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A Suggested Unit Of Personality Development With Emphasis On Good Grooming

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A SUGGESTED UNIT OF PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT
WITH EMPHASIS ON GOOD GROOMING

A Problem Submitted to the Department of Education
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Course in Research Problems 390b

By

Rose Mary Reagan

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Pittsburg, Kansas

July, 1955

FOOTBALL LIBRARY

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It is a pleasure to express my thanks to Dr. W. R. Strowig, Professor of Education at Kansas State Teachers College, for his generous and able assistance, and to my colleagues in Problems 390b for their helpful criticisms and suggestions.

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FORWARD

In this problem the author will try to give to teachers of home economics, or to any teacher interested in teaching a unit on Personality Development, some helpful suggestions as to the material that a unit of this nature may cover.

Since it is becoming more and more necessary that school workers must know something of the nature and technique of scientific research, the author will try, to the best of her ability, to show educational workers some of the tools and techniques that can be used in writing educational reports and papers.

Unless otherwise indicated, this manual is the compilation of class discussion and class notes taken in Research Problems 390b under the instruction of Dr. W. R. Strowig.

PART I

A SUGGESTED UNIT OF PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT
WITH EMPHASIS ON GOOD GROOMING

PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

All competent authorities agree that personality plays a large part in determining the degree of success that may be achieved in all walks of life. The search for happiness is our most common quest. Everyone needs some "happy isles" if he is to weather the storms of life. If everyone could develop desirable personality traits, learn to get along with other people, make and keep friends, adjust well to life's situations--then we should be able to attain real happiness. Some people attain deep and lasting happiness; others attain scarcely any. One's happiness depends upon the person himself.

The Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association has made a list of the things that it considers to be the "Imperative Needs of Youth of Secondary-School Age." If one would look closely at these needs, he would find that most of them are concerned with the development of a youth's personality. Youth itself is greatly concerned about its personality development and expresses this concern when he worries about his popularity, his looks, his manners, etc.

The early teens is an especially important period for the inauguration of a unit in personality development. It is at this time that the adolescent is most conscious and concerned over his personality development.

Since most textbooks contain very little, or no material that can be used in a unit on personality development; ^{the writer} I shall try in this problem, through the use of library research, to point out the personality traits that most people admire in others, and to suggest ways that teachers may help their students achieve some of these important traits.

The individuals that naturally have or who have cultivated these personality or character traits have a greater chance for a more profitable business, or earning a larger salary and living a more satisfying life, than does the person with the same background and similiar education, but who does not have a pleasing personality. According to Phelma Newton Moore¹, G. A. Prosser tells us that 90 per cent of some 4,000 discharged office and clerical workers lost their jobs because of undesirable character traits, and that the Carnegie Foundation has made the statement that technical training contributes 15 per cent to the success of an individual while personal qualities count for 85 per cent.

¹Phelma Newton Moore, "Personality Development", The Balance Sheet, Vol. XXXI, No. 6, (February, 1950), pp. 255-257.

SECTION I

RESULTS

The central business of every human being is to be a real person. We possess by nature the factors out of which personality can be made, and to organize them into effective personal life is every man's primary responsibility.² To be sure, the word personality is a magic word. Like all general terms, it is applied to specific ideas as often as to a certain "vague, undetermined something."³ If we go to the dictionary, we find the following definition: "The totality of an individual's characteristics."⁴

Personality is one of those words that can mean almost anything to anyone. Someone says of a friend, "What a fine personality he has.", and means that he has qualities that are attractive to his friend. "The scholar would not accept these meanings, for him personality means the sum total and arrangement of psychological qualities."⁵

²H. E. Fosdick, On Being A Real Person, New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1943, p. 1.

³S. M. Shellow, How To Develop Your Personality, New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1932, p. 1.

⁴A. M. Webster, Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Co., 1948, p. 741.

⁵G. R. Vaughn and C. B. Roth, Effective Personality Building, New York: McGraw-Hill Inc., 1947, p. 3.

For our purposes here we shall say that personality is the expression of what a person is and what he does. It is the core of each individual, the sum total of all the responses that are expressed in everyday living--in the home, the school, the playground, the office, the theater, the street, and in the seclusion of his room. It includes all the things that he says, as well as, thinks in the many different situations that he constantly meets.

It is unfortunate, that the average young man and woman thinks of personality largely in terms of physical characteristics, stature, clothes, complexion, beauty, nice white teeth, a pleasing smile, physical skills, etc. They also usually include the ability to dance well and say the things that are considered clever this season. Young people place a disproportionate emphasis on the surface manifestations of personality. The pretty girls may be more popular in high school than their less bountifully endowed classmates, even though the ugly ducklings may have a better disposition. The handsome young man may be a more acceptable date than the homely boy, even though the good-looking boy may be more conceited.⁶

A person nearing middle age thinks of personality more in terms of good habits, a pleasant disposition, and an even temper. Older persons frequently judge young people of high

⁶Roy Newton, and F. G. Nichols, How To Improve Your Personality, New York: Gregg Pub., 1954, pp. 18-19.

school and college age by their manners and thoughtfulness much more than by the traits considered so vital by the young people themselves.

Personality is shown in many ways, but today the most common aspects by which it is judged are voice and speech, appearance, behavior, emotional control, and manners.⁷

Most employers consider personality the greatest single factor in the success or failure of an employee. A study of application blanks of any business firm will show convincing evidence of the importance that management attaches to the kind of information that will indicate some of the personality traits of the applicant.

