FASHION OPINION LEADERSHIP AND FASHION ADOPTION IN RELATION TO SOCIAL PARTICIPATION AND FAVORABLENESS TOWARD NEW STYLES IN UNIVERSITY WOMEN'S CLOTHING

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ABSTRACT

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By

Carol Ann Myers

The main purpose of this study was to compare the characteristics of three types of prestigious fashion leaders among university women (fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovators, and fashion dual leaders) and fashion non-leaders on favorableness toward new styles and social participation. A second objective was to compare each of the four sub-categories of respondents above with the rest of the subjects on the favorableness toward new styles variable in order to determine whether certain sub-categories were more emulative of group norms than others.

Rogers' generalization (Diffusion of Innovations, 1962) that opinion leaders must not be too different from others in order to communicate and carry out their influential role was the basis for the proposition that fashion opinion leaders would not differ significantly from others on favorableness toward new styles. The other three sub-categories were hypothesized to be more free to show non-conformity to group norms.

Questionnaires were mailed to 500 university women students who were randomly selected from the 12,765 women who met criteria for the population. Replies from 243 women were used in the statistical analysis of the data. The questionnaire included the following measures: (1) Schrank's Fashion Opinion Leadership measure, (2) a modification of Schrank's Fashion Innovativeness measure to assess fashion adoption, (3) a Favorableness Toward New Styles measure which was developed for the study, (4) a modification of Chapin's Social Participation Scale, and (5) a modification of the McGuire-White Index of Social Status based on the income, occupation, and education of the main wage earner. Background information concerning the respondents' year in university and marital status was obtained from the university enrollment records.

Data were analyzed primarily by Chi-square tests and post-hoc Chi-square comparisons of differences between groups. Pearson r correlations verified the Chi-square test results and measured the effects of marital status and year in university on the test variables (see 1-4 above). The .01 level of significance was the basis for the acceptance or rejectance of the hypotheses.

The findings of this study indicated that marital status, year in university, and socio-economic status were not influencing any of the test variables. The data revealed that highly significant positive relationships existed among fashion adoption, fashion opinion leadership,

and favorableness toward new styles. Neither fashion opinion leadership nor fashion adoption, however, was significantly related to social participation as measured by formal organizational participation in the university area, although slight positive relationships were found among the variables.

Respondents were divided into four mutually exclusive sub-categories based on their scores on the fashion adoption and fashion opinion leadership measures. Fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovators, fashion dual leaders, and fashion non-leaders did not differ significantly on social participation. Significant differences, however, were found among the four sub-categories on favorableness toward new styles. Further analysis of the data revealed that both fashion dual leaders and fashion opinion leaders were significantly different from fashion non-leaders.

Each of the four sub-categories was compared with the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles. Fashion opinion leaders and fashion innovators were not significantly different, while fashion dual leaders and fashion non-leaders were significantly different from the rest of the subjects. The findings seemed to indicate that fashion opinion leaders and fashion innovators show more emulation of group norms than fashion dual leaders or fashion non-leaders.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Social scientists have subscribed to the idea that the basis for fashion change as well as the controlling determinants are two polar motivations: (1) emulation or the desire to be like the group, and (2) differentiation or the desire for individual distinction.[1] Therefore, theories of fashion change should logically integrate these two polar concepts.

Fashion theorists, however, have generally emphasized either emulation or differentiation rather than the relationship between the two. As a result, researchers investigating fashion adoption and the diffusion of new

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[1]Paul H. Nystrom, Economics of Fashion (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1928), pp. 59-60, 80; Edward Sapir, "Fashion," Vol. VI, Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931), pp. 139-44 (hereinafter referred to as "Fashion"); Herbert Blumer, "Fashion: From Class Differentiation to Collective Selection," Sociological Quarterly, X (Summer, 1969), 275-91 (hereinafter referred to as "Collective Selection"); Georg Simmel, "Fashion," The American Journal of Sociology, LXII, No. 6 (May, 1957), 541-58 (hereinafter referred to as "Fashion"), reprinted from the International Quarterly, X (October, 1904), 130-55; J. C. Flugel, The Psychology of Clothes (New York: International Universities Press, Inc., 1969), pp. 138-40 (hereinafter referred to as Psychology of Clothes).

styles in women's clothing generally have been concerned with the causal, rather than reciprocal, relationship between certain prestigious individuals, who are influential in fashion acceptance, and the process of fashion change.

Prestigious fashion leaders are often considered to be nationally or internationally famous, or upper-class society women. Little research has been done to identify and profile other types of prestigious fashion leaders, such as those who are among the first to adopt, or personally influence others to adopt, new styles in their local social system. The local prestigious leader may be more influential in the diffusion and adoption of new styles than the stereotyped leader. If new styles are diffused within our society on both levels, a complete theory of fashion change must explain the roles and characteristics of both types of prestigious fashion leaders. Therefore, in this study, the diffusion of new styles in women's clothing will be investigated to determine what possible role emulation or differentiation may play in the acceptance of these new styles by prestigious individuals and their followers within a relatively confined social system, a university campus.

Young stated in 1937, that fashion ". . . must be sufficiently rapid to outmode previous years but it must be sufficiently slow to prevent the leaders from outdistancing

their followers."[1] The extent to which prestigious persons may, while maintaining their influential position, either differentiate themselves from others by wearing new styles, or conversely, reflect emulation by wearing clothing similar to their followers, is not known. Jack and Schiffer, in 1947, investigated the reciprocal roles of fashion promoters and followers and found that the extremes of clothing styles as shown in the mass media, were not accepted by the woman on the street. The question Jack and Schiffer sought to answer was: "what are the limits within which norm creators--in this case fashion designers--must remain if they are to be followed."[2] This study seeks to follow the diffusion process one step further than Jack and Schiffer to contribute to answering the question: will prestigious fashion leaders be followed if wearing or promoting extreme styles?

Today each new fashion season introduces greater numbers and varieties of clothing styles to consumers, yet many of these styles are completely rejected. Distributers of fashion need guidelines relative to how much, when, and what types of new styles may produce favorable

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[1]Agnes Brooks Young, Recurring Cycles of Fashion (New York: Harper and Row, 1937), p. 4. (Hereinafter referred to as Recurring Cycles.)

[2]Nancy K. Jack and Betty Schiffer, "The Limits of Fashion Control," American Sociological Review, XIII (1948), 730-38. (Hereinafter referred to as "Limits of Fashion.")

reactions from consumers for more intelligent management of store operations for the betterment of both the retailer and the consumer.

Although several empirical studies of fashion leadership have been conducted, the majority have examined individuals' conformity to the mode, rather than comparing different types of prestigious fashion leaders and their attitudes and adoption of new styles. In this study two recently introduced garment styles are used as a means to assess the differences among the sub-categories of respondents on their attitudes and behaviors. The new styles are: (1) mid-calf lengths of dresses and pants, and (2) "hot" pants, very short shorts. Differences among the attitudes of the four sub-categories of respondents may reveal differences in motives of emulation and differentiation, and thereby lead to a better understanding of the mechanism of fashion change.

The popular literature in the late 60's and early 70's has suggested that university women are independent and "do their own thing" in dress. However, casual observations of college campuses seem to indicate that dress is fairly uniform for many, but some women stand out because of their fashionable dress. This apparent discrepancy may indicate that innovators have more favorable attitudes toward new clothing styles than others. Or, possibly certain groups within the population

may also have differing needs for fashionable clothing due to differences in social participation.

Rogers,[1] a rural sociologist and communications theorist, has developed a theory of the diffusion and adoption of innovations which includes generalizations concerning the characteristics of certain typical prestigious leaders in relation to group norms on innovativeness. Rogers' theory has been utilized in a few studies of leadership in the adoption of new fabrics and clothing styles.[2] While these studies have supported some of Rogers' generalizations concerning the characteristics of opinion leaders and innovators, many variables including attitudes toward new styles and social participation have been given little attention.

