most like him at one end and those least like him at the opposite end, and the others arranged between according to the degree of likeness or unlikeness. The cards are sorted in a forced number arrangement, with the fewest at each extreme and progressively increasing in number toward the center, so that the experimenter controls the frequency distribution.

A variation of this technique is a paper and pencil form. This is used for large groups or where the administrator cannot give his whole attention to each subject. The results from the two methods of Q-sorts are very close.

Some psychologists claim that R and Q-techniques are interchangeable, but Stephenson challenges this. He believes the R-technique is not valid because (1) every person does not even possess every factor being tested and (2) even if they do they may not possess the factor for the same reason. On the other hand, many R psychologists trust only motor behavior, not subjective verbal reactions, from which

²⁷William Stephenson, The Study of Behavior, Q-Technique and Its Methodology. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1953, p. 242.

to infer what the subject really is like.

Testing may also be divided into projective and non-projective types. The exponents of projective testing feel that subjects will not reveal themselves in response to direct questioning, but will give themselves away indirectly in giving responses to an objective situation.

In refuting this method, Moustakas says:

In spite of all the advances in tests and measurements and in analyzing human behavior, understanding the person from his own point of view, in the light of his own unique experience, is the most real way of knowing him. More and more we are realizing that the self-expression of the individual in true experience is complete in itself. To see the person as he sees himself is the deepest way to know and respect him.²⁸

In discussing projective testing, Allport cites studies to show that for normal subjects this method does present a complete picture and also does not present a different one from non-projective tests.²⁹ He tells of wartime research done on 36 conscientious objectors who lived for six months on a semi-starvation diet, yet on five projective tests the food drive did not come through. Other studies on hunger yield supporting evidence. He also reports that J. W. Getzels used two forms of statement completion, alike except one was in the third person and one in the first person. To a high degree the well-adjusted subjects gave identical responses. The psychoneurotic subjects varied their

²⁸ Clark E. Moustakas, Ed., The Self, Explorations in Personal Growth, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1956, Ch. 1, "True Experience and the Self," p. 4.

²⁹ Ibid. "The Trend in Motivational Theory," by Gordon W. Allport, Ch. 3, pp. 29-30.

responses, giving conventionally correct responses in the first person completions. As Allport summarizes:

Thus the direct responses of the psychoneurotic cannot be taken at their face value. The defenses are high, the true motives are hidden and are betrayed only by a projective technique. The normal subjects, on the other hand, tell you by the direct method precisely what they tell you by the projective method. They are all of a piece. You may therefore take their motivational statements at their face value, for even if you probe you will not find anything substantially different.

It is not the well-integrated subject, aware of his motivations, who reveals himself in projective testing. It is rather the neurotic personality, whose facade belies the repressed fears and hostilities within. Such a subject is caught off guard by projective devices; but the well-adjusted subject gives no significantly different responses.³⁰

The whole field of types of tests and arguments for and against them is a fascinating one. Although there are others which are not discussed here, these have been the most widely used.

Psychologists themselves do not agree which method is best to measure what a person thinks of himself, but because the writer has little training in psychological testing, it was felt wise to use an R-type test in which scoring could be done by an untrained person and the scores compared with norms established for the test. This does not mean that she feels the R-technique to be either the only or the superior method. It means only that it was the type which she felt qualified to administer.

Description of the TDMH Self-Concept Scale

After studying the collected tests, the Tennessee Department of

³⁰Ibid, p. 4.

Mental Health Self-Concept Scale (TDMH Self-Concept Scale) was decided on, and permission to use it obtained from William H. Fitts, Ph.D., Chief Clinical Psychologist with the Nashville Mental Health Center, Nashville, Tennessee.

The TDMH Self-Concept Scale was developed as an attempt to construct a scale to measure self-concept which would be simple enough in wording and mechanics to be taken by any literate person, short enough to be taken in a few minutes, and yet subject to detailed analysis.³¹

The scale was developed in the way which is typical for such a scale. First a large pool of self-descriptive items was collected from a variety of sources. Tennessee psychologists were asked to collect statements from their clients which these persons used in describing themselves. To these were added items from the self-concept scales developed by others for use in research studies. Other items were added from the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), from recorded therapy sessions, and from phrases commonly used in everyday language.

The items were then arranged in a two-dimensional profile of categories by seven judges who were psychologists and/or students of the self-theory. Study of the items showed that most of the statements were statements of what the person is (Abstract-description), how the person feels about himself as he perceives himself (Self-satisfaction), or what he does (Functioning or Behavior).

In addition to this dimension of variation, the same statements

³¹ Preliminary Manual for The Tennessee Department of Mental Health Self-Concept Scale, unpublished manuscript.

varied in another way. Some referred to the self in a physical sense, some were based on moral appraisals, some on a psychological basis, and some on social reference (which is further divided into the self in relation to one's family and the self in relation to other people in general).

Judges arranged the items so that each fell within one category in each dimension. The three categories of the first dimension and the five categories of the second dimension are arranged in a table of fifteen cells on the scoring sheet, with the scores of six statements in each cell.

There is a third dimension along which the statements vary, and this is the positive-negative continuum. This is actually the major dimension which this scale measures. A statement is considered positive if it is a "good" thing to say about oneself. It is considered negative if it is a "bad" thing to say about oneself. There are 45 positive statements and 45 negative statements in this test, on which the judges unanimously agreed in classifying in this way. The six statements in each cell of the score sheet consist of three positive and three negative statements.

The self-concept test cannot be scored for correctness of response because to see whether the self-concept matches reality, it would have to be known what the person actually is. To detect deception and so measure the accuracy of the self-concept, ten items from the MMPI are included which are supposed to check distortion and show to what extent the subject is trying to present himself in a favorable manner. These are all negative statements, but any person being entirely truthful would have to admit that they are true of

himself.

The group form, in which the statements appear in the form of a list, was used in this study. No time limit was given, but fifteen minutes is considered enough time for the test.

Because this scale is supposed to be a device to allow the subject to describe himself as he sees himself and also to simplify the task as much as possible, the subject is not restricted to a forced number of choices, but must respond to every item and is allowed to distribute them among the five response categories at will. Response categories are: Completely True (5 points), Mostly True (4 points), Partly True and Partly False (3 points), Mostly False (2 points), and Completely False (1 point). The category points have been assigned arbitrarily to add to the convenience of scoring.

On such a test as this, the statistical mean for the total net positive scores should be 0, although the possible range is from -180 to + 180 and the probability of negative scores is as great as for positive scores. The actual mean for normal people has proved to be a positive 77.5. Norms for all the categories have been worked out, which was another advantage of this instrument for the writer.

It was expected that the divisions in the TDMH Scale might make it possible to study some factors in the self-concept more carefully. It was felt that some phases in the scale, such as the subject's beliefs about his physical characteristics might be more closely related to a change in personal appearance than some of the other phases.

Since many factors cannot be controlled, accurate measurement of the factor relating to the self-image may not be possible. The self-image is the factor which the writer hoped to improve most by teaching

personal appearance.