The importance attached to this information in no way minimizes skill and training for the job. These are essential and must be taken for granted. But if two individuals with equal training seek the same job, the one with the better personal traits will be hired.⁸

Personality does not just happen. It is built up bit by bit as a great monument is built, stone upon stone. No experience is unimportant. Every act, every thought, every desire has its place in the shaping of the personality, just

⁷E. G. Lockhart, Improving Your Personality, Chicago: Walton Pub. Co., 1939, Chap. 2.

⁸L. A. Rice, A. G. Sferra, and M. E. Wright, Personality And Human Relations In Business, New York: Gregg Pub., 1953, pp. 10-13.

as each scrap of masonry makes its contribution to the final structure and strength of a building.⁹

The fascinating thing about personality is that, within limits, anyone can do with his personality almost anything he desires. It is a fact, now recognized by practically all psychologists, that personality development follows a well defined rule. The rule is that each personality develops continually from infancy until death.¹⁰

Today psychologists recognize that personality can be changed only as the interrelated systems of habits and attitudes that make up our personality are changed. To change your personality you must first change your habits, for personality is also a pattern of thought, and attitudes. A person is able to choose for himself what old tricks he shall discard, and what new ones he shall acquire. A person can, if he will, train himself much more effectively than he can train his pet.¹¹

A person's ideals and aspirations may be truly creative forces in his life if he gives them the opportunity to do their work as he lives from day to day. The first step is to visualize clearly what he wished to be. Working without such

⁹Shellow, op. cit., p. 18.

¹⁰G. R. Vaughn and G. B. Roth, op. cit., p. 3.

¹¹Margaret E. Bennett and Harold G. Hand, Designs For Personality, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1938, p. 114.

a picture is like building a house without the architect's blue print. The next requirement is to have a strong desire to reach the goals we have set. Without this strong urge, we can easily be sidetracked in many ways. Lastly, he must develop skill as a master builder in transforming his blue prints into a living reality. The control of his habits of thinking, his habits of feelings, and his habits of acting is the secret of this building skill. Everyone is continually strengthening or weakening old habits and forming new ones, whether he is willing or not. The conscious control and direction of this process are the keynotes of selfdetermination. To establish this conscious control, we must possess definite and clear-cut purposes and goals.¹²

Success is a matter of never-ceasing application. One must forever work at it diligently. Otherwise it takes wings and flies away. At no time can a person afford to rest on his laurels--a pause for self-admiration--because there are others who may have eyes on that coveted place and who would like nothing better than to push the next person out of it, especially if they observe that he has a weak hold on it or is doing nothing to strengthen his position.¹³ This is particularly true if the person is trying to improve his personal appearance through the means of a diet.

¹²Ibid., p. 113.

¹³C. M. Bristol, The Magic Of Believing, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1948, p. 152.

Knowing one's own defects and recognizing the possibility of improvement, however, are not sufficient to accomplish much in the way of self-management. This is a beginning, but it must be followed by the appraisal of strengths and weaknesses and by the construction of a plan of improvement, definite in its instructions and procedures. Even then, the goal may not be reached unless the person has sufficient selfcontrol to put the plan into operation, follow diligently the practices included in it, and to see it through to a satisfactory completion.

It is essential that a person be well groomed if he wants to increase his poise. If he is sure that he looks well, he does not have to feel apologetic about his appearance and he will feel more confident.

First, for a person to feel sure that he looks his best, he will want to do the most he can with what he has in the way of physical appearance. He will want to feel that he is attractive--not necessarily pretty or handsome--but so clean and neat-looking that he will make a pleasant first impression. It is the general appearance that counts. Individual features do not really matter. It is the complete picture.

Grooming is a rather difficult subject to cover adequately in limited space; especially that part of it which has to do with clothes. There are so many views on this subject; so many different tastes to cater to; so many greatly different situations of time, place, and activity to be considered.

Then, too some allowance should be made for different ages and the prevailing styles or habits that are dominant in different age groups.

Some young people of real ability fail to realize the value of a good appearance. Sometimes they are absorbed in intellectual pursuits and regard themselves superior to so-called frivolities. Frequently this kind of persons misses a great opportunity to make himself socially effective.¹⁴

It has been pointed out that grooming, clothing, and general appearance are among the most important factors in the impression that a person makes on other people. The world judges us more and more on external appearances. At any rate, the first impressions and frequently the most lasting ones, are made by a person's appearance. Whether or not this is fair is of no importance.¹⁵

A person does not have to wear expensive clothes, but he should wear clothes that are becoming to him. Color and design must always receive major considerations. Each person must choose the ones that suit him best.¹⁶ Many people give up in despair before they have barely explored the possibilities within their stipulated budgets and personal assets.

¹⁴Grace Margaret Morton, The Arts Of Costume and Personal Appearance, New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1943, p. 4.

¹⁵M. D. Erwin, Clothing For Moderns, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1949, Chap. 2.

¹⁶Newton, op. cit., pp. 160-181.