The main objective of this study was to determine, using Rogers' theory of the adoption and diffusion of innovations, if there are differences among three types of prestigious fashion leaders (fashion opinion leaders,

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[1]Everett Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations (New York: The Free Press, 1962), pp. 303-14.

[2]George M. Beal and Everett M. Rogers, "Informational Sources in the Adoption Process of New Fabrics," Journal of Home Economics, XXXXIX, No. 8 (October, 1957), 630-34 (hereinafter referred to as "Information Sources"); Holly Lois Schrank, "Fashion Innovativeness and Fashion Opinion Leadership as Related to Social Insecurity, Attitudes Toward Conformity, Clothing Interest and Socioeconomic Level" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Ohio State University, 1970) (hereinafter referred to as "Fashion Innovation").

fashion innovators, and fashion dual leaders) and fashion non-leaders on the following selected variables: (1) social participation, and (2) favorableness toward new styles.

A second objective was to compare each of the four sub-categories of respondents above with the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles, in order to determine whether certain sub-categories are more emulative of group norms than others. If fashion opinion leaders' attitudes toward new styles are similar to the attitudes of the rest of the subjects, then Rogers' theory, that the more influential leaders show a greater amount of emulation or conformity to group norms than other prestigious leaders, is valid.

A third objective was developed during the execution of the present study when a need became evident for: (1) the classification and clarification of the fashion terminology employed, and (2) the development and refinement of measures of the variables studied for further research.

Knowledge of the characteristics of prestigious fashion leaders and the limits of fashion control (the balance of the forces, emulation and differentiation), could help home economists to: (1) cooperate with marketers in narrowing the gap between research and development and actual consumer use of new fibers,

fabrics, and garments, (2) spread consumer information concerning the selection, use and care of textiles and apparel, (3) speculate about and perhaps predict fads and modes, and (4) assist consumers in making their style preferences and other apparel needs known to designers, manufacturers and retailers. An investigation of the roles of prestigious fashion leaders would be a contribution to existing knowledge concerning fashion change, human behavior, and social control.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The review of the pertinent literature including theory and empirical research will be presented in the following sections: (1) the meaning of fashion, (2) theories of fashion acceptance, (3) characteristics of prestigious fashion leaders, and (4) methodologies used to measure fashion acceptance and prestigious fashion leaders.

The Meaning of Fashion

Terms such as fashion, style, fad, taste, mode, and fashion trend have had conflicting and popularized meanings. For example, various authors have used the following definitions of the term "fashion": fashion is transitory usage, a series of recurring changes, a social custom, a form of luxury, a department of the mores, collective behavior, and a form of social regulation. Young stated that the various definitions of fashion could be conceptually categorized in three ways: (1) a product, (2) the process of change, and (3) collective behavior.

All definitions, however, dealt with qualities of fashion rather than quantities.[1] Precise linguistic definitions are needed for research interpretation and replication,[2] and these definitions must be operationalized in quantitative terms to be of use.

Fashion may be quantitatively defined in two ways: (1) fashion as the mode,[3] or (2) fashion as the newest style.[4] Modal fashion, or the prevailing styles at any given time, is determined by a fashion count of that style which is worn most frequently. Quantifying fashion, when defined as the newest styles, involves procedures such as determining and calculating percentages of both new styles worn and offerings in fashion publications and clothing stores. Fashion counts of styles worn least frequently may not locate new styles due to intervening factors such as income or the fact that the particular style represents a declining mode.

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[1]Young, Recurring Cycles, p. 201.

[2]Jean D. Schlater, Frances M. Magrabi, and Joanne B. Eicher, "Social Science Methodology," Journal of Home Economics, LV, No. 6 (June, 1963), 424-25.

[3]Nystrom, Economics of Fashion, p. 4; Jeanette Jarnow and Beatrice Judelle, Inside the Fashion Business (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1965), p. 2.

[4]Emory S. Bogardus, Essentials of Social Psychology (Los Angeles: J. R. Miller Press, 1923), p. 121.

Since the primary focus of this study was on the processes of the diffusion and adoption of innovations, fashion was conceptually defined as a process or change. New styles or innovations were considered synonyms for the term fashion. Fashion was operationally defined in this study as: an innovation in styles or some element of a style which has recently been introduced, which is perceived as new, and which a small percentage of the social system has adopted at one point in time.

The distinction between fashions and short-lived fashions or fads, becomes evident after the fact and is dependent on the nature of their acceptance cycle. Wasson generalized that modal fashions when compared to fads have: " . . . an initially slower rise to popularity, a plateau of continuing popularity and a slow rather than an abrupt decline."[1]

Bogardus' twenty-five-year study of fads revealed that they were adopted quickly and declined rapidly, the majority surviving less than six months.[2] After his two-year study of fads Janney made the following distinction between fads and fashion: "A fad is here defined as a precipitate but short-lived deviation in some article or

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[1]Chester R. Wasson, "How Predictable Are Fashion and Other Product Life Cycles?" Journal of Marketing, XXXII (July, 1968), 36-43.

[2]Emory S. Bogardus, "Social Psychology of Fads," Journal of Applied Sociology, VIII (1923), 239-43.

articles of clothing . . . fashions are slower to originate, last longer and are less striking in deviation from the current mode."[1] Blumer believed that one of the fundamental ways in which fashion differs from fads was that "fads have no line of historical continuity; each springs up independently of a forerunner and gives rise to no successor."[2]

Since this study was concerned with that stage in the process of the diffusion of new styles when only a small percentage of individuals have adopted the style, the distinction between fads and fashions can only be speculated about but cannot be predicted. New styles are neither fads nor modes but may become one or the other after a period of time. In order to understand the nature of the relationships between the diffusion and adoption of new styles and the characteristics of individuals who first adopt them, theories of fashion acceptance must be studied. These theories are discussed in the following section.

Theories of Fashion Acceptance

The "trickle-down" theory of fashion diffusion, developed in the late 1800's by economists and social

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[1]J. E. Janney, "Fad and Fashion Leadership Among Undergraduate Women," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, XXXVI (1941), 275-78. (Hereinafter referred to as "Fad and Fashion Leadership.")

[2]Blumer, "Collective Selection," p. 283.

psychologists, had been more or less accepted by home economists and others until recent years. Simmel, a sociologist writing in 1904, was among the first to delineate the "trickle-down" theory and its concommitant view of class differentiation and the acceptance of new clothing styles. He described the process of fashion change as follows:

> Just as soon as the lower classes begin to copy their [the elite's] style, thereby crossing the line of demarcation the upper classes have drawn and destroying the uniformity of their coherence, the upper classes run away from this style and adopt a new one, which in its turn differentiates them from the masses: and thus the game goes merrily on.[1]

Although Simmel's concern was not how new styles were copied by the lower classes he implied that prestigious fashion leadership was involved in the process of fashion acceptance.

Simmel believed that fashion existed because of the need to reconcile two opposing forces: (1) differentiation and (2) uniformity. He discussed two types of individuals representative of these two polar forces:

1. The "Dude," who relying on personal conviction, experiments with more extreme clothing styles than others wear. He "leads the way" yet allows himself to be led by the group.
2. The "Imitator," who exerts little individuality but wears clothing similar to that worn by society.[2]

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[1]Simmel, "Fashion," pp. 543-45.

[2]Ibid., pp. 543, 549.

Simmel stated that although the social demands of fashion appear to influence both types of individuals, these demands appeared most exaggerated in the Dude. Simmel's statement that "infinite" proportions of the two polar types of individuals exist implies that several types of prestigious fashion leaders may, in fact, exist.[1] Furthermore, some of these prestigious leader types may be less conforming in their dress than others.