Location of Control Schools

Consultation was held with the Erick superintendent, Marvin L. Easley, about an available school to use as a control school. After looking in the Annual Bulletin for Elementary and Secondary Schools to find a school in the area which did not teach homemaking, two were located. These were Berlin High School and Reydon High School. Since both of these schools are quite small and the combined enrollment is less than that of Erick High School, it was decided to use both of them. This combined sample will be referred to in this study as "the control group" and the writer's students as "the experimental group."

Berlin is a consolidated school in a very small community about thirty miles northeast of Erick. The enrollment of girls in grades nine through twelve was approximately fifteen. The school is located in a fairly prosperous farming area and has had the benefit of some progressive school administrators. The girls have not had formal home-making classes recently, but their glee club teacher did work with them on matters of personal appearance. The high school is too small to qualify to receive state aid, except that it qualifies under the isolation clause and so continues in existence.

Berlin had no rule against the wearing of trousers. However, only one girl happened to be wearing them on testing days. She wore tailored wool slacks with a matching sweater-like top which made an attractive appearance. Several girls wore hose although not even one girl in either of the other schools did so. The length of their skirts was slightly longer on the average than in Erick, although not so long as

to appear old-fashioned.

Reydon High School is located in a small town thirty miles north of Erick, in a less prosperous farming area. There are approximately thirty girls in grades nine through twelve. Less attention was paid to personal appearance than in the other two schools. There was no rule against girls wearing trousers and quite a few wore them on both testing days. Those worn were of the blue jean type. One girl, who wore a dress, remarked that it was hard to remember to keep her feet down because she wore blue jeans so much. These girls, as well as those in Berlin, appeared friendly and well-behaved.

Erick itself is a community of about 1200 located on Highway 66 at the western border of Oklahoma. The Erick High School is an accredited member of the North Central Association. Included in the school regulations is a dress code. Among other rules, girls may not wear trousers to school.

All three schools are located in agriculture-centered communities. All three are small and homogeneous enough to have very little class distinction; none has a wealthy class, though few are really poor. All three are schools which have girls' basketball as a competitive sport, and everyone who has the native ability and coordination is expected to participate. Some of the most feminine and dainty girls are on the basketball team in each school.

The school superintendents of the control schools were consulted about taking part in this study and both were very cooperative. Neither informed the pupils of tests ahead of time. A woman teacher in each school, the English teacher in both cases, was assigned to assist. At the time of the fall tests, the girls were told that they

would be retested in the spring. No explanation was given as to why the tests were given, but it was stated that it was part of a thesis study in which three schools were taking part. Girls in both control schools were cordial and interested and cooperated willingly.

Administering of Tests

The first testing was done at the control schools on Wednesday, October 17, at Berlin in the morning and at Reydon in the afternoon. At Berlin all girls were gathered in the study hall. At Reydon the girls were divided into two groups and tested in consecutive class periods. Teacher rating was done by the writer in conjunction with the assisting English teacher. This took longer than for the girls to take the tests.

The tests were administered to the Erick girls the following day during their regular class periods. Teacher rating took somewhat longer.

Teaching for Personal Appearance Improvement

During the school year, between October 18 and May 1, personal appearance was given great stress in Erick homemaking classes. Each of the four classes had a unit on personal appearance, but personal appearance was also stressed in nearly every unit--clothing construction, related art, foods and nutrition. Several films on appearance were shown. Many more pupils than usual had Self-Improvement Home Projects. Magazine articles and newspaper stories on appearance were brought to the attention of the classes. As usual, appearance and modelling were stressed in connection with the annual style show.

Posture and proper weight for height were emphasized. High school pupils were invited and some attended an adult class in self-improvement which lasted ten weeks. The FHA sponsored a high school Self-Improvement Contest, which lasted one semester and was judged by a jury of three men and three women teachers. FHA also had two programs on appearance. One, which was featured as a "Charm Course," was given by a beauty operator. The other was a panel composed of senior girls, who gave an excellent program on their class work.

Every homemaking pupil was exposed to the idea of how important one's personal appearance is and of practical ways to make improvements. At the same time there was great stress on being as well as looking attractive. Much was said about an attractive personality, an interest in others, and a truly kind heart being the basis for an attractive appearance.

Retesting

The spring tests were scheduled as late as possible, but as one of the control schools was closing early, Tuesday, April 30, was the necessary date.

The assisting teachers were written ahead of time about the date the tests would be given. The girls at one school were not told. At the other school they were, but the wrong date was accidentally repeated, so this group was not expecting the writer on the actual date the retests were given.

Again Berlin girls were tested in the morning in one group in the study hall. Reydon girls were tested in the afternoon in one group in the study hall. Erick girls were again tested the following day during

their homemaking class periods. The Erick girls were not told what day they would be tested either in the fall or in the spring although they knew they were assisting on a thesis and cooperated willingly.

Summary

The reader will please note that the procedure was followed as planned. The writer's home economics students constituted the experimental group and students of two small nearby schools were used as the control group. To measure personal appearance a rating scale was developed by the writer. The Tennessee Department of Mental Health Self-Concept Scale was selected to measure self-concept. Both groups were tested in the fall, the experimental group was taught with emphasis on personal appearance improvement, and both groups were retested in the spring. The next section will be devoted to the findings.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF DATA

In order to determine if the findings supported the four hypotheses as stated in Chapter II, an analysis of findings related to each was compiled and studied.

Hypothesis 1. Personal appearance of students can be improved through the teaching of this phase as a part of the total homemaking curriculum.

An examination was made of the scores on the personal appearance scales of four Erick students. Those selected were representative of girls whom the writer had thought of as having outstandingly good appearance or markedly poor appearance. The scores were charted to show fall and spring ratings by the girl herself and fall and spring ratings by the writer, as shown in Table I.

It was apparent that the ratings made by the writer were often lower in the spring than in the fall. This was in direct opposition to the judgment of the writer, who felt that the girls had made definite improvement, even though it was not usually extensive. In examining the scores, it appeared that the writer, in making the Teacher-Ratings, had scored all students very high and there was less variation in scores from girl to girl than might have been expected from observing them. Thus it was felt that the ratings made by the

teacher were too generous and not discriminating.

TABLE I
TEACHER RATINGS OF PERSONAL APPEARANCE OF SELECTED SUBJECTS
FROM EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Student	Teacher-Rating		Student-Rating	
	Fall	Spring	Fall	Spring
E-41	4.97	4.89	4.24	3.99
E-5	5.00	4.86	4.15	3.09
E-42	4.51	4.47	3.68	4.40
E-56	4.54	4.22	3.99	3.29

One reason for these scoring results may have been due to weaknesses in the scale itself. In the first place, in giving "Poor," "Fair," and "Good" ratings without definite criteria to meet, the resulting score may have reflected how the rater felt, rather than how the girl looked. Consequently the subject would tend to receive a low score when the rater felt depressed or tired and a high score when she felt optimistic and cheerful. Also the instrument was so indefinite and so subjective that it was difficult to score precisely. This may or may not be inherent in this type of rating.