They plod along in somber, shapeless garments that register minus on any observer, simply because they feel that they are too large or too plain to wear something that may attract attention. There is danger of a ludicrous appearance if brilliant colors and gaudy patterns are used excessively. No one should resort to drab colors and nondescript garments just because that seems to be the most harmless escape from the clothes problem.¹⁷

It is as important for a man to have clothes that suit his own type as it is for a woman. The shape of a lapel can make his face seem less full and heavy; the cut of his coat can give him an appearance of greater height; the style of his overcoat can help him to conceal an excess weight.¹⁸ All people should dress less flamboyantly as they grow older.¹⁹

Fads sometimes come along to lure the people, and each person will have to handle them carefully. If the fad is of the type that will really do something for a person's appearance, then they should succumb to it. But if it is just something that isn't becoming to him, he should quietly lower his eyes and demurely resist the sales talk.²⁰

¹⁷Marietta Kettunen, Fundamentals Of Dress, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., 1941, pp. 319-320.

¹⁸Dorothy Stote, Men Too Wear Clothes, New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co., 1939, p. xv.

¹⁹Veronica Dengel, Personality Unlimited, Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Co., 1943, p. 12.

²⁰Virginia Bailard and Ruth Strang, Ways To Improve Your Personality, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951, Chap. 8.

The neat, trim-looking person creates a better impression than the dowdy one. No one should ever become so insensitive that he is wholly unconscious of a belt pinned in place, a button or snap missing, a soiled collar, or a runner in his hose. By wearing such dowdy clothes a person is losing a little self-respect.²¹

The first requisite of good grooming is cleanliness. All of a person's clothes--undergarments, outer garments, and accessories--must be clean and free from spots. In order to keep them in this condition, they must be carefully laundered or cleaned.²²

The best physical features are not attractive unless they are clean. People associate cleanliness with character, so when they say, "He's a clean young man," they mean clean in every way, not just on the surface.

Another thing which will help a person's appearance and give him poise is to have good posture and carriage. Also this is probably one of the best ways to take care of the figure. By posture the author does not simply mean the standing position. It means the position that is assumed when dancing, reading, or gardening. In fact it means that

²¹Hazel Thompson Craig, Clothes With Character, Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1946, p. 5.

²²Mildred Graves Ryan, Your Clothes and Personality, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1949, p. 142.

one should never let his figure sag so that it appears that the person has a sway back, round shoulders, a forward head, of a protruding abdomen. Although at first the person may find it difficult to maintain the correct position, it will soon become a habit if he will conscientiously try to do it. Whenever he finds himself deviating from the correct form, he should quickly adjust his position so that his body alignment will be perfect.²³

If a person appears to be alert and poised, he has a tendency to feel that way too. A person feels more forceful when he stands on the balls of his feet, holds his chest high, reaches up with the top of his head, and looks someone right in the eye. Others feel more confident in someone who has a good stance and carriage than they do in someone whose chest is sunken in, whose chin rests on his chest, and who slinks around as if he were afraid of his own shadow.²⁴

A sense of humor is one of a person's most valuable assets. A good laugh has saved many a delicate situation. The ability to see the humorous aspects of incidents will remove pressure from the most tense moment. Not everyone has this gift, but it can be cultivated.

²³Mildred Graves Ryan and Velma Phillips, Clothes For You, New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1947, p. 19.

²⁴Bailard, op. cit., Chap. 8

A person, first of all, should be receptive. If he wears a habitual glum, sour look on his face, he should not expect to find anything that will amuse him or anyone with whom to share an amusing experience.

Second, a person should be observant. Wherever he finds people, he will find amusing incidents of behavior. People in general make up the finest possible laboratory for developing a sense of humor.

Third, a person should share a humorous incident with someone--either as it happens, soon after it happens, or remember to tell it to someone who will particularly appreciate it.

Fourth, a person should relate any amusing incidents to his friends and family until he develops the knack of being a good storyteller. This type of thing makes another contribution to your abilities as a conversationalist and as an interesting companion.

Everyone should practice smiling to himself in a mirror until he finds the smile that makes his face look the most attractive. While he is practicing before the mirror, it might be well for him to examine the expression that he usually wears when his face is in repose. He may be surprised to note that the accustomed set of his features is quite formidable perhaps even disagreeable.

A person might try saying limb each morning. The corners of the mouth turn up, the face relaxes, the eyes catch the mood, and he ends up with an engaging appearance in spite of himself. With an expression so winning, it is hard to think any unagreeable thoughts, so he starts well equipped for a good day.

Emotions constitute the basic drives that direct a person's behavior into some kind of activity. The pleasant emotions make for physical and mental well-being, since they greatly affect your general outlook on things and people. The unpleasant emotions will direct you toward destructive and negative behavior.²⁴

A person inherits an emotional structure, but the way that he expresses the emotions of love, rage, hate, and fear are learned methods of response. The mature adult learns subtle methods of adjusting his responses to his emotions in all situations.²⁵

Genuine concern for another person is so vital to good manners that it is better to be kind than to be correct. The most gracious hosts and hostesses violate rules of etiquette to save their guests embarrassment. Manners are the heart of courteous behavior.²⁶

²⁴Norman V. Peale, The Power Of Positive Thinking, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952, Chap. 5.

²⁵Fosdick, op. cit., Chap. 4

²⁶Reid, op. cit., p. 1.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary and Conclusions

The author has shown in this problem through the use of library research the consensus of the opinions of various authorities on personality development through good grooming.

The need for a knowledge of personality development by young people has been stated by many authorities. This information may be intergrated into many courses of study.