The problem of reconciling the prestigious leaders' freedom in the selection of clothing styles with the pressure of society to conform was also recognized by "trickle-down" exponents Flugel and Sapir. In 1929, Flugel cited several historical examples of fashions which had failed to become generally accepted, in order to make this generalization about fashion: "Fashions, if they are to be successful must be in accordance with certain ideals current at the time they are launched." Flugel also stated that there is a direct relationship between the prestige of the launcher of fashions and the degree of difference that he can bridge in his attempted innovation.[2] Sapir, a social scientist, stated in 1931, that features of fashion which do not conform to the unconscious social ideals of a given culture are relatively insecure. "The fashion designer must have a sure feeling for established custom and

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[1] Ibid., p. 542.

[2] Flugel, Psychology of Clothes, pp. 47-54, 143.

the degree to which he can safely depart from it." Sapir believed fashion was custom in the guise of departure from custom.[1] Although the two authors presented their views in slightly different ways, both seem to indicate that group norms do have some limiting or controlling effect on the promoters' and innovators' selection of new styles. While Simmel, Flugel, Sapir and other "trickle-down" theorists seem to have acknowledged the influence of group norms on prestigious fashion leaders they were primarily concerned with the converse influence, that of the prestigious leaders on the group.

Some shortcomings of the "trickle-down" theory were pointed out by Whyte when he proposed his theory of "inconspicuous consumption" in 1956. Whyte wrote about the pressures of the corporate organization on the attitudes and consumption of the American suburbanite. He stated that the philosophy of "keeping up with the Joneses" and the vaunting of worldly goods has been replaced with the idea of "keeping up with the group":

> . . . it is the group that determines whan a luxury becomes a necessity. Just as the group punishes its members for buying prematurely, so it punishes them for not buying.[2]

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[1]Sapir, "Fashion," p. 141.

[2]William H. Whyte, Jr., The Organization Man (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1957), pp. 346-47.

Whyte's theory has implications for the influence of group norms on prestigious fashion leaders.

Changes in United States' society in recent years indicate that the theory of the vertical flow of fashions from a prestigious elite to the lower socio-economic classes may require further review. In his rebuttle to the "trickle-down" theory in 1964, King presents the following evidence against the traditional theory:

> 1) income redistribution has resulted in an enlarged middle class with increased purchasing power, 2) mass communication media accelerate the spread of fashion awareness, 3) new styles are introduced nearly simultaneously in Paris and to the American mass consumer in a wide variety of price lines, 4) price lines vary only in subtle differences in quality rather than in obvious style features.[1]

King's empirical data on the adoption of women's millinery indicated that personal fashion information exchange moved horizontally within the same social status level. He found that the "innovators," or the first 35 per cent of the 303 Boston women to purchase new hats, were not consistently "upper class," but were of higher socio-economic levels than the late buyers. Furthermore, "influentials" were dispersed throughout all socio-economic levels and the largest numbers of these fashion opinion

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[1]Charles W. King, "Fashion Adoption: A Rebuttal to the 'Trickle-Down' Theory," Proceedings of the Winter Conference of the American Marketing Association (Boston, Mass., December 27-28, 1963), pp. 108-25. (Hereinafter referred to as "A Rebuttal.")

leaders were in the late buyer groups. Although King recognized that there was some "trickling-down" via the ranks of the designers, manufacturers, and retailers, he proposed a "trickle-across" theory to explain the process of fashion adoption within a social system.[1] Therefore, according to King's "trickle-across" theory of fashion, emulation and differentiation are likely to occur within rather than between social strata as the "trickle-down" theorists believed.

A later theory termed "collective selection" which was proposed by Blumer in 1969, also seems to reject certain aspects of the "trickle-down" theory. Although Blumer acknowledged the importance of an elite group in the acceptance of fashion, he believed that fashion transcends the elite. Blumer stated that the prestige of the elite affects but does not control taste or "cause" fashion as the "trickle-down" theorists believed:

> . . . it is the suitability or potential fashionableness of the design which allows the prestige of the elite to be attached to it. The design has to correspond to the direction of incipient taste of the fashion consuming public.[2]

Blumer explained that the endorsement of a new style by the elite enhanced the probability of its adoption but he added that not all prestigious persons were innovators and

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[1] Ibid., pp. 115, 121-22.

[2] Blumer, "Collective Selection," p. 280.

innovators were not necessarily those persons with the highest prestige.[1] He implied that prestigious fashion leaders were able to introduce only those fashions which were consistent with developing tastes.

Since theories of class differentiation apparently do not adequately explain the process of fashion change and since Blumer did not specify the details of the mechanism of fashion change on the level of the individual, a theoretical framework is needed with which to investigate fashion change and prestigious fashion leadership on the local level.

An interdisciplinary theory from the fields of rural sociology and communications, developed by Rogers in 1962, deals with the adoption of innovations by individuals within a social system. Rogers' theory is applicable to studies of prestigious fashion leaders and their acceptance of textiles and apparel. Rogers has summarized over 500 research studies on the adoption of innovations in diverse fields such as medical sociology, anthropology, agriculture, education, marketing, and rural sociology.[2]

Rogers suggested that classification of individuals in adopter categories should be on the basis of time of adoption in relation to other individuals within the

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[1] Ibid., p. 281.

[2] Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 5.

social system. Research findings show that adoption follows a normal distribution over time and an "s" curve when plotted cumulatively. Therefore, Rogers based the following adopter categories on standard deviations of the normal curve: (1) innovators, the first 2 1/2 per cent to adopt, (2) early adopters, the next 13 1/2 per cent to adopt, (3) early majority, the next 17 1/2 per cent, (4) late majority, the next 51 per cent to adopt, and (5) laggards or the last 16 per cent to adopt.[1]

Rogers stated that both adopters and rejectors of innovations may be classified by two types of opinion leadership: (1) active, and (2) passive. He defined opinion leaders as those individuals who have a greater or unequal share of influence upon others. Thus, Rogers' model contained the four following categories: (1) active adopters, who adopt and influence; (2) active rejectors, who reject and influence; (3) passive adopters, who adopt and do not influence; and (4) passive rejectors, who neither adopt nor influence.[2]

Rogers suggested that differences in innovativeness among the four types of leaders may be discovered by an analysis of the norms of the social system. Individuals in social systems with norms oriented toward change generally view change favorably and are predisposed to adopt

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[1] Ibid., pp. 152, 164-65. [2] Ibid., p. 210.

new ideas more rapidly than individuals in traditional systems. Rogers implies that although all individuals in a social system generally reflect the norms of the social system to some extent, the opinion leader may show a greater amount of conformity to those norms than the innovator.[1]

Both Schrank[2] and Sproles[3] stated that many of the shortcomings of most current research and theories concerning fashion change are due to the failure to distinguish between the roles of different types of prestigious fashion leaders. Most investigators have been concerned with only one leader's role. For example, Katz and Lazarsfeld[4] and Summers[5] investigated the fashion opinion leader but not the innovator. Only those

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[1] Ibid., pp. 197, 245-47.

[2] Schrank, "Fashion Innovation," p. 80.

[3] George Bryan Sproles, "A Profile Analysis of the Durable Press Clothing Information Communicator" (unpublished Master's thesis, Purdue University, 1968), pp. 124, 131. (Hereinafter referred to as "Durable Press Information Communicator.")

[4] Elihu Katz and Paul Lazarsfeld, Personal Influence: The Part Played by People in the Flow of Mass Communications (New York: The Free Press, 1955), pp. 247-70. (Hereinafter referred to as Personal Influence.)

[5] John O. Summers, "The Identity of Women's Clothing Fashion Opinion Leaders," Journal of Marketing Research, VII (May, 1970), 178-85. (Hereinafter referred to as "Fashion Opinion Leaders.")

studies by Goodell,[1] King,[2] Robertson and Myers,[3] and Schrank[4] included data on fashion opinion leaders, innovators, and their assumed followers or non-leaders. The findings of the latter studies indicated that a combination leader type, the influential or "active adopter" suggested by Rogers, may exist. Upon close examination, four groups similar to those described by Rogers, seem also to have existed in Janney's study of faddists.[5] Goodell stated that Rogers' concept of passive adopters (fashion innovators) was consistent with emulative fashion theories.[6] Rogers' theory, therefore, appears to be suitable for research dealing with prestigious fashion leaders.