Another weakness, and an almost insurmountable failing, was that it was physically impossible to observe all the items on the scale as the subjects sat in the room in a group taking the tests and the items were so numerous that there were too many things to try to observe in the length of time available. The three-page rating scale--which could be filled out very quickly about herself by each girl taking the

tests--became a gargantuan task when it had to be filled in by one person for a group of girls in a short time. This lengthiness also was one reason that the scale did not vary more between girls with good personal appearance and those with poor personal appearance: there were seventy-five items on the scale, so even if a subject were obese (one item), had a blemished complexion (one item), and had poorly styled hair (one item), these did not bring her score down very much (three out of seventy-five items). Even on the revised and shortened Personal Appearance Scale it might be advisable to weigh some of the items more heavily than others.

Probably most of these mistakes go back to the fact that the scale was not pre-tested adequately. Originally three possible scales were tried out by a teacher in a neighboring town, but the writer herself did not rate a class until the actual testing was begun. A suggested revision appears in Appendix B, along with the original Personal Appearance Rating Scale, as the writer feels that a more sensitive instrument was needed. The revision has not been tested, but it was worked out with the help of the writer's daughter who was one of the subjects in this study.

The rating scale, as used, would probably have been more successful if used by a person who could have been more selectively critical. The writer felt she was a critical person, but in actuality the scores of all of the girls ran very high on the fall checking and showed slight differentiation between girls whose appearances were very good and those whose appearances were very poor. High ratings for the girls the writer taught might have been predicted, because knowing and liking them probably made her less critical and less objective. However, the

uncritical attitude seemed to carry over also to the girls from the control school, whom the writer either did not know at all or whom she had observed only as rivals of her own school on the basketball court. Consequently the conclusion must be drawn that the Teacher-Ratings were not discriminating.

After teaching this group all year stressing personal appearance, the teacher-rater may have become more discriminating in the spring, so that she tended to rate the girls lower than in the fall. Also those who did improve their appearances by spring may have already been rated so high according to their fall ratings that the spring ratings could not show the improved scores.

One possibility for improving ratings would have been to have established rater reliability ahead of time. This could have been done by having the writer and two other persons rate a group by the scale used in this study and then revising the scale until consistent ratings were obtained by different raters for the same subjects.

Another possible method was suggested by one of the sources contacted in locating a self-concept scale to use in this study. It was suggested that photographs of each of the girls--perhaps using a polaroid camera--be taken and that then a number of judges rate these photographs for attractiveness. The writer recognized that this might be a valid method, but because of the prohibitive expense involved it was not feasible in this study.

In view of these factors, the decision was made not to use the results of the personal appearance ratings made by the writer, but to use the self-ratings made by the girls themselves. Even the self ratings on the girls may not be entirely reliable. They seem to

reflect more about a girl's personality than her appearance, because many girls rated themselves high whose appearance actually was not too good and vice versa.

Two self-ratings on personal appearance are charted for the students in the study, as shown in Table II. One of these is their own ratings on the Personal Appearance Scale, shown as Student-Rated Personal Appearance Scores. The other was a one-word judgment of "Better," "Same," or "Worse" made by each girl about her own personal appearance at the end of the year. This one-word judgment was planned as a check to see whether the two scores on the rating scale were consistent with the student's general judgment as to the rating of her appearance.

TABLE II
COMPARISONS BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL SUBJECTS AND CONTROL SUBJECTS
OF STUDENT-RATED PERSONAL APPEARANCE SCORES AND
STUDENT-JUDGMENTS

Group	No. Students	Scores on P.A. Scale		Student-Judgments				
		Improved	Decreased	Better	Same	Worse		
Experimental Group (Erick)	48	26 54%	22 46%	33 69%	14 29%	1	2%	
Control Group (Berlin and Reyden)	37	15 41%	22 59%	22 59%	13 35%	2	5%	

Scores on the Personal Appearance Scale for the experimental subjects, as rated by themselves, were improved by 54%, but only 41% of the control group rated themselves improved, as shown in Table II. If

these figures only were considered they would seem to support the hypothesis that personal appearance of students can be improved by the teaching of this phase in the total homemaking program. However, other data should be considered before a definite judgment can be made.

Taking the experimental group as a whole, over two-thirds (69%) of the students on the overall judgment stated that they had improved their personal appearances, as against 54% who scored themselves as improved on the Personal Appearance Scales. Of the control group as a whole, 59% made the judgment that they had improved their personal appearances, as against less than half (41%) on the Personal Appearance Scores, as shown in Table II. Thus a larger portion of both groups seem to feel that their appearances had improved than is shown by their ratings on the Personal Appearance Scale. They may have become more critical of what indicates a pleasing personal appearance, so that a smaller percentage of their scores on the Personal Appearance Rating Scale showed improvement. Since the students in the control group had not had any special emphasis or instruction on personal appearance, the question may be raised as to whether girls may become more critical as they mature.

A higher percentage (69%) of the experimental students indicated by the Student-Judgments that their appearances had improved than did the control students (59%). This lends support to the theory that personal appearance of students can be improved by the teaching of it in the curriculum, but that natural maturation also plays some part.

Scores on the Personal Appearance Scale as rated by the experimental subjects themselves show that 54% had improved in personal appearance scores. Of this group of 26 students, 77% judged themselves

improved in appearance on a one-word judgment and 23% judged themselves the same. (Table III). None of these judged that their personal appearances looked worse. Even of those in the group who scored themselves lower on the Personal Appearance Scale, 59% felt they actually had improved in personal appearance, according to their one-word judgment of themselves. Thirty-six percent judged that they had stayed the same, and only 5% felt their appearances had become worse.

TABLE III
COMPARISON OF PERCENTAGES OF STUDENT-JUDGMENTS WITH THE
PERSONAL APPEARANCE SCORES

Group	No.	Percentage of Group	Student-Judgments		
			Better	Same	Worse
Experimental Group					
Improved P. A. Scores	26	54%	77%	23%	0%
Decreased P. A. Scores	22	46%	59%	36%	5%
Control Group					
Improved P. A. Scores	15	41%	60%	33%	7%
Decreased P. A. Scores	22	59%	59%	36%	5%

This may indicate that it was the actual judgment of the majority of the students that they had improved in personal appearance as the year progressed, but at the same time they became more critical as they

studied personal appearance, so the percentage of those improving on the Personal Appearance Rating Scale was much lower.

Examining the control group results, scores on the Personal Appearance Scale as rated by themselves show that 41% had improved in personal appearance. Of these only 60% judged themselves improved in a one-word judgment; 33% judged themselves as looking the same, and only 7% judged their appearances to be worse. Fewer control students judged themselves as improved compared with the experimental students, and yet this was still over half of the group. Of those who scored themselves lower on the Personal Appearance Scale, the percentages of one-word judgments were exactly like the experimental group--59% felt they actually improved, 36% felt that they had stayed the same, and 5% felt their appearances had become worse.

The evidence is not clear-cut as to whether the personal appearance of students can be improved through the teaching of this phase as a part of the total homemaking curriculum, because there is no objective evidence that a larger percent of the subjects who were taught about personal appearance improvement actually improved. Results do show that as they rated themselves, a larger percentage improved their appearances than did those who did not receive such instruction. There were also indications that such study also caused the experimental students to become more discriminating as the year progressed, so that their scores may not have reflected a true picture of the improvement. This would account for the fact that while many judged by a one-word description that they had improved, their scores on the rating scale were not higher in that proportion of cases.

Hypothesis 2. As personal appearance improves, the self-concept

becomes more positive.