In the author's association, with teen-age girls in Vocational Home Economics classes, has found that their interest exceeds the information available for class instruction. Also there is a need for information on personality and good grooming that is readable and interesting for boys. The boys in the author's eleventh grade home room have indicated their interest by questions.

Recommendations

The author recommends that more classes intergrate units or at least stress the importance of developing a pleasing personality, and living a satisfying life in the future.

Due to the lack of text book material on this subject, the teacher should compile an extended bibliography of material which will be available for class distribution and which may be read by the students to supplement the text book material.

Much of the subject matter to be included in a unit of this nature may be taught much more effectively by the use of films, filmstrips, and demonstrations.

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PART II

RESEARCH TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES FOR THE EDUCATIONAL
WORKER WRITING REPORTS AND PAPERS

INTRODUCTION

It is becoming more and more necessary that school workers must know something of the nature and technique of scientific research. This is necessary so that our educational workers may utilize sound methods in attacking their own practical problems. All too often in the past this problem solving has been assumed by a professional research worker who has had no personal experience in the teaching field and therefore did not entirely understand the problem of the teacher. Thus much of the research work in this field has passed by unheeded.

This manual is written with the hope that more educational workers will become aware of the necessity of solving their own problems and to give these people some information on how to apply some of the research methods of solving these problems.

UNIT I

DEFINING A PROBLEM

To define a problem means to specify it in detail and with precision. Each question and subordinate question to be answered is to be specified. The limits of the investigation must be determined. Frequently, it is necessary to review previous studies in order to determine just what is to be done. Sometimes it is necessary to formulate the point of view or educational theory on which the investigation is to be based. If certain assumptions are made, they must be explicitly noted.¹

Usually at some time in each day of a teacher's life he is faced with a problem that he must solve. The mythical Utopia would be reached if everyone solved his own problems as he encountered them. Then he could quit worrying about the problem instead of waiting for someone else to solve it for him. At this time it is becoming more and more necessary for people in the educational field to recognize their own problems. Many encounter problems without recognizing them as problems.

How To Recognize A Problem

In general there are three ways that a problem can be recognized. They are:

1. An uncomfortable feeling about an existing situation.
2. Needed information that is lacking at that moment.

¹Monroe and Englehart, The Techniques of Educational Research, Urbana, Ill.: Bureau of Educational Research University of Ill., 1928, Bulletin No. 38, p. 14.

3. Need to reorganize the knowledge that is at hand, but that the solution to the problem demand putting together old information and new information into relatedness.

Solving Problems by Reflective Thinking

Reflective thinking is possible and occurs on all levels. The process is the same. It will be recognized also that on every level of generalization the normal mind may go through one and perhaps several complete acts of reflective thought. There is first of all (a) a feeling of deficiency or need, then (b) a more or less definite delimitation of the problem situation involved, followed by (c) the acceptance of a tentative conclusion, (d) its critical examination in terms of evidence, and (e) its experimental corroboration or rejection. If it is abandoned as unsatisfactory, another cycle of the thought act is inaugurated, and so on.²

Solving Problems by Research

C. C. Crawford of the University of Southern California says that research is a systematic and refined technique of thinking, employing specialized tools, instruments, and procedures in order to obtain a more adequate solution of a problem than would be possible under ordinary means. Start with a problem, collect data or facts, analyze these critically, and reach decisions based on actual evidence. It

²Frederick Lamson Whitney, The Elements of Research, Printice-Hall, Inc. New York: 1950, Chapt. I.

involves original work instead of mere exercise of personal opinion. It evolves from a genuine desire to know rather than a desire to prove something. It is quantitative, seeking to know not only what, but how much, and measurement is therefore a central feature of it.³

Selecting A Problem

Schluter of the University of Pennsylvania suggests six points to consider when selecting a problem. They are:

1. Does it appeal to my interest?
2. Are the results that may be obtained of practical or utilitarian significance?
3. Does the field present gaps in verified knowledge which need to be filled?
4. Does the field require reworking?
5. Does the field permit extension of inquiry beyond the present limits of verified knowledge?
6. Is the field pivotal or strategical from the standpoint of the immediate purpose which the possible results of investigation are to serve?⁴

According to Jahoda, Deutsch, and Cook⁵ the formulation of a research project proceeds in several steps:

First, a problem demanding solution must be perceived within the area circumscribed by the selected topic.

³Ibid., p. 21.

⁴Ibid., p. 86.

⁵Jahoda, Deutsch and Cook., Research Methods In Social Relations Part I, New York: The Dryden Press, 1951, pp. 14-26.

Second, the research tasks must be reduced to one of manageable size, which can be handled in one study. This reduction proceeds via a specification of the kind of the evidence to be collected.

Third, the formulation of research must point up the general aspects of the problem; it must anticipate the part of the population and the type of response about which generalizations will ultimately be made.

If relevant knowledge exists on the research problem, the formulation will contain hypotheses; if knowledge does not exist, the formulation will indicate the areas in which an exploratory study aims to establish hypotheses.

During the formulation process subsequent steps in the research procedure needs to be anticipated so as to insure that the problem is formulated in a manner which can be tackled by available techniques. This anticipation concerns scientific as well as practical steps.