The theories of fashion acceptance which were discussed in this section of the literature were: (1) the

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[1]Anne Stubenrauch Goodell, "Comparison of Two Techniques for the Identification of Fashion Leaders" (unpublished Master's thesis, Ohio State University, 1967). (Hereinafter referred to as "Two Techniques.")

[2]King, "A Rebuttal."

[3]Thomas S. Robertson and James H. Myers, "Personality Correlates of Opinion Leadership and Innovative Buying Behavior," Journal of Marketing Research, VI (May, 1969), 164-68. (Hereinafter referred to as "Innovative Buying Behavior.")

[4]Schrank, "Fashion Innovation."

[5]Janney, "Fad and Fashion Leadership," pp. 275-78.

[6]Goodell, "Two Techniques," p. 10.

classic "trickle-down" theory including Simmel's views of class differentiation, and Flugel's and Sapir's ideas about influence of the group on the styles selected by the fashion promoters and prestigious fashion leaders; (2) Whyte's theory of "inconspicuous consumption"; (3) Blumer's theory of "collective-selection"; (4) the "trickle-across" theory proposed by King; and (5) Rogers' theory of the diffusion and adoption of innovations. Regardless of differences in theoretical perspectives, writers seem to agree that fashion diffusion is a process involving both emulation and differentiation.

Rogers' theory, however, appears to be the only one which attempts to define and operationalize the interrelationships between these two polar concepts, as he relates individuals innovativeness to group norms on innovativeness. Therefore, the generalizations Rogers made concerning the characteristics of innovators and opinion leaders have been utilized as the theoretical basis for this study. Selected characteristics of prestigious fashion leaders who were derived from Rogers' model will be discussed in the following section of the review of the literature.

Characteristics of Prestigious Fashion Leaders

Researchers investigating prestigious fashion leaders have generally studied these influentials on one of two dimensions: (1) influentials compared to

non-influentials (Rogers,[1] King,[2] Goodell,[3] and Summers[4]); and (2) influentials compared to all other respondents in the sample (Sproles[5]). A limited number of research studies could be found presenting comparisons among the three types of prestigious fashion influentials (fashion innovators, fashion opinion leaders, and fashion dual leaders) and fashion non-leaders. Therefore, since the objective of this study was to make comparisons among the characteristics of the prestigious fashion leaders, reviews of research findings were grouped according to selected characteristics for each type of fashion influential.

The pertinent empirical findings and theoretical interpretations concerning selected characteristics of prestigious fashion leaders will be discussed and summarized in the three sub-sections which follow: (1) fashion opinion leaders, (2) fashion innovators, and (3) fashion dual leaders. The characteristics discussed will be limited to those which are relevant to the variables to be

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[1]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations.

[2]King, "A Rebuttle."

[3]Goodell, "Two Techniques."

[4]Summers, "Fashion Opinion Leaders."

[5]Sproles, "Durable Press Information Communicator."

investigated in this study: (1) favorableness toward new styles, and (2) social participation.

Fashion Opinion Leaders

Favorableness Toward New Styles.--Rogers generalized that opinion leaders conform more closely to the social system's norms than the average member.[1] Since opinion leaders are likely to be more innovative if community norms favor innovation, they could likewise be expected to have favorable attitudes toward new clothing styles if attitudes of the group favored fashion change.

No empirical studies were found which included a measure of "Favorableness Toward New Styles" as defined in this study. However, measures similar to this variable including "Style Preference," "Venturesomeness," or "Experimentation with Clothing" might be related to favorableness toward new styles or fashion change, and might, therefore, be appropriate to report in this sub-section of the literature review.

In this category only one study was applicable. In 1967, Summers found opinion leaders enjoyed testing and experimenting with new clothing styles. However, he concluded that "venturesomeness" in women's clothing is not necessary to fashion opinion leadership since 22 per cent of the 609 homemakers in his study indicated that

[1]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, pp. 233-36.

they preferred to buy classic styles that are well accepted.[1]

Social Participation.--Rogers' generalizations which are relevant to a discussion of the relationship between opinion leadership and social participation were somewhat conflicting. For example, Rogers stated that diffusion research indicated that there is little overlapping among the different types of opinion leaders: ". . . an individual who is an opinion leader for innovations is not likely also to be influential in political affairs." However, Rogers also stated that opinion leaders are more cosmopolitan, have more social participation, and more face-to-face contacts with others than their "followers." He stated that although the majority of research indicates that opinion leaders participate to a greater extent in both formal and informal social activities than non-opinion leaders, they are not necessarily the powerholders in the community.[2]

In the studies of Katz and Lazarsfeld and Sproles fashion opinion leaders as each defined them, seemed to be characterized primarily by informal leadership roles. Katz and Lazarsfeld found that fashion opinion leaders or

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[1]Summers, "Fashion Opinion Leaders," p. 182.

[2]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, pp. 233-36, 239-41.

"everyday influentials," as they were termed, served informal rather than formal groups and guided rather than led the opinions of neighbors and friends. Women with wide social contacts were more apt to be fashion opinion leaders than women with few contacts. Katz and Lazarsfeld also revealed that the more "gregarious" the woman, as measured by her self-estimate of the number of informal, intimate friendships and the number of memberships in clubs or organizations, the more likely she was to be a fashion leader.[1] Data from Sproles' study of 1,000 homemakers, as a part of the New Product Adoption and Diffusion Research Project in 1968, indicated that one significant predictor of fashion opinion leadership was the number of social activities including night club and outdoor activities.[2]

Further evidence for the existence of a positive relationship between fashion opinion leadership and formal as well as informal social participation was indicated in Marshall's study of 100 fraternity men. "Fashion information leaders," the fashion opinion leaders in her study, were well integrated into the group as indicated by their

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[1]Katz and Lazarsfeld, Personal Influence, pp. 247-70.

[2]Sproles, "Durable Press Information Communicator, pp. 119-20.

high social interaction scores. They also held more offices than non-fashion opinion leaders.[1]

Summers stated that organizational and social activities can promote leadership in women's fashions by: "(1) requiring fashion involvement, (2) creating opportunities for visual gathering of fashion information, and (3) involve social settings appropriate for transmitting fashion information."[2] The fashion opinion leaders in Summers' study had a greater amount of formal and informal social participation than non-fashion opinion leaders.[3]

The above literature review indicates that fashion opinion leaders are generally characterized by active participation in informal and formal social activities, and possess attitudes similar to those of the group.

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[1]Eileen Marshall, "Leadership in Men's Fashions Associated with Selected Social Characteristics for a Group of Fraternity Men" (unpublished Master's thesis, Pennsylvania State University, 1964), pp. 39, 48. (Hereinafter referred to as "Leadership in Men's Fashions.")

[2]Summers, "Fashion Opinion Leaders," p. 180.

[3]Ibid, p. 183.