Of the total forty-eight experimental subjects, twenty-six had an improved personal appearance score. Of these, 65% had an improved self-concept score, 8% remained the same, and 27% had a lower self-concept score, as shown in Table IV. Although twenty-two experimental subjects had a lower personal appearance score, 50% had an improved self-concept score, nonetheless; 14% had the same self-concept score, and only 36% had a lower self-concept score corresponding to the lower personal appearance score.

Of the total of thirty-seven control subjects, fifteen had an improved personal appearance score. Of these, 67% had an improved self-concept score, and 33% had a lower self-concept score. Although twenty-two of this group had a lower personal appearance score, 50% of these had an improved self-concept score and 50% had a lower self-concept score.

TABLE IV

COMPARISON OF CHANGES IN STUDENT-RATED PERSONAL APPEARANCE SCORES
WITH SELF-CONCEPT SCORES

Personal Appearance Scores	No.	Self-Concept Scores					
		Higher		Same		Lower	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Improved							
Experimental	26	17	65%	2	8%	7	27%
Control	15	10	67%	0	0	5	33%
Lower							
Experimental	22	11	50%	3	14%	8	36%
Control	22	11	50%	0	0	11	50%

Of the subjects in each group whose personal appearance scores improved, the percentages of those whose self-concept scores also improved was very similar--65% in the experimental sample and 67% in the control group. Of the subjects in each group whose personal appearance scores became lower, the percentages of those whose self-concept scores improved nonetheless was identical--50% for both groups.

Both groups who had improved Personal Appearance Scores had larger percentages of subjects with higher Self-Concept Scores than did those who had lower Personal Appearance Scores. However, the writer would hesitate to state that the hypothesis was supported, without further statistical analysis, based on additional data.

Hypothesis 3. Natural maturation may bring a more positive self-concept.

As previously cited, 54% of the experimental group made improvement in personal appearance scores as against 41% of the control group (Table II.) Of the experimental group 58% scored a more positive self-concept and 57% of the control group did so also, as shown in Table V.

TABLE V

COMPARISON OF SELF-CONCEPT SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS AS MEASURED BY THE TDMH SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

Group	Improved		Same		Regressed	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Experimental	28	58%	5	10%	15	31%
Control	21	57%	0	0	16	43%

The percentage of girls in the two groups who improved in self-concept scores was very near the same, even though personal appearance scores were not close. This lends support to the hypothesis that natural maturation alone may bring improved self-concept. However, the small sampling in these two groups may not be representative and further testing with additional groups would need to be done to substantiate this.

Of those who did not improve in self-concept, 10% of the experimental group retained the same score and the scores of 31% became lower. The scores of 43% of the control group became lower. Since the percentage of the control group who regressed on Self-Concept Scores was larger than the experimental group, there is possible indication toward the support of the hypothesis that as personal appearance improves, the self-concept becomes more positive. To explore this further, comparisons of the self-concept scores for the two groups were made.

First, a distribution of the experimental and control subjects according to the total pretest scores on the TDMH Self-Concept Scale was made, as shown in Table VI.

Chi-square analysis of these data indicated that the two groups were not significantly different. This indicated the need of selecting matched groups for further analysis.

From the total group of subjects, thirty matched pairs were selected on the basis of the total pretest scores for the Self-Concept Scale. The Wilcoxin matched-pairs signed-ranks test was then used in an analysis of the changes in the scores of the two groups from pretest

to retest.³² This analysis indicated there was no significant difference between changes occurring in the experimental group and those occurring in the control group. ($z = .129$; $p = .8966$.)

TABLE VI
DISTRIBUTION OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL SUBJECTS ACCORDING TO
PRETEST SCORES ON TDMH SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

Range of Scores	Experimental Group	Control Group	Total
70 and Above	15	12	27
40-69	11	18	29
39 and Below	22	7	29
Total	48	37	85

$$\chi^2 = 8.499; p < .02.$$

The physical section of the TDMH Self-Concept Scale was expected to show the closest relationship to the improvement in personal appearance. So from the total group of subjects, thirty-seven matched pairs were selected on the basis of the physical pretest scores for the Self-Concept Scale. The Wilcoxin matched-pairs signed-ranks test was then used in an analysis of the changes in the scores of the two groups from pretest to retest. This analysis indicated there was no significant difference between changes occurring in the experimental group and those occurring in the control group. ($z = .05$; $p = .9602$.)

Since there was no significant difference in the changes in the

³²Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1956, pp. 75-83.

scores of the two groups from pretest to retest for either the total Self-Concept Scale or the physical section of the Self-Concept Scale, there was no indication that the self-concept of the experimental group was influenced by the teaching emphasis on personal appearance improvement.

Hypothesis 4. There may be a different amount of change in the self-concept at different ages.

Dividing the experimental subjects into two groups according to grade level, as shown in Table VII, the freshman-sophomore group contained 37% who improved in self-concept. In the junior-senior group, 86% achieved a more positive self-concept. In the control group, the freshman-sophomore group contained 67% who had a more positive self-concept. Of the junior-senior group 44% achieved a more positive self-concept.

At the time this study was undertaken, the writer planned to observe the difference in degree of change in the self-concept between the two different class groups being tested--the freshman-sophomores and the junior-seniors. Since different studies mentioned the stability of the self-concept, particularly as the individual became older, she believed there would not be very much change in the self-concepts of either of the groups, with perhaps more change in the younger group and less in the older. To her surprise, results showed less change in the freshman-sophomore group and more in the junior-senior group of the experimental subjects.

After the testing for this study had been done, she found one of

Engel's findings was that:

The positive self-concept scores increased significantly between 1954 and 1956 for tenth-twelfth grade subjects, an increase which could not be attributed entirely to the effects of regression, suggesting that there may be an increase of positiveness of the self-concept with age, at this level of development.³³

This supports the findings of the writer in regard to the students in the experimental group, but conflicts with the results obtained with the control group.

TABLE VII
SELF-CONCEPT CHANGE COMPARED BY CLASS GROUPS

Group	Freshmen-Sophomores						Junior-Seniors							
	Impr.		Same		Decr.		Impr.		Same		Decr.			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Experimental	27	10	37%	4	15%	13	48%	21	18	86%	1	5%	2	9%
Control	21	14	67%	0	0	7	33%	16	7	44%	0	0	9	56%

Comparing the number of students in each class group from the experimental and control groups whose personal appearance scores improved or worsened shows very close results. Of the experimental group whose personal appearance scores improved, 50% were in the freshman-sophomore group and 50% were in the junior-senior group. In the control group, 47% were in the freshman-sophomore group and 53% were in the junior-senior group, as shown in Table VIII.

In the experimental group, of those whose personal appearance

³³Engels, p. 121.

scores became lower, 64% were in the freshman-sophomore group and 36% were in the junior-senior group. In the control group, the percentages were identical with the experimental group--64% were in the freshman-sophomore group and 36% were in the junior-senior group.