Stating A Problem

To state a problem means to specify it in detail and with precision. Each question to be answered is to be specified. The limits of the investigation must be determined. Sometimes it is necessary to formulate the point of view or educational theory on which the investigations are to be based. If assumptions are made, they must be explicitly noted. For example:

Problem: Should the transportation facilities of North East Johnson County, Kansas be district owned?

Evaluation: This statement is not clear or specific. What should be district owned? What does transportation facilities mean? What does North East Johnston County mean to the ordinary person? On what basis is the word "should" going to be judged?

Revised Statement: The author believes that the school district of Olatha, Kansas could provide better transportation for the school children to and from school for the same financial expenditure by owning the buses and hiring personnel to chauffeur the buses.

UNIT II

WRITING A PROBLEM

According to Alexander⁵, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, the procedure for writing theses, dissertations, or problems involves two distinct phases: those connected with the thought process and those relating to correct mechanical form. In this unit the mechanical form to be used shall be taken into consideration.

Typing Directions

Paper. Problems and theses should be typed on one side of 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 11 inch mutual or industrial bond paper or its equivalent in weight, quality, and size. Paper made of 100% rag which has a hard finish and a slight ripple will prove more satisfactory than sulphite for this purpose. Twenty pound paper should be used for the manual and sixteen pound should be used for the thesis.

Carbon Paper. A good medium weight black carbon paper should be used. The carbon paper should be changed frequently to insure a good dark copy throughout the paper.

Type. Pica or Elite type may be used. Other type may be used with the approval by the instructor of Problems 390b.

⁵Carter Alexander, Educational Research, Suggestions And Sources Of Data With Specific Reference To Administration. New York: Bureau of Publications Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929, p. 7.

Spacing. The body of the problem or thesis should contain twenty-six double spaced lines or their equivalent on one page.

Indentation. All typed material should be indented five spaces to the right of the left hand margin.

Paging. The pages are numbered beginning with the first page of the first chapter of the body of the thesis or problem. The pages are numbered consecutively with Arabic numerals, continuing through the bibliography and the last page of the manuscript. The Arabic numeral for the first page of each chapter and the first page of the bibliography and the appendices is centered four spaces up from the bottom of the page. All other pages should be numbered consecutively with the proper Arabic numeral placed in the center of the page, five spaces below the top of the sheet and three spaces above the first line of type. Thus the first line of typing will begin eight spaces below the top of the page.⁶

Roman numerals centered at the bottom of the page should be used to number all introductory material such as acknowledgment page, table of contents, list of tables, list of figures, etc. The first page of the thesis is the title page and it is counted, but it is not numbered. The approval sheet is not counted in the paging and does not bear a page number.

⁶ Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas,
Directions For Typewriting Theses And Problems.

Numbers

Any number that takes only two words should be spelled out and hyphenated where needed. Numbers that begin sentences should always be spelled out. Figures are used for statistics, sums of money which cannot be expressed in one or two words, street numbers, time of day when used in connection with a.m. and p.m., years, votes, records, scores and values, school grades, etc. Figures should be used in tables, reports, and schedules. Figures should always precede per cent. For example:

Three hundred students were present at the 9:00 a.m. assembly this morning in commemoration of the fiftieth anniversary of Apple Day. It was estimated that 25 per cent of the students were present for the assembly.

Quotations

According to William Giles Campbell⁷, direct quotations should be used:

1. when giving the wording of laws, official rulings, and important edicts;
2. when citing mathematical, scientific, and other formulas;
3. when the exact words of a writer are absolutely necessary;
4. when a significant thought has been expressed with unusual felicity.

⁷Campbell, William Giles, Form And Style In Thesis Writing, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston: 1954, p. 12.

Any matter that is directly quoted must be reproduced exactly in all details--spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and paragraphing. Good grammatical practice will lead to two exceptions to this rule:

1. The first word of a quotation should not be capitalized, although it is in the original, if it forms a grammatical whole with what precedes it.

2. The rules for punctuation marks as they relate to quotation marks are followed, irrespective of how the terminal punctuation appears in the original.⁸

Quotations of five lines or more, should be set off from the text, indented five spaces and single-spaced with double spaces between each paragraph of the quotation if it contains more than one paragraph. Quotation marks are omitted in the single-space form. Material quoted has its own indentation from its own left margin. For example:

Washington was exposed to Harry Lev for only five days during his first appearance, but his contributions to the city's vernacular will live long. Once when he failed to understand a question, he asked politely, "Clarify me, Senator."

Extended passages of poetry quoted in the text of the thesis or problem may be enclosed in quotation marks. They should stand at the beginning of each stanza and at the end

⁸Ibid., p. 14.

⁹James L. McConaughy Jr., "Meet The Man'Just Out Of Average'." Life, Vol. 39, No. 4, (July 25, 1955), p. 29.

of the last. The superscript number to footnotes should be placed at the end of the quotation. For example:

"In the one state of ours that is a shire
 There is a District Schoolhouse I admire--
 As much for anything for situation.
 There are few institutions standing higher
 This side the Rockies in my estimation--
 Two thousand feet above the ocean level.
 It has two entries for co-education.
 But there's a tight-shut look to either door
 And to the windows of its fenestration
 As if to say mere knowledge was the devil,
 And this school wasn't keeping any more,
 Unless for penitents who took their seat
 Upon its doorsteps as at Mercy's feet.
 To make up for a lack of meditation."¹⁰

Ellipses

Ellipses should be used to mark omissions in quotations. The ellipsis marks for English text consists of three periods with alternating spaces (. . .). If a new sentence follows the ellipsis, four periods should be used to mark the omission, the first period to be placed immediately after the word preceding the ellipsis. When the ellipsis marks are used at the beginning or end of a quotation that is enclosed in quotation marks, the periods are also enclosed. For example:

"Long quotations . . . should be set off from the text"

If the ellipses comes at the beginning of the quotation, then the first letter of the quotation is typed in lower case letters.