Fashion Innovators

Favorableness Toward New Styles.--Laver has generalized that attitudes toward clothing are altered over time:

> the same costume will be indecent 10 years before its time, outre (daring) one year before its time, smart at the time it is currently being worn, dowdy one year after its time, hideous 10 years after its time, quaint 50 years after its time and beautiful 150 years after its time.[1]

The separate studies of Tousignant, Johnson, and Holly support Laver's idea that most individuals have unfavorable attitudes toward new styles when they are first introduced but that these attitudes gradually become more favorable over time. The seventy-six sorority women in Tousignant's study generally had an attitude of dislike toward new styles. Within three months time 38 per cent had accepted the new styles, within six months an additional 24 per cent had also changed their attitudes, and within a year nearly everyone had grown to like and accept the clothing styles. Since Tousignant found that a lack of new styles in the women's wardrobes was not necessarily due to unfavorableness toward new styles but often due to economic reasons, she concluded that students' acceptance of new styles was not significantly

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[1]James Laver, Taste and Fashion (London: George Harrap and Co., Ltd., 1937), p. 225.

reflected in their wardrobes.[1] Approximately one-half of the teenagers and one-third of their mothers in Johnson's study stated that they preferred to wear clothing styles after many other people were wearing them.[2] More than three-fourths of the 112 women in Holley's study said they enjoyed dressing according to the latest fashion but few women said they wanted to be the first to wear the latest 1970 fashions. One-half to three-fourths of the women desired clothing similar to that of their peers.[3]

The findings of the three preceding studies indicating that the majority of individuals at first dislike new styles are consistent with Rogers' generalizations that the predominant values of the "early majority" and "late majority" of adopters are deliberateness and skepticism respectively. Rogers contrasts the values of the two slowly adopting categories above with that of the innovators, characterized by venturesomeness. Innovators, who are by definition, the first individuals in a social

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[1]Rosanna P. Tousignant, "Fashion Acceptance by Selected College Students" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Rhode Island, 1959), pp. 35-36, 58. (Hereinafter referred to as "Fashion Acceptance.")

[2]Judith Johnson, "An Exploratory Study of Diffusion of Fashion with Mothers and Teen-Age Daughters" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Nebraska, 1967), p. 53.

[3]Zelda Holley, "Opinions of University Women Regarding the Relative Importance of Thermal Comfort, Conformity and Fashion" (unpublished Master's thesis, Kansas State University, 1970), p. 34.

system to adopt new ideas, have more favorable attitudes toward new ideas and also perceive themselves deviants from the norms of their social systems.[1]

Pasnak supports Rogers' proposition that innovators, unlike the rest of the group, have favorable attitudes toward innovations. Pasnak compared fashion innovators with non-innovators on eight clothing attitude measures and found that fashion innovators scored significantly higher on five measures. Innovativeness was defined by a single question concerning the university women's relative time of adoption and by the investigator's assessment of the fashionableness of the respondent's favorite dressy coat and dress.[2]

One explanation for the apparent difference between the favorable attitudes of the fashion innovator and the unfavorable attitudes of the majority of individuals in the above studies may be because innovators have an outside reference group with favorable attitudes toward new styles. Rogers states that one of the consequences of innovators' deviation from the norms of the social system is a shift or change in reference

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[1]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, pp. 169-70, 193-98.

[2]Mary Francis Drank Pasnak, "Fashion Innovators Compared with Non-Innovators on Clothing Attitudes, Self-Actualization, and Tolerance of Ambiguity" (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, 1968), p. 96. (Hereinafter referred to as "Fashion Innovators.")

group.[1] Grindereng's finding that the "early adopters" in her study were relatively free from the dress standards of their friends or relatives and utilized nationally or internationally famous women as frames of reference,[2] seems to support Rogers' statement.

Social Participation.--Rogers' synthesis of adoption-diffusion research suggests that there is a positive relationship between the five adopter categories and the amount of social participation. Rogers stated that innovators are more cosmopolitan and are relatively less involved in social relationships at the local community level than are early adopters. Rogers, noted that innovators are likely to belong to cliques and formal organizations outside their social system.[3]

The findings of Warden's study imply that individuals who participate in formal social organizations may also perhaps be innovators in the wearing of new styles. Warden found approximately one-fourth of the 135 University women in her 1957 study reported that they

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[1]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, pp. 203-04.

[2]Margaret Pauline Grindereng, "Fashion Diffusion: A Study by Price Range of Style Dispersion and Style Leadership" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Ohio State University, 1965), p. 114. (Hereinafter referred to as "Fashion Diffusion.")

[3]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, pp. 169-73, 183.

needed special clothes they would not otherwise need in order to belong to certain campus organizations.[1]

The following studies seem to support Rogers' belief that social participation and innovativeness may be positively related. In their separate studies, Janney, Glickman, Perkins, Sohn, Marshall, Robertson and Myers, and Van Staden found that innovators, as each defined them, were likely to be leaders in other areas of group activities.

Janney's study indicated that fads were initiated by college women who were also members of prestige bearing cliques and leaders in other types of social activities. Women who were insensitive to fads were in general insensitive and unskilled in other types of social situations.[2]

In Glickman's study of 511 fifth through tenth grade boys, the boys who were "clothing leaders" (innovators) were often leaders in cooperative and organized groups. Glickman concluded that clothing leadership was a specific kind of leadership which, though related, was distinct from various aspects of group leadership.[3]

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[1]Jessie Warden, "Some Desires or Goals for Clothing of College Women," Journal of Home Economics, XLIX, No. 10 (December, 1957), 795-96.

[2]Janney, "Fads and Fashion Leadership," pp. 275-78.

[3]Albert S. Glickman, "Clothing Leadership Among Boys" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Ohio State

Marshall revealed that those fraternity men in her study who were self-designated innovators also were more socially integrated and held more offices and memberships in campus organizations than non-fashion innovators.[1] Innovators among the college men in Sohn's study[2] and among the college women in Perkins' study[3] tended to be leaders in other areas. Robertson and Myers reported that innovativeness in clothing correlated somewhat with sociability or an outgoing and participative temperament.[4] Van Staden found a significant relationship between the

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University, 1952), p. 248. (Hereinafter referred to as "Clothing Leadership.")

[1]Marshall, "Leadership in Men's Fashions," pp. 46-47.

[2]Marjorie Ann Sohn, "Personal-Social Characteristics of Clothing Fashion Leaders Among Fraternity Men" (unpublished Master's thesis, Pennsylvania State University, 1959), p. 49. (Hereinafter referred to as "Clothing Fashion Leaders.")

[3]Olive Perkins, "An Investigation of the Clothing Fads and Fashions of a Group of Freshmen College Women and the Reasons for Accepting or Rejecting Some Popular Campus Clothes" (unpublished Master's thesis, Cornell University, 1958), p. 41. (Hereinafter referred to as "Clothing Fads and Fashions.")

[4]Robertson and Myers, "Innovative Buying Behavior," p. 166.

leadership role in high school and wearing the mode for the boys (defined by the boys as prestige clothing). The girls, however, did not perceive the mode as prestigious but indicated that other styles were prestigious and that wearing them was related to leadership roles.[1]

Contrary to the above studies, the findings of Goodell, and Freedle, revealed that social participation may not be related to innovativeness. For one of the two sororities she compared, Goodell found no relationship between innovativeness, as determined sociometrically, (or "passive leadership") and social participation. The correlation between innovativeness and social participation for the other sorority was only slight.[2] Freedle's investigation showed that the low social participators among the 151 university women studied chose "style" as their motive in the selection of their last major clothing purchase while the high social participators chose "fit" over "style."[3]

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[1]Francine Johanna Van Staden, "The Relationship of Prestigious Clothing to Acceptance by the Peer Group of Adolescent Boys and Girls" (unpublished Master's thesis, Michigan State University, 1970), pp. 52-54. (Hereinafter referred to as "Prestigious Clothing.")

[2]Goodell, "Two Techniques," p. 51.

[3]Johnnie Alice Denton Freedle, "Clothing Interest and Social Participation as Related to Clothing Selection and Buying Processes of the College Woman" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Tennessee, 1968), pp. 39-40.

The majority of the studies in the literature review above revealed that fashion innovators were likely to be leaders in other areas of group activities. While some research showed fashion innovators were active in formal leadership roles; other investigators found fashion innovators were informal leaders. A few studies indicated that social participation may not be related to innovativeness. The innovator, unlike the majority of the group, generally had favorable attitudes toward new styles and was among the first to adopt them. The proposition that the innovator's actual reference group may be outside their local friendship structure, was the explanation given for the venturesomeness of the fashion innovator.