TABLE VIII

COMPARISON BY AGE GROUPS OF STUDENT-RATINGS OF PERSONAL APPEARANCE

Personal Appearance Scores	Experimental					Control				
	Freshman- Sophomore			Junior- Senior		Freshman- Sophomore			Junior- Senior	
	No.	No.	%	No.	%	No.	No.	%	No.	%
Improved P. A. Scores	26	13	50%	13	50%	15	7	47%	8	53%
Lowered P. A. Scores	22	14	64%	8	36%	22	14	64%	8	36%

Among the experimental freshman-sophomores with improved personal appearance scores, 38% had a higher self-concept score, 15% retained the same self-concept score, and 46% had a lower self-concept score. In the junior-senior group, 92% had a higher self-concept score, and 8% had a lower self-concept score (Table IX.)

In the control group, among the freshman-sophomores with improved personal appearance scores, 86% had a higher self-concept score and 14% had a lower self-concept score. In the junior-senior group, 50% had improved self-concept scores and 50% had lower self-concept scores.

Of those with lower personal appearance scores, the experimental freshman-sophomore group showed 36% had improved self-concepts, 14% remained the same, and 50% had lower self-concept scores. Of the

junior-senior group, 75% showed improved self-concepts, 12.5% remained the same, and 12.5% had lower self-concept scores.

Of those with lower personal appearance scores in the control group, the freshman-sophomore group contained 57% whose self-concepts improved and 43% whose self-concepts became lower. In the junior-senior group, 37.5% had improved self-concepts and 62.5% had lower self-concepts.

TABLE IX
STUDENT RATINGS OF PERSONAL APPEARANCE COMPARED WITH SELF-
CONCEPT SCORES ACCORDING TO CLASS GROUPS

Personal Appearance Scores	Improved S-C				Same S-C				Lower S-C			
	Fresh.- Soph.		Jr.-Sr.		Fresh.- Soph.		Jr.- Sr.		Fresh.- Soph.		Jr.- Sr.	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Improved Experi- mental	5	38%	12	92%	2	15%	0	0	6	46%	1	8%
Control	6	86%	4	50%	0	0	0	0	1	14%	4	50%
Lower Experi- mental	5	36%	6	75%	2	14%	1	12.5%	7	50%	1	12.5%
Control	8	57%	3	37.5%	0	0	0	0	6	43%	5	62.5%

Results for the experimental group and for the control group both showed that there was change in the self-concept at different ages. However, the results are in direct opposition as to the age at which there is the greatest change. Results for the experimental group support Engel's theory that there may be an increase of positiveness of the self-concept at this age level. Results for the control group

are in direct opposition to this. Therefore, it would not be possible on the basis of the data for this study to state whether this hypothesis is or is not supported by the data in this study.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purposes of the study were (1) to determine if improvements are made by students in their personal appearances during a school year when emphasis is placed on this as a part of the home economics curriculum for the year, and (2) whether as personal appearance improves, the self-concept will become more positive.

The study was limited to two selected groups of adolescent girls. One group consisted of girls enrolled in home economics classes at Erick High School. The other, used as a control group, consisted of girls enrolled in two schools where home economics was not taught, Berlin High School and Reydon High School.

Two instruments were used for obtaining the data. A personal appearance rating scale was administered in the fall and again in the spring to determine whether students had improved in their personal appearances. The Self-Concept Scale, developed by the Tennessee Department of Mental Health, was administered in the fall and again in the spring to determine whether the self-concepts of the subjects were affected by improvement in personal appearance.

It was hypothesized that the personal appearance of students can be improved when emphasis is placed on this area by the teaching of this phase in the total homemaking curriculum; that as personal appearance improves, the self-concept becomes more positive; that natural

maturation may bring a more positive self-concept; and that there may be different amounts of change in self-concept at different ages.

Data obtained revealed the following:

1. As rated by themselves, the personal appearance of students was slightly improved when this phase was emphasized in the home economics curriculum.

2. Although self-concepts of students with improved personal appearance scores were slightly higher than those with lower personal appearance scores, results were not conclusive enough to state that the hypothesis was confirmed.

3. Results in this study indicate that natural maturation may bring a more positive self-concept, but further testing is needed to substantiate this.

4. Results for the two groups were contradictory, so the hypothesis that there may be different amounts of change in the self-concept at different ages is neither supported or refuted by the data in this study.

5. There is a need for a more sensitive instrument for the rating of personal appearance, if this instrument is used to verify change.

Suggestions for Future Study

The most obvious avenue for further study would be research based on the same hypotheses as this study, but using different instruments to measure the self-concept and personal appearance. A shorter, more sensitive instrument to measure the personal appearance score is a definite need.

An interesting possibility for a study to test the original

hypothesis of this study would be to engage the help of a group of subjects who would agree to put themselves in the hands of an expert or panel of experts on personal appearance. They would follow exactly the directions of this expert or panel and so actually show concrete improvement. In this case, there would be definite improvement with which to correlate the self-concept score. In such a study a control group would then show whether the self-concept score would agree with that of the experimental group.

Much study could profitably be made of what causes people to look as they do. One theory that might account for the careless physical appearance of some persons is that they have an even more positive self-concept than others. Because of what these persons feel they are, it does not matter to them how they look. In other words, some of those with deliberately ordinary personal appearances might actually have superiority complexes and so feel that it was not necessary for them to try to impress others by their outward appearances.

Another line of investigation that might be pursued is to discover if girls actually believe that the way they look is more pleasing than the observer would judge it; and therefore, that they do not really know that they need to change.

Psychological reasons, not fully understood by either the subjects or the writer, may actually prevent great change in a person, even when she ostensibly desires it. Further study along this line would be pertinent to determine whether the slowness to make changes in personal appearance is related to Jersild's statement that the child is likely to resist anything that is inconsistent with his own

evaluation of himself.³⁴ Another interesting avenue of study would be to investigate the happiness of the home conditions of the subjects as to the relationship with which the subjects can make changes. Carroll says the self resists change when threatened.³⁵ He also says that a home with warmth and understanding allows a child to change more readily. Therefore a child from a happy home might be able to improve his appearance more readily.

A further avenue of investigation would be to study what part enlightenment might play in the changing self-concept. There is the possibility that as the subject became more knowledgeable and aware of what constitutes a sophisticated appearance, she would become more self-conscious about her own appearance, and so reveal a lower self-concept.

³⁴Arthur T. Jersild. Child Psychology, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1933, "Selfhood and Social Relationships," Ch. 6, p. 187.

³⁵Carroll, p. 81.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Unit of Study for Homemaking I

Based on Junior Homemaking by Evelyn G. Jones and Helen A. Burnham,
(New York: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1958.)
Unit 2, "How Pretty Can You Be?" pp. 16-45; 53-56.

How Pretty Can You Be?

- How can you be more graceful?
Good posture is first step.
All motions are important.
- How can you have a clear skin?
Good diet builds good skin.
Waste must be eliminated.
Cleanliness is required.
Some skin conditions need special care.
Cosmetics can be used intelligently.
- How can you keep your hair glossy?
Hair beauty begins with brushing.
Brushes and combs are important.
Shampooing should be frequent.
Hair may be styled.
- How will you care for your hands and nails?
Regular care is necessary.
A manicure gives a finished look.
Hand-care equipment is simple.
- How do you care for your teeth?
What you eat matters.
Daily care is necessary.
Regular visits to the dentist prevent trouble.
- Do your eyes sparkle?
Eat an adequate diet.
Get plenty of sleep.
Prevent eyestrain.
Protect the eyes.
Wear glasses when needed.
- How can you have a pleasing voice?
Breathe correctly.
Relax muscles.
Use variety of pitch and tone.
Speak clearly.
- How can you keep clean and dainty?
Schedule time for personal care.
Underclothing should be changed daily.
Have clothes ready to wear.
Use deodorants.
Take special care during menstruation.
Smell sweet.