¹⁰ Robert Frost, The Poems Of Robert Frost, New York: Random House Pub. Co., 1946, p. xxiv.

Footnotes

All source material should be acknowledged by the problem writer, not merely as a matter of common honesty but also as a validation of his work. Credit should be given in the text or footnotes, or both for ideas or statements that have been taken from any publication, lecture, interview, or other source.

According to Campbell¹¹ footnotes have four chief purposes:

1. To establish the validity of evidence. All important statements of fact that are not common knowledge must be supported by the presentation of evidence for their validity.

2. To acknowledge indebtedness. A footnote should be supplied for each important statement of fact, for each quotation, and for each conclusion or inference borrowed from another writer. Not only must the course of every direct quotation be given, but a citation is just as necessary when a passage is paraphrased or its substance presented.

3. To amplify the discussion beyond the point permissible in the text. The general principle governing the distinction between materials for the text and those for the footnotes is that the movement of the text should not be clogged by references and illustrations.

4. To provide cross-reference to various parts of the thesis. Reference to materials appearing in the appendix, or appendixes, or in earlier or later portions of the manuscript, may, in the interest of clarity, be made in the footnotes.¹²

Single space and draw a solid line across the page to separate footnotes from the text. Double space between the solid line and the first footnote. There should be a

¹¹Campbell, op. cit., pp. 19-20.

five space indention for the first line of each footnote, and succeeding lines of the note should be carried out to the margin. There should be single spacing within the note, with double spacing between the notes. For example:

*Florence LaGanke Harris, and Ruth Adele Henderson, Foods, Their Nutritive Economic and Social Values, Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1949, p. 10.

*Jack Bailey, What's Cookin, Cleveland: The World Pub. Co., 1949, p. 21.

*Clyde Merrill Maguire, The Cokesbury Dinner And Banquet Book, Nashville: Abingdon-Cokesbury Press, 1953, p. 71.

There are three ways to number footnotes: (1) number the footnotes consecutively from the beginning to the end of the problem; (2) start a new numbering system for each section or chapter; (3) or start a new numbering system for each page.

It has been recommended that thesis or problem writers use the first method. By using this method, the author can employ cross references to his best advantage. For example, if the second method is used, the cross references may be made with abbreviated forms only within the same chapter. If the same author is to be used in separate chapters then a complete reference must be made to him in each chapter. If the third method is used by the author, the abbreviated form of cross reference may be employed only on the same page.

According to Turabian¹² the following information should be included in the footnotes.

1. Author's name with Christian name or initials first, followed by a comma.
2. Title of the book, underlined, followed by a comma.
3. The name of the editor or translator (if necessary).
4. The number of the edition (if necessary), followed by a semicolon.
5. The place of publication, followed by a colon.
6. The name of the publisher, followed by a comma.
7. The date of publication, followed by a comma.
8. The volume number, in capital Roman numerals, followed by a comma.
9. The page number, followed by a period.

In the case of an anonymous or unknown author, or where the authorship is not specified, the citation begins immediately with the title of the work, and order of alphabetization is determined by title rather than by author.¹³

Abbreviated Footnote Forms

Ibid. The Latin abbreviation *ibid* is used to avoid repetition of as much of the preceding citation as is unchanged when the same reference is used consecutively. If

¹²Kate L. Turabian, A Manual For Writers Of Dissertations, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1937, p. 15.

¹³Campbell, op. cit., p. 26.

the reference was made from a different page, the number of that page must follow the abbreviation. In the typed form, the word ibid. must be underlined to indicate italics.

*Jack Bailey, What's Cookin', Cleveland: The World Pub. Co., 1949, p. 21.

*Ibid., p. 55.

*Ibid., pp. 149-154.

Since ibid. is used in both of the citations above, the three footnotes would have to be consecutive, however they could be on different pages of the thesis or problem.

Op. cit. Op. cit. is used when references to the same source follow each other closely but not consecutively and when they are to different pages in that work. The author's last name, generally without given name or initials, must be repeated, followed by the abbreviation op. cit. In order to identify the reference, the author's last name must precede the op. cit. The page number, or volume and page number, closes the citation: For example:

*Ruth Moore, A Fair Wind Home, New York: William Morrow and Co., 1953, pp. 120-154.

*Jan De Hartog, The Little Ark, New York: Harper Brothers, 1953, pp. 132-140.

*Moore, Op. Cit., pp. 146-148.

Loc. cit. Loc. cit. is used when a second but nonconsecutive reference is made to the exact volume and page previously cited. The author's name must appear to identify the work, but page numbers never follow the form for the simple reason that they are unnecessary.