Fashion Dual Leaders

Rogers noted that "there seem to be some opinion leaders in almost every adopter category," indicating that some individuals may serve a dual function, that of opinion leader and innovator. Although Rogers conceptualized the existence of "active adopters" he did not make generalizations concerning the characteristics of these persons since little research includes a differentiation of this type of individual.[1] Several researchers have investigated both fashion opinion leadership and fashion innovativeness

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[1]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 243.

but the majority did not report the extent to which these two roles occurred in the same individuals. Lately, however, a few investigators have studied the characteristics of active adopters as each defined them. Therefore, in this sub-section of the literature review, studies concerned with the relationship between the variables fashion adoption and fashion opinion leadership will be discussed in addition to the limited number of recent studies of fashion dual leadership.

The findings of several studies seem to support a positive relationship between fashion opinion leadership and fashion innovativeness. Marshall discovered that both the "fashion leader," an innovator measured by a sociometric technique, and the "fashion innovator," a self-designated innovator, were sought out by others for information.[1] Marshall, however, did not have mutually exclusive sub-groups. In Sproles study, opinion leadership and innovativeness, as revealed by ownership of new man-made fibers, were significantly correlated.[2] Although the findings of both Marshall and Sproles seem to suggest the

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[1]Marshall, "Leadership in Men's Fashions," p. 48.

[2]Sproles, "Durable Press Information Communicator," p. 119.

possibility of the existence of fashion dual leaders, neither researcher was concerned with this combination type of leader.

Further evidence of a positive relationship between fashion adoption and fashion opinion leadership was indicated by Schrank's research. Among the 145 university women Schrank studied, high innovativeness was accompanied by high opinion leadership.[1] Schrank investigated the extent of overlap of fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership occurring within the same individuals. Approximately one-third of her respondents fell into an overlapping group which she termed "fashion dual leaders." The fashion dual leaders of her study were those respondents who scored high on both the fashion opinion leadership and fashion innovativeness measures.[2] Therefore, they were a mutually exclusive group which was distinct from those individuals who scored high on only one of the measures for innovativeness or fashion opinion leadership. Schrank compared fashion dual leaders with innovators and opinion leaders on time-of-adoption and found that dual leaders were the earliest of the three groups to adopt. Dual leaders, in fact, scored significantly higher on time of adoption than innovators.[3]

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[1] Schrank, "Fashion Innovation," p. 67.

[2] Ibid., p. 59.

[3] Ibid., pp. 70-71.

Although Goodell, like Schrank, investigated fashion dual leaders, Goodell did not have mutually exclusive groups. Goodell found that "active leadership" (fashion dual leadership as determined sociometrically) was related to the respondents' scores on a style list and the number of styles owned for both of the sororities she studied. "Passive leadership," fashion innovativeness, was also positively correlated with self-designated leadership, fashion opinion leadership, for both sororities.[1]

Robertson and Myers' data on the buying behavior of ninty-five California housewives showed opinion leadership and innovativeness correlated to some extent for the clothing product variable. They concluded that although opinion leadership and innovativeness may overlap, the amount is small and not great enough to equate innovators with opinion leaders.[2] Unlike Schrank and Goodell, Robertson and Myers did not consider the possibility of the existence of a third group, the dual leaders. The extent of overlap in Schrank's and Goodell's studies, however, appears to have been greater than that in Robertson and Myers'.

While the preceeding studies seemed to show that fashion opinion leadership and fashion adoption may be

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[1]Goodell, "Two Techniques," pp. 49, 65.

[2]Robertson and Myers, "Innovative Buying Behavior," p. 167.

related, King's study indicates somewhat conflicting results. King found fashion opinion leaders were well distributed throughout both the early and late buyer groups but were more frequently late buyers than early buyers.[1] Although King did not report the extent of overlap among fashion opinion leadership and fashion innovativeness in his Boston study, he pointed out the functions of each leader-type which together seem to parallel the characteristics of Rogers' active adopter:

> The innovator is the earliest visual communicator of the season's styles for the masses of fashion consumers. The 'influential' [fashion opinion leader] appears to define and endorse appropriate standards.[2]

The conflicting findings among the studies may have been a result of differences in sample size or the research techniques used. Rogers states that contradictory evidence in the literature on whether opinion leaders are innovators points to the need to take the social system norms into account.[3]

Favorableness Toward New Styles.--Although no research was found in which fashion dual leaders' attitudes toward new styles were investigated, dual leaders might be expected to have favorable attitudes since they are, by

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[1]King, "A Rebuttle," pp. 121-24.

[2]Ibid., p. 124.

[3]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, pp. 243-45.

definition, among the first to adopt. Schrank,[1] however, found fashion dual leaders to have positive attitudes toward conformity to the norm of their friends' dress. Glickman[2] concluded that the dual leaders in his study also had a certain minimum amount of clothing conformity. The dual leaders' unexpected conformity may perhaps be due to an association with a fashionable sub-group rather than conformity to the mode.

Social Participation.--Rogers found that both opinion leaders and innovators were characterized by active social participation.[3] Fashion dual leaders, who are by definition innovative and influential, may also be active social participators. Contradictory findings, however, are shown in the following studies on dual leaders as each investigator defined them.

Sohn found a significant difference between "fashion (dual) leaders" and non-leaders for the number of organized group memberships (followers, however, belonged to more organized groups) but not for the number of cooperative group memberships. Fashion leaders, however, showed a tendency to belong to more cooperative groups

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[1]Schrank, "Fashion Innovators," pp. 66, 69-70.

[2]Glickman, "Clothing Leadership," p. 248.

[3]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, pp. 169, 182-83.

than non-leaders.[1] In Goodell's study, "active leadership" in both sorority groups was not related to the amount of social participation.[2]

In summary, there were conflicting findings among the preceding fashion research studies as well as disagreement between diffusion theory and fashion research concerning the characteristics of fashion dual leaders. In essence, dual leaders seemed to engage in some organizational participation, exhibit a minimum amount of conformity to their friends' dress, and at the same time express some favorableness toward new styles.

The review of the literature indicates that a comparison of the three types of prestigious fashion leaders (fashion innovators, fashion opinion leaders, and fashion dual leaders) and fashion non-leaders may reveal differences on social participation and favorableness toward new styles. Methods used to measure fashion acceptance and prestigious fashion leaders will be discussed in the following section of the literature review.

Methodologies Used to Measure Fashion Acceptance and Prestigious Fashion Leaders

The three methods which have been used to measure fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership in

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[1]Sohn, "Clothing Fashion Leaders," p. 49.

[2]Goodell, "Two Techniques," p. 49.

adoption-diffusion research studies are: (1) the sociometric technique, (2) the key informants or judges rating method, and (3) the self-designating or recall technique.

The sociometric technique, as used by Glickman,[1] Sohn,[2] Moore,[3] Marshall,[4] and Goodell,[5] identifies prestigious fashion leaders by asking respondents to name those individuals whom they would either observe or go to for advice when selecting new clothing styles. Possible limitations of this technique are:

1. All members of the social system must be interviewed.
2. Mutually exclusive sub-groups may be impossible to establish within a sample.
3. Bias may occur when the number of prestigious individuals which respondents are allowed to name are limited.
4. A large number of respondents must be questioned in order to locate a relatively small number of prestigious individuals.[6]

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[1]Glickman, "Clothing Leadership."

[2]Sohn, "Clothing Fashion Leaders."

[3]Kathleen Anne Moore, "Fashion Leadership Designation and Related Factors Among a Group of Adolescent Girls" (unpublished Master's thesis, Pennsylvania State University, 1962). (Hereinafter referred to as "Fashion Leadership Designation.")

[4]Marshall, "Leadership Among Men's Fashions."

[5]Goodell, "Two Techniques."

[6]Everett M. Rogers and David G. Cartano, "Methods of Measuring Opinion Leadership," Public Opinion Quarterly, XXVI (Fall, 1962), 438-39.