Unit of Study for Homemaking II

Related Art, Applied to Personal Appearance

- I. The art principles of line and mass
 - A. Proportion
 - B. Balance
 - C. Rhythm
 - D. Emphasis
 - E. Unity
 - F. Other factors
 1. Line
 2. Texture
 3. Pattern

- II. Color
 - A. Emotional character and symbolic use
 - B. Description
 1. Hue
 2. Value
 3. Intensity
 - C. Effect of colors on each other and related factors
 - D. Color harmonies

- III. Art principles as they relate to:
 - A. Hair styles and make-up
 - B. Selection of clothes
 - C. Selection of jewelry
 - D. Selection of hats, accessories, shoes
 - E. Personality and size

- IV. Suitability
 - A. Season
 - B. Occasion
 - C. Wearer herself
 - D. Fashion

Unit of Study for Homemaking III

Based on "Through the Looking Glass, a Girl's Guide to Good Grooming,"
Bulletin prepared by Proctor & Gamble Company, Cincinnati, Ohio.
1961. (32 pages).

Introduction

Your Skin

- Food for Thought
- The Outside Story
- Basic Care for Everyone
- How to Care for Your Own Skin Type
- Special Skin Problems

Your Make-Up

- Make-up Foundation and Powder
- Choosing a Color
- Types of Make-up and How to Apply

Eye Make-up

Your Hair

- Basic Hair Care
- How to Shampoo for Best Results
- Conditioning Treatment for Dry or Damaged Hair
- Permanent
- Special Hair Problems
- Styling
- Cutting and Setting

Intimate Grooming

- Bathing for Beauty
- Drawn to Order Baths
- Lasting Freshness
- Beauty is Always in Season
- Your Smile

Your Hands and Feet

- Hands
- Nails
- Manicuring Your Nails
- Feet

Your Figure

- Standing Order
- Exercise
- Shapers and Smoothers
- How You Move

Your Clothes

- Color Cues
- Fashion and Figures
- Underthings
- How to Wear Clothes Beautifully

Care of Your Clothes

APPENDIX B

Scale A

Directions: If you wish to answer "yes", draw a check in the answer block. If you wish to answer "no", leave block blank. If the item does not apply to you, draw a straight line through block.

I. CLOTHING

Dress

- | | | |
|--|-------|-------|
| Appropriate for occasion | _____ | |
| Appropriate for age | _____ | |
| Color | | _____ |
| Suited to personal coloring | | _____ |
| Suited to personality | | _____ |
| Suited to figure | | _____ |
| Suited to season | | _____ |
| Pleasing color combination | | _____ |
| Material | | _____ |
| Suitable to occasion | | _____ |
| Suitable combination of textures | | _____ |
| Suitable to design | | _____ |
| Not sleazy | | _____ |
| Design | | _____ |
| Pleasing | | _____ |
| Suitable to personality | | _____ |
| Suitable to figure | | _____ |
| Distinctive and individual | | _____ |
| Current style | | _____ |
| Fit | | _____ |
| Shoulders neither too wide or too narrow | | _____ |
| Waistline | | _____ |
| Not too loose | | _____ |
| Not too long | | _____ |
| Not too short | | _____ |
| Skirt fits well in hips--neither tight
or loose | | _____ |
| Hem line | | _____ |
| Becoming length, in relation to
current style | | _____ |
| Even | | _____ |
| Care | | _____ |
| Pressed | | _____ |
| Clean | | _____ |
| Well mended | | _____ |
| Hose | | _____ |
| Appropriate to rest of costume | | _____ |
| Color blends with rest of costume | | _____ |
| Seams straight | | _____ |
| Smooth fit | | _____ |
| Clean | | _____ |

Scale A (Continued)

Or Socks		
Appropriate to rest of costume	_____	
Color blends with rest of costume	_____	
Clean	_____	
Underwear		
Adequate	_____	
Does not show	_____	
Shoes		
Suitable to occasion	_____	
Harmonious with other clothes	_____	
Becoming on individual	_____	
Well cared for:		
Polished		_____
Heels in repair		_____
Well fitted		_____
Clean		_____
Purse		
Suitable type	_____	
Suitable design	_____	
Condition--neat, clean, in repair	_____	
Harmonious color	_____	
Jewelry		
Appropriate to occasion	_____	
Appropriate to costume	_____	
Pleasing design	_____	
Harmonious color	_____	
Not over done	_____	
II. PERSONAL GROOMING		
Hands		
Clean	_____	
Smooth	_____	
Nails well shaped and not extreme	_____	
Nails free from dirt	_____	
Nails unbitten	_____	
Polish, if used		
Light color		_____
Harmonious color		_____
Not chipped		_____
Elbows		
Smooth	_____	
White	_____	

Scale A (Continued)

Hair

Becoming style
 Appropriate style
 Shiny
 Tidy
 No dandruff

Skin

Clear and fresh looking
 Good color, not anemic
 Not scaly or dry

Teeth

In good condition
 Clean

Eyes and Brows

Shaped
 Not plucked too thin
 Make-up not noticeable, if used

Cosmetics

Attractively and becomingly used
 Colors attractive with each other
 Attractive with other clothes
 Attractive with individual coloring

III. POSTURE AND SIZE

Posture

Head up
 Chest up
 Abdomen in
 Body relaxed
 Posterior pulled in

Sitting posture

Lower back touching chair
 Chest up
 Head up
 Back straight
 Body relaxed
 Skirt down and knees together

Walk

Toes straight ahead
 Knees nearly touching
 Body relaxed
 Elastic, rhythmic movements

Scale A (Continued)

Size

Height

Weight



Scale B

Poor Fair Good

I. Clothes

Dress

Appropriate to age and occasion
 Pleasing color combination
 Colors becoming to person
 Material suitable and attractive
 Pleasing, up-to-date style
 Style suitable to personality and figure
 Good fit
 Becoming, even hem line
 Pressed, clean, mended

Underwear

Adequate underwear which does not show

Hose or socks

Appropriate in style and color to costume
 and occasion
 Neat (socks fit or hose fit and seams
 straight)
 Clean

Shoes

Suitable to occasion and rest of clothes
 Becoming
 Well cared for

Purse

Suitable type and design, harmonious color
 Condition--neat, clean, in repair

Jewelry

Appropriate to costume and occasion
 Pleasing design and color

II. Personal Grooming

Hands

Clean, smooth
 Nails filed, clean, unbitten
 Polish (if used) light, harmonious color,
 unchipped

Elbows

Smooth, clean

Hair

Becomingly and appropriately styled
 Shiny, tidy, no dandruff

Scale B (Continued)

Poor Fair Good

Skin

Clear, fresh, good color

Teeth

Clean, good condition

Brows and Eyes

Shaped, but not too thin

Make-up not noticeable, if used

Cosmetics

Attractively and becomingly applied

Colors attractive with each other, clothing, and individual coloring

III. Figure

Posture

Head and chest up, abdomen in, posterior tucked

Sitting posture good, but relaxed

Walk rhythmic and relaxed, with toes straight ahead

Size

Height

Weight

Scale C

Please rate honestly and with great care on each of the 12 items.