Tables

Placement of tables. Tables contain material that will be discussed in the text, or that are necessary to a clear understanding of interpretation of what has been written, therefore it should appear as near as possible to the discussion that relates to it. If the table has fewer than four or five enumerated items per column, it may be placed on the page with the discussion of its contents. Most tables are placed on a separate page, and no portion of context is typed on that page. This makes it much easier for the typist to reproduce the material.¹⁴

Numbering tables. Tables should be numbered consecutively, from the first to the last in the thesis. Tables should be numbered with capital Roman numerals.

Captions. The table number and the caption should be typed in capital letters throughout. The table number should occupy the first line, a double space should be made between it and the first line of the caption. If the caption is more than one line, it should be double spaced. A single space followed by a double rule should separate the columnar headings from the caption.¹⁵

Ruling of tables. No fast regulations are possible for the use of solid lines in the construction of tables, except that the author must be consistent. Rules are used in tables

¹⁴Ibid., p. 46.

¹⁵Turabian, op. cit., pp. 39-40

to prevent errors by guiding the eyes of the reader. Thus they should be left out if it will not increase the possibility of error or misreading.

"Double horizontal rules should be placed at the top of the table, a single horizontal rule below the column headings, and single or double horizontal rules at the bottom of the table."¹⁶

The following rules that have been set up by the Graduate Division of Kansas State Teachers College,¹⁷ should be considered in typing the table.

1. Type the word Table (in caps) and its number (in Roman numerals) centered horizontally on the page.
2. Center the title of the table (this title is also in caps) beneath the table number.
3. Make a double ruling across the page below the title, with single rulings within the table as needed and a double ruling at the end.
4. Use vertical single rulings where required.
5. Make the headings for the various columns in the table as concise as is consistent with clarity.
6. Use asterisks, letters, or other symbols at various points in the table to refer to any notes supplied by way of explanation. These notes should appear either immediately below the table or at the bottom of the page. In the latter case they should be separated from the regular footnotes by a short line drawn from the left margin.
7. Within the text, capitalize the initial letter of the word Table when referring to any specific table within the thesis.

¹⁶ Campbell, op. cit., p. 48

¹⁷ K.S.T.C., op. cit., p. 3

8. Arrange the text, whenever possible, so that the table will appear on the page that contains the discussion of the contents or meaning of the table. When this cannot be done, make certain at least that the table appears on the first page following mention made of it. A completely separate page should not be given to a table except when the table is large enough to warrant so much space.

Illustrations

The term "Figure" is used to denote any kind of graphic illustration that is not a table. A figure may be a diagram, chart, drawing, graph, photograph, photostat, map, histogram, blueprint, or any other type of illustration.

Good illustrations are more popular today than ever before because facts are readily grasped when properly presented in visual form. The average reader derives more benefit from an illustration than from a table or a word description of the data.¹⁸

Figures or illustrations should be numbered consecutively throughout the thesis or problem. The number of the figure in Arabic numerals and the title may appear either above or below the illustration. The most common practice is to place them below the illustration. After legends and explanatory matter a period should be used. The author may use either all capital letters or capitalize only important words in the title of the illustration.¹⁹

¹⁸ Campbell, op. cit., p. 50

¹⁹ K.S.T.C., op. cit., p. 3

Arrangement of Manuscript

The following list has been suggested by the Graduate Division of Kansas State Teachers College,²⁰ as the proper order to follow when assembling a thesis or problem.

- I. Title page
- II. Approval sheet
- III. Acknowledgements
- IV. Table of Contents
- V. Abstract
- VI. List of Tables
- VII. List of Figures
- VIII. Introduction (if any)
- IX. Body of the thesis
- X. Summary (not always included and sometimes combined with XI.)
- XI. Conclusions (not always included)

²⁰K.S.T.C., op. cit., p. 3

UNIT III

RESEARCH TECHNIQUES

A word, ^{should be said} on filing before going into the research techniques. Everyone should decide upon a method of filing material gathered for his research papers. Most people will find that a filing system involving edge markings on file cards, similar to those used in I.B.M. machines, are helpful.

With this method the research worker may decide his own code, which can be very versatile, for marking the edges of the card. The markings on the edge of the card will make the material more accessible for the research worker.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire is used to gather information from other persons who are presumed to know the information that the author of the questionnaire wants to know. Information acquired through the questionnaire usually pertains to fact or opinion. The questionnaire is generally regarded as more dependable when used to obtain statements of fact.²⁰

According to the textbook used in 390b,²¹ questionnaires are commonly used even within single cities. Usually if there is any other method of obtaining the information

²⁰Arvil S. Barr, Robert A. Davis, and Palmer O. Johnson, Educational Research and Appraisal, Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1953, pp. 65-66.

²¹Carter V. Good, A. S. Barr, and Douglas E. Scates, The Methodology of Educational Research, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1936, pp. 326.

that the author desires, it is better to use the other method rather than the questionnaire. For example, it is better if the author can go to the courthouse and find information than sending out a questionnaire directly to the person concerned.

The questionnaire is the best method for getting opinions, because the best way to state a question can be worked out before sending out the questionnaires. The questions on a questionnaire should be tried on several people to ascertain whether or not the questions are stated correctly, and to determine whether the time that it takes for a person to fill out the questionnaire.

As a general rule, it should not take any longer than ten minutes for filling in the questionnaire and getting it ready to send back to the author, or it should be cut down. The longer the questionnaire the less that the come back will be. Also the author should avoid essay type questions wherever possible.