Key informants or individuals who are likely to know the prestigious individuals may be cost- and time-saving but the method may be biased by non-objective ratings by the informants.[1] This method was used as a secondary means of selecting fashion innovators by Grindereng who ranked respondents according to silhouettes purchased.[2]

In the self-designating technique, a respondent answers questions concerning his perception of the relative prestigiousness of, and recalls the time of adoption, of the new clothing styles. Attitudes affecting fashion behaviors may be inherent in the responses of the respondents. The ability of the respondent to recall, assess, and report her self-image accurately must be assumed. The respondent, however, may be more aware of his own prestigiousness than others. While the self-designation method may be conveniently used in either questionnaires or in interviews, the number of statements may be limited.[3] This technique, however, has been utilized in several fashion studies.[4]

[1]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, pp. 159-65.

[2]Grindereng, "Fashion Diffusion," p. 100.

[3]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 160.

[4]Katz and Lazarsfeld, Personal Influence; Rogers and Beal, "Information Sources"; Marshall, "Leadership in Men's Fashions"; Grindereng, "Fashion Diffusion"; Goodell, "Two Techniques"; Sproles, "Durable Press Information Communicator."

Goodell and Grindereng each compared two of the techniques above and both concluded that the self-identification method was preferred. Goodell compared the sociometric and self-identification techniques to determine whether the two techniques identified the same individuals as fashion leaders. Although a low positive correlation was found between the two sorority groups' scores on the two measures, the self-identification technique appeared to identify more opinion leaders than the sociometric technique.[1] Grindereng also found that self-identified adopter categories were more successful in differentiating between early and late adopter categories based on silhouette purchased.[2]

Since a large university was selected as the social system in this study, it was likely that few of the respondents would know each other or that judges would know all of the subjects. Therefore, the key informants and sociometric techniques were not applicable. The self-designating method, however, was well suited to a questionnaire survey and appeared to be satisfactory for the present study.

Rogers also stated that further exploration of the social system's norms are needed to determine the

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[1]Goodell, "Two Techniques," p. 69.

[2]Grindereng, "Fashion Diffusion," p. 112.

innovativeness of individuals. He listed three approaches to measuring the social system's norms:

> (1) compute the mean of the individuals innovativeness scores, (2) find the percentage of respondents who had favorable attitudes toward innovators, and (3) obtain judges ratings of the social system's norms.[1]

Rogers cautions that the preceding measures are only rough indications of a social system's innovativeness and that because to few attempts to measure the norms of a social system have been made, these measures have not been validated.

Snow used a method of measuring social system norms, similar to the first method described by Rogers, in her study of fashion attitudes. A mean attitude score of 50 was designated as a neutral attitude toward new styles. Snow compared the sample mean and sub-groups' means with this neutral mean.[2] The use of mean scores to measure groups' norms, however, may be misleading when the respondent's scores on a measure are skewed. The median would be more accurate when the distribution is assymetrical.

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[1]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, pp. 69-70.

[2]Janet B. Snow, "Clothing Interest of Men in Four Selected Occupations" (unpublished Master's thesis, Texas Woman's University, 1969), p. 36. (Hereinafter referred to as "Clothing Interest.")

CHAPTER III

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Rogers' theory of the diffusion and adoption of innovations was used as the basis for studying prestigious fashion leaders and the acceptance of fashions. The main purpose of this study was to compare the characteristics of three types of prestigious fashion leaders among university women (fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovators, and fashion dual leaders) and fashion non-leaders on the following variables: (1) social participation, and (2) favorableness toward new styles. The following definitions, hypotheses, and assumptions were used to guide the investigation.

Definition of Terms

A Social System is a population of individuals who are functionally differentiated and engage in collective problem-solving with respect to a common goal.[1]

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[1]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 14.

Style is a characteristic or distinctive mode or method of expression.[1]

Fashion is an innovation in styles or some element of a style which has recently been introduced, which is perceived as new, and which a small percentage of the social system has adopted at one point in time.[2]

Fashion Adoption represents an individual's decision to make relatively greater use of new styles[3] or be relatively more innovative in dress than other individuals. A respondent's innovativeness, as determined by the Fashion Adoption Measure, is based on the relative time of adoption of new styles, the number of new styles purchased or sewn, and the frequency new styles are worn.

The Fashion Adoption Process consists of the mental stages through which an individual passes from first knowledge of a fashion to a decision to adopt or reject and to confirmation of this decision.

The Adopter Categories are the classifications of members of a social system on the basis of innovativeness.[4]

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[1]Nystrom, Economics of Fashion, p. 3.

[2]Bogardus, Essentials of Social Psychology, p. 121; Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 13.

[3]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 17.

[4]Ibid., pp. 16-19.

The five adopter categories are: (1) innovators, (2) early adopters, (3) early majority, (4) late majority, and (5) laggards.

Fashion Opinion Leadership is the extent to which an individual is relatively more able than others to informally influence individual's attitudes or behavior concerning clothing in a desired way with relative frequency.[1]

On the basis of each individual's scores on the Fashion Opinion Leadership and Fashion Adoption Measures (Figure 1) respondents in this study were classified as members of one of the four mutually exclusive groups which follow:

1. A Fashion Innovator is a woman who reports she purchases or sews a relatively greater number of fashions which she acquires relatively earlier and which she wears relatively more frequently than others. Her score on fashion adoption is in the upper one-third of the scoring range but her score on fashion opinion leadership is not.
2. A Fashion Opinion Leader is a woman who reports she is a source of fashion advice and

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[1] Ibid., p. 208.

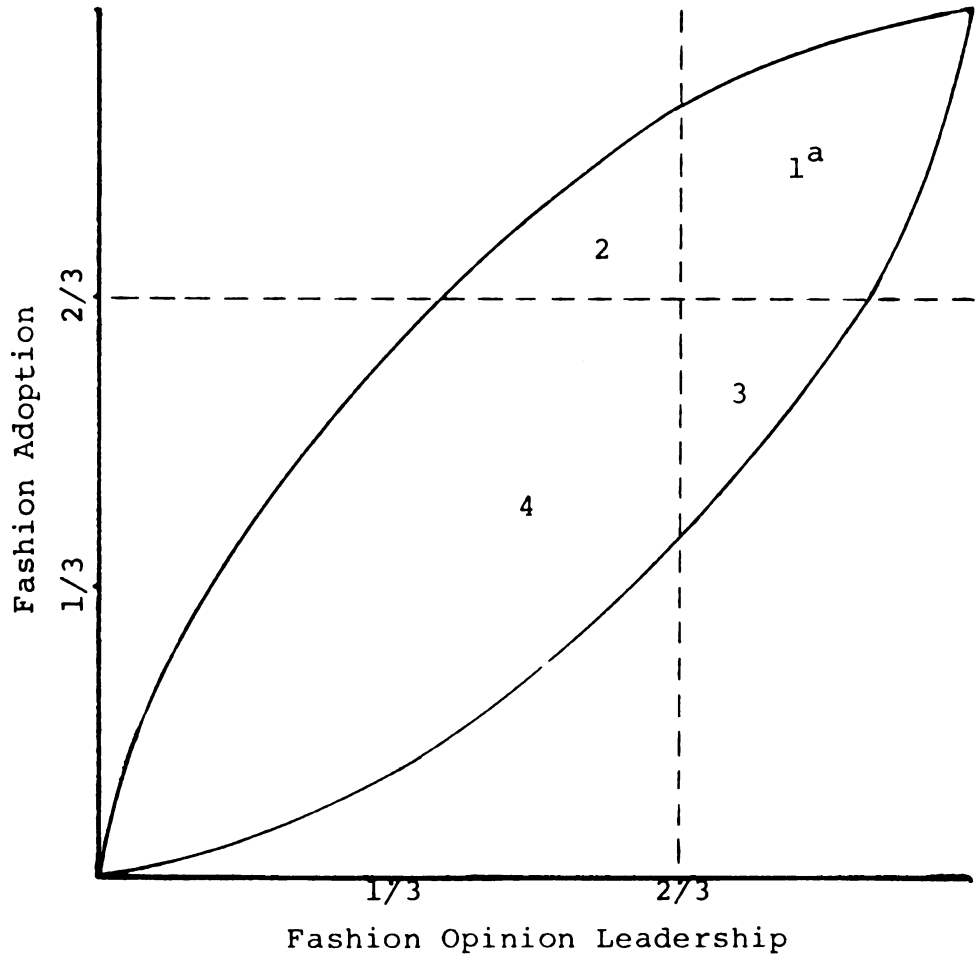

Figure 1.--Four sub-categories of respondents.