Reading from left to right, different levels of each item are described by the words printed below the line. A check may be placed on or between any point on the line that best describes the person rated.

1. Neatness in Dress

Clothes unkempt; slovenly in appearance

Clothes frequently untidy; careless in appearance.

Clothes neat, clean, well-made, well-fitted, well-pressed, and in perfect repair.

2. Personal Neatness

Uncouth in appearance; skin, hair, hands, nails, teeth dirty and unkempt.

Evidence of grooming done hurriedly; frequently omitted in part.

Well-groomed skin hair, hands, nails, and teeth.

3. Effect of Foundation Garments

Poorly fitted; pinched or flabby in appearance.

Wrinkles or lines showing; frequent lack of sufficient amount.

Smooth, firm; allows freedom of movement.

4. Posture of Individual

Constrained, awkward, or slumped in appearance.

Too stiff, too relaxed, resulting in faulty posture in one or more segments.

Erect and graceful posture; appearance of ease and poise.

5. Suitability of Design to Individual

Dress design unbecoming; unattractive characteristics emphasized; over-ornamentation.

Dress design often uninteresting; neither adds to nor detracts from personal attractiveness.

Dress design exceedingly pleasing and becoming; best features emphasized.

Scale C (Continued)

6. Suitability of Design to Occasion

Design of dress suggestive of another occasion.

Design not always appropriate for occasion.

Design of dress suitable to the occasion.

7. Becomingness of Color

Colors lack harmony with the individual, season, occasion, and with each other; accentuate poor qualities.

Color harmony not always preserved; fails to enhance individual's best qualities.

Colors bring out best qualities of individual; suited to season, occasion, and in harmony with each other.

8. Suitability of Material to Design and Purpose

Material inappropriate to individual, season, occasion, and style; unattractive in itself.

Some evidence of material poorly selected for individual, season, occasion, and design; uninteresting in itself.

Material suited to individual, season, occasion, and style; attractive in itself.

9. Suitable Accessories (including shoes and hose)

Accessories inharmonious with costume, person, and each other. Distract noticeably from individual and costume.

Incomplete harmony in accessories, frequently lacking unity in color and design.

Interesting accessories, harmonious with the costume, person, and each other; adds to the whole.

10. Pleasing Use of Cosmetics

Artificial effect; not in harmony with person, dress, and occasion. Unattractive features emphasized.

Little consideration given to choice and use of cosmetics; frequently omitted or lacking in harmony.

Applied naturally; in harmony with person, dress, and occasion; sufficient to enhance attractive features.

Scale C (Continued)

11. Becoming Hair Arrangement

Not in accordance with features, dress, or mode; unnatural in appearance. Poor features emphasized.	Hair neatly arranged; best features not emphasized.	Natural appearance, conforming to the mode, dress, and person's best qualities.
---	---	---

12. Design in Keeping with Present Styles

Individual made conspicuous by wearing clothes extremely out of style or in style.	Clothes neat and presentable; little style.	Dress in keeping with prevailing styles; smart in appearance.
--	---	---

"Rating Scale for Personal Appearance" by Lillian Navratil, Regina Friant, and Rosalie Rathbone, published by Chas. A. Bennett Co., Inc., New York, undated.

Code Number _____

Date _____

Class _____ Age _____

PERSONAL APPEARANCE RATING SCALE

Directions: Read each item carefully and put your check mark in the column which most nearly applies to you. Be sure and put a check for each item.

I. CLOTHING

	Does not apply	Poor	Fair	Good
DRESS				
Appropriate for occasion-----				
Appropriate for age-----				
Color				
Suited to personal coloring---				
Suited to figure-----				
Suited to season-----				
Pleasing color combination---				
Style				
Pleasing-----				
Suitable to figure-----				
Distinctive and individual---				
Current fashion-----				
Fit				
In good proportion to parts of body-----				
Allows freedom of movement---				

PERSONAL APPEARANCE RATING SCALE (Continued)

Does not apply	Poor	Fair	Good
----------------------	------	------	------

Hem Line

Becoming length-----

Even-----

Care

Pressed-----

Clean-----

Well mended-----

UNDERWEAR

Slip adequate-----

Slip does not show-----

HOSE OR SOCKS

Appropriate to rest of costume-----

Color blends with rest of costume--

Clean-----

Smooth fit-----

Seams straight-----

SHOES

Suitable to occasion-----

Harmonious with other clothes-----

Becoming on individual-----

Well cared for

Clean and polished-----

Heels in repair-----

Well fitted-----

PERSONAL APPEARANCE RATING SCALE (Continued)

Does not apply	Poor	Fair	Good
----------------------	------	------	------

PURSES

Suitable type-----

Suitable design-----

Condition---neat, clean, in repair-

Harmonious in color-----

JEWELRY

Appropriate to occasion-----

Appropriate to costume-----

Pleasing design-----

Color harmonious with costume-----

Not over done-----

II. PERSONAL GROOMING

HANDS

Clean and smooth-----

Nails well shaped, not extreme,
clean-----

Nails unbitten-----

Polish

Light, harmonious color-----

Not chipped-----

HAIR

Becoming style-----

Appropriate style-----

Tidy-----

PERSONAL APPEARANCE RATING SCALE (Continued)

Does not apply	Poor	Fair	Good
----------------------	------	------	------

Shiny, no dandruff-----

SKIN

Clear and fresh looking-----

Good color, not anemic-----

Neither scaly nor dry nor oily-----

Elbows, smooth and white-----

Clean and free from odor-----

TEETH

In good condition-----

Clean-----

EYES AND BROWS

Shaped-----

Not plucked too thin-----

COSMETICS

Attractively and becomingly used---

Colors attractive with each other---

Cosmetics matched to costume in
color-----

Attractive with individual
coloring-----

III. POSTURE AND SIZE

POSTURE

Head up, chest up-----

Abdomen in-----

PERSONAL APPEARANCE RATING SCALE (Continued)

Does not apply	Poor	Fair	Good
----------------------	------	------	------

Body relaxed-----

Posterior pulled in-----

SITTING POSTURE

Lower back touching chair-----

Skirt down and knees together-----

Chest up, head up, back straight---

Body relaxed-----

WALK

Toes straight ahead-----

Knees nearly touching-----

Body relaxed-----

Elastic rhythmic movements-----

SIZE

Weight in good proportion to
height-----

Bust, waist, hips in good
proportion-----

REVISED PERSONAL APPEARANCE SCALE

I. CLOTHES	Does	Poor	Fair	Good
	not			
	apply			
Dress				
Up-to-date style Becoming; suitable style and length Good fit Pressed, clean, mended				
Underwear				
Adequate; does not show				
Hose or socks				
Appropriate in style and color Clean and neat				
Shoes				
Suitable to clothes and school Well cared for				
Purse				
Suitable type; harmonious color Neat, clean, in repair				
Jewelry				
Appropriate for costume and school				
II. PERSONAL GROOMING				
Hands				
Clean, smooth Nails filed evenly, clean, unbitten Polish (if used) light color, unchipped				
Hair				
Becomingly and appropriately styled Shiny, tidy, no dandruff				
Skin				
Clear, fresh, good color				
Teeth				
Clean, good condition				