The author should construct the questionnaire so that all of the answers appear on one side of the page. If there are several types of questions over the same material, the author should not give hints in one question that will cause the respondent to think that the author wants or expects this answer to another question.

In order that the author may get a better response on the questionnaires that he sends out he should:

1. Offer the respondent something that he is interested in.
2. Offer the respondent a summary of the results.
3. Try to have some "V. I. P." to endorse his effort, not just some professor.
4. Use a school letter head. Also it is better to have the questionnaire printed if possible.
5. Not ask for too much of the respondent's time.
6. Enclose a self addressed stamped envelope.

Library Research

The research worker may secure a great amount of assistance and information from the major types of educational literature. Probably the first place for the research worker to look for information is in some general guide, such as professional textbooks or reference works on the subject that he is interested.

Another source that the educational researcher should not miss is the Education Index. The purposes of this index is to index all educational books in the United States, except elementary and high-school textbooks; all articles in a large number of educational periodicals; other educational articles appearing in certain non-educational journals; and a large number of monographs, bulletins, reports, book reviews, courses of study, state documents, etc., of interest to educational workers.²²

²²C. V. Good, A. S. Barr, and D. E. Scates, The Methodology of Educational Research, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1936, pp. 324-327.

The researcher will then want to consult the Review of Educational Research, The Psychological Bulletin, School Review, Elementary School Journal, Monroe's Ten Years Of Educational Research, Locating Educational Information in Published Sources, Research Bulletin of the N. E. A., and canvass the annual bibliographies of research published by the United States Office of Education.

Other periodical indexes and abstracts are: International Index to Periodicals, Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature, Teachers Journal and Abstract, Educational Abstracts, Education Digest, Psychological Abstracts, Psychological Index, Occupational Index and Social Science Abstracts.²³

In order that the research worker may utilize the work that he does in the library, he should make his note cards with one idea on each card and mark the card clearly as to the author, title, and the page number from which the reference was extracted.

Interview

Perhaps the interview method of research is the one most practiced by the classroom teacher. This method can be employed directly to solve a person's problems.

Some people believe that it is better to interview thirty people than to send questionnaires to one-hundred people.

²³Ibid. ?

The one obstacle to the use of the interview method of research is that many times the interviewer's feelings get mixed with those of the person that he is interviewing. This is especially true when the subject is a controversial one. When the issues have strong feelings connected with them it is better to hire a stranger or a professional interviewer.

Another drawback to the use of the interview is that the answers to the questions may be colored or answered according to the way the interviewer wants the question answered.

According to Good, Barr, and Scates²⁴ there are four important limitations relating to the respondent:

1. his experience
2. his judgment
3. his accessibility and willingness to divulge the information
4. his ability to express himself clearly.

The condition of each of these factors should be known before the data is relied upon.

The interview provides opportunities for the use of tact. Some information can be secured by direct questions; much more can be secured indirectly. This is because the respondent recoils more or less from the thought of revealing certain information too openly and bluntly and does not know the significance of certain details which he fails to mention.

²⁴Ibid.

Case Study

The case-study technique has considerable advantage in dealing in practical ways with human relationships. The individual tends to get lost in the other tools for research, but with this method he comes into his own.

Generally speaking a case study has both longitudinal and horizontal aspects. It covers time as it goes back into the past history and brings its data right up to the present.

The longitudinal aspect is called the case history. The story of growth and development and incidents that have happened to the individual. Also in the case study there must be a diagnosis, prognosis, and follow up.

When doing a case study the research worker must take qualitative as well as quantitative data. He reports on traits of the person, identifies hereditary and environmental factors.

Careful planning should be done in advance before the research worker starts working on a case study. A case study usually isn't done alone, and the goal in collecting data is to get information equally for each child and have uniformity in attitude.

The research worker makes his prognosis, (predictions) separately for each person. This prognosis is drawn from a number of specific incidents, physical, emotional, moral, etc. Case studys are done on single persons. It is difficult to

apply the information obtained on a case study to generalize in group information.

Some of the uses of case studys are:

1. Investigate effects that enviornments are having on children.
2. Investigate the methods of instruction.
3. To investigate the unusual behavior and attitudes of children.
4. To investigate the human growth and development.

The disadvantages of a case study are that is is time consuming, and it takes more than one person to do it. It is difficult to generalize when the research worker is depending upon one person.

Sampling

Sampling is the selection of a part to represent the whole of a population. If the sample is to be unbiased, the units of the sample must be selected by some process that will provide a random sampling. For example, select every fifth house, every tenth name in the city directory, etc. This random sampling is necessary in order that the sampling group will represent the total population.

There are two types of sampling error, (1) those that result from the selection of the sampling group, and (2) those that are attributable to chance differences of the population which are or are not included in the sample.

In reporting the results of a sampling it is important to report to the reader the basis for the selection of the sampling group.

When a teacher makes a survey he usually is interested in something that he can use in the future. The survey usually includes the whole population in that school or community. Thus if the teacher wants to test the reading readiness of the children in the first grade, he would test the whole first grade. By testing the whole first grade he has no problem of sampling and margin for error, but the minute that he plans to use the results of his test group in relation to another group he has a sampling problem.²⁵

Many errors have been made because of poor sampling and many have been made in the name of representative sampling.

²⁵Arvil S. Barr, Davis and Johnson, Educational Research and Appraisal, Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1953, pp.158-187.

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