[a]1 = Fashion Dual Leaders
2 = Fashion Innovators
3 = Fashion Opinion Leaders
4 = Fashion Non-Leaders

information for other women she knows.[1] Her score on fashion opinion leadership is in the upper one-third of the scoring range but her score on fashion adoption is not.

3. A Fashion Dual Leader is a woman who reports that she is both a fashion innovator and a fashion opinion leader.[2] Her scores on both measures are within the upper one-third of the scoring ranges.
4. A Fashion Non-Leader is a woman who reports that she is neither a fashion innovator nor a fashion opinion leader.[3] Her scores on neither measure are within the upper one-third of the scoring ranges.

The remainder of the definitions follows:

Favorableness Toward New Styles is a relatively more positive attitude toward fashions as determined by an individual's score on the Favorableness Toward New Styles measure.

Social Participation is the extent to which an individual takes part in the university organizational

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[1] Schrank, "Fashion Innovation," p. 36.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid., pp. 36-37.

system including the professional, athletic, academic, social, church, and community areas. Leadership roles within organizations reflect a greater amount of social participation than mere organizational membership, as determined by a modification of Chapin's Social Participation Scale.[1]

A Garment Length Category is one of the seven mutually exclusive wardrobe inventory divisions based on specified locations on the body. Taken together the seven lengths can be arrayed to form a continuum on the body from the waist to the floor. The garment length categories are further sub-divided into styles such as mini-skirt or knickers.

Socio-Economic Status is a respondent's position along a weighted continuum based on the education, income, and occupation of the main wage-earner as determined by a modification of the McGuire-White Index.[2]

Hypotheses

The relationship between fashion opinion leadership and fashion adoption was to be tested in the first

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[1]Francis S. Chapin, Experimental Designs in Sociological Research (rev. ed.; New York: Harper, 1947), pp. 276-78.

[2]Carson McGuire and George D. White, "The Measurement of Social Status" (unpublished research paper in Human Development, No. 3 [revised] Department of Educational Psychology, The University of Texas, 1963).

hypotheses formulated. Although three of the research studies[1] reported in the literature indicated that a positive relationship may exist between these two variables, two other studies[2] presented somewhat conflicting data. Rogers' belief that some opinion leaders are innovators while others are not,[3] may help to explain the inconsistency among these research findings. Recent studies on fashion[4] support Rogers' belief with evidence of the existence of fashion dual leaders, who both adopt and influence, as well as evidence for the existence of fashion opinion leaders who only influence and fashion innovators who only adopt. Therefore, a positive relationship between the two variables may be predicted:

> Hypothesis 1. A positive relationship will exist between fashion opinion leadership and fashion adoption.

Researchers studying fashion opinion leaders have generally assumed that these individuals have favorable attitudes toward new styles but have not tested their assumption. Since fashion opinion leaders, as defined in

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[1]Schrank, "Fashion Innovation," p. 67; Marshall, "Leadership in Men's Fashions," p. 48; Sproles, "Durable Press Information Communicator," p. 119.

[2]King, "A Rebuttle," p. 121-24; Glickman, "Clothing Leadership," pp. 68-71.

[3]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 243.

[4]Schrank, "Fashion Innovation"; Goodell, "Two Techniques."

the present study, influence others but do not wear relatively more new styles than others, it is possible that fashion opinion leaders may not have favorable attitudes toward new styles. Some may actively influence others to reject new styles.

If the "early adopter" category actually does contain the greatest amount of opinion leadership as the diffusion research suggests,[1] then opinion leaders are more innovative than the majority. They, therefore, would be likely to have more favorable attitudes toward innovations than the majority. Based on the single research study[2] which investigated fasion opinion leadership and women's attitudes toward new styles, a positive relationship may be predicted between the two variables:

> Hypothesis 2. A positive relationship will exist between fashion opinion leadership and favorableness toward new styles.

Nearly all of the research studies reviewed[3] supported Rogers' generalization that fashion opinion leaders are active formal and informal social participators. Logically fashion opinion leaders must have frequent contacts or associations with others in order to carry

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[1]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 169.

[2]Summers, "Fashion Opinion Leaders," p. 182.

[3]Katz and Lazarsfeld, Personal Influence, pp. 247-70; Sproles, "Durable Press Information Communicator," pp. 119-20; Marshall, "Leadership in Men's Fashions," pp. 39, 48; Summers, "Fashion Opinion Leaders," p. 180.

out their influential role. Therefore, the following relationship was predicted.

> Hypothesis 3. A positive relationship will exist between fashion opinion leadership and social participation.

There is also strong evidence in several fashion research studies[1] that fashion innovators are likely to be leaders in other areas of group activities. Furthermore, diffusion research seems to show a positive relationship between innovativeness and the amount of cosmopolitan social participation in cliques and formal organizations.[2] Although social participation is not actually necessary for innovators to carry out their role as innovators they may participate for two reasons: (1) to allow others to view their new styles, or (2) because their new styles may create a mood favorable to participation. Although no cause and effect relationship can be determined a positive relationship between fashion innovativeness and social participation may be predicted:

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[1]Janney, "Fad and Fashion Leadership," pp. 275-78; Glickman, "Clothing Leadership," p. 248; Marshall, "Leadership in Men's Fashions," pp. 46-47; VanStaden, "Prestigious Clothing," pp. 52-54; Perkins, "Clothing Fads and Fashions," p. 41; Sohn, "Clothing Fashion Leaders, p. 49; Robertson and Myers, "Innovative Buying Behavior," p. 166.

[2]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 183.

Hypothesis 4. There will be a positive relationship between fashion adoption and social participation.

Diffusion research seemed to indicate that innoiveness and favorableness toward new ideas are positively related regardless of the social system's norms on innovativeness.[1] The majority of the studies of fashion[2] also revealed that fashion innovators had positive attitudes toward new styles while the other respondents in the studies generally disliked new clothing styles when they first appeared. Thus, the following hypothesis was predicted:

Hypothesis 5. There will be a positive relationship between fashion adoption and favorableness toward new styles.

None of the research found compared innovators, opinion leaders, dual leaders, and non-leaders on social participation. The diffusion research, however, suggested that both innovators and opinion leaders are more active social participants than their "followers."[3] Thus, dual leaders, who adopt as well as influence, may also differ from their "followers" on social participation. One

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[1] Ibid., pp. 111, 193.

[2] Holley, "Opinions of University Women Regarding the Relative Importance of Thermal Comfort, Conformity and Fashion." p. 34; Tousignant, "Fashion Acceptance," pp. 35-36, 58; Johnson, "An Exploratory Study of Diffusion of Fashion with Mothers and Teen-Age Daughters," p. 53; Pasnak, "Fashion Innovators," p. 96.

[3] Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, pp. 169, 240.

fashion study[1] did show that fashion dual leaders were more likely than their "followers" to be members of organized groups. Therefore, the following hypothesis was proposed:

> Hypothesis 6. There will be a significant difference between any of the four sub-categories (fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovators, fashion dual leaders, and fashion non-leaders) on social participation.

The attitudes of dual leaders, opinion leaders, innovators, and non-leaders toward new styles have not been compared in Rogers' synthesis of diffusion research or in studies of fashion. Since both fashion innovators and fashion dual leaders are, by definition, among the first to adopt