REVISED PERSONAL APPEARANCE SCALE (Continued)

	<hr/>			
	Does			
	not	Poor	Fair	Good
	<hr/>			
	apply			
	<hr/>			
Brows				
Shaped, but not too thin				
Cosmetics				
Attractively and becomingly applied				
Colors attractive together				
III. FIGURE				
Posture				
Head and chest up, abdomen in, posterior tucked				
Size				
Height				
Weight				

APPENDIX C

TABLE X
 SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP ON THE
 TOTAL TDMH SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

Student	Pretest	Retest	Change
E-25*	106	83	-23
E-7*	95	70	-25
E-22	94	115	+21
E-14	90	36	-54
E-9*	89	78	-11
E-17*	86	116	+30
E-3*	85	73	-12
E-35*	80	111	+31
E-39	79	98	+19
E-42	79	81	+ 2
E-40*	77	84	+ 7
E-19*	76	43	-33
E-26*	75	63	-12
E-34*	71	74	+ 3
E-13*	70	43	-27
E-1*	67	72	+ 5
E-4*	63	42	-21
E-12*	62	78	+16
E-33*	62	42	-20
E-20*	59	54	- 5
E-48*	58	78	+20
E-27*	57	59	+ 2
E-43*	56	104	+52

TABLE X (Continued)

Student	Pretest	Retest	Change
E-45*	55	81	+26
E-44*	52	124	+72
E-32	51	73	+22
E-47*	39	89	+50
E-11*	36	28	- 8
E-16*	36	24	-12
E-36	35	56	+21
E-28	35	51	+16
E-15	33	53	+20
E-38	33	53	+20
E-24*	32	-28	-60
E-8*	32	33	+ 1
E-41	30	30	0
E-53	26	63	+40
E-2	22	63	+41
E-10	22	65	+43
E-29*	18	31	+13
E-46*	14	26	+12
E-54*	11	- 7	-18
E-49*	9	34	+25
E-55	- 6	5	+11
E-56	- 9	- 6	+ 3
E-6	-16	- 7	+ 9
E-5	-17	-10	+ 7

TABLE X (Continued)

Student	Pretest	Retest	Change
E-18	-37	-83	-46

* Students who were used for matched paired groupings.

TABLE XI
 SCORES OF CONTROL GROUP ON THE TOTAL TDMH
 SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

Student	Pretest	Retest	Change
R-2	111	135	+24
R-7*	103	85	-18
B-6*	99	98	- 1
R-14*	86	55	-31
R-20*	84	98	+14
R-22*	84	110	+26
R-5*	82	90	+ 8
B-9*	77	76	- 1
R-18*	75	81	+ 6
B-10*	74	56	-18
R-17*	74	82	+ 8
R-19*	70	67	- 3
B-11*	68	63	- 5
B-13	64	66	+ 2
B-7	64	32	-32
R-27	64	102	+38
R-16*	63	42	-21
B-5*	62	79	+17
B-4*	61	59	- 2
R-21*	60	45	-15
R-26*	59	70	+11
R-15*	57	38	-19
B-1*	55	59	+ 4

TABLE XI (Continued)

Student	Pretest	Retest	Change
R-11*	55	32	-23
R-3*	53	68	+15
B-12	44	96	+52
R-9	43	22	-21
R-23*	42	70	+28
R-1	42	53	+11
R-25*	40	37	- 3
R-8*	36	62	+26
B-8*	32	69	+37
B-3*	31	40	+ 9
B-2*	16	8	- 8
R-10*	15	38	+23
R-4*	13	44	+31
R-24*	8	20	+12

* Students who were used for matched paired groupings.

TABLE XII
 SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP ON PHYSICAL SECTION
 OF TDMH SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

Student	Pretest	Retest	Change
E-14*	26	5	-21
E-43*	25	25	0
E-3*	23	21	- 2
E-12*	21	26	+ 5
E-22*	21	26	+ 5
E-17*	20	23	+ 3
E-19*	19	9	-10
E-40*	19	22	+ 3
E-26*	18	19	+ 1
E-1*	17	14	- 3
E-35*	17	22	+ 5
E-33*	16	12	- 4
E-13*	16	11	- 5
E-41*	15	14	- 1
E-7*	15	15	0
E-11*	14	9	- 5
E-2*	14	20	+ 6
E-27*	14	13	- 1
E-10*	13	23	+10
E-36*	13	16	+ 3
E-4*	13	10	- 3
E-28*	12	19	+ 7
E-32*	12	14	+ 2

TABLE XII (Continued)

Student	Pretest	Retest	Change
E-34*	12	11	- 1
E-6	11	10	- 1
E-8	11	8	- 3
E-16	11	8	- 3
E-20	11	17	+ 6
E-39*	11	11	0
E-9*	11	18	+ 7
E-25*	11	8	- 3
E-42*	10	6	- 4
E-48*	9	19	+10
E-45*	8	16	+ 8
E-15*	8	11	+ 3
E-24	8	-8	-16
E-50	8	22	+14
E-46	8	10	+ 2
E-49*	8	17	+ 9
E-5*	7	5	- 2
E-18*	5	- 5	-10
E-56*	5	3	- 2
E-47*	5	17	+12
E-29	4	14	+10
E-54	3	- 4	- 7
E-44*	2	23	+21
E-55	- 5	3	+ 8

TABLE XII (Continued)

Student	Pretest	Retest	Change
E-38	- 8	2	+10

*Students who were used for matched paired groupings.

TABLE XIII
 SCORES OF CONTROL GROUP ON PHYSICAL SECTION
 OF TDMH SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

Student	Pretest	Retest	Change
B-9*	26	24	- 2
R-22*	26	24	- 2
R-20*	25	15	-10
B-6*	23	26	+ 3
R-7*	22	15	- 7
R-26*	20	24	+ 4
B-4*	20	15	- 5
R-18*	20	26	+ 6
R-21*	19	16	- 3
B-13*	19	24	+ 5
B-11*	19	23	+ 4
R-14*	18	16	- 2
R-15*	16	8	- 8
B-10*	16	16	0
B-1*	15	13	- 2
B-7*	15	8	- 7
R-2*	15	26	+11
R-16*	14	16	+ 2
R-5*	14	19	+ 5
R-11*	13	3	-10
R-19*	13	7	- 6
R-1*	12	15	+ 3
B-5*	12	11	- 1

TABLE XIII (Continued)

Student	Pretest	Retest	Change
R-27*	12	24	+12
B-2*	10	1	- 9
B-12*	10	23	+13
R-3*	10	15	+ 5
R-17*	10	12	+ 2
B-8*	9	16	+ 7
B-3*	8	4	- 4
R-25*	8	12	+ 4
R-4*	6	8	+ 2
R-23*	6	13	+ 7
R-24*	5	3	- 2
R-10*	5	15	+10
R-8*	5	10	+ 5
R-9*	1	- 4	- 5

* Students who were used for matched paired groupings.

VITA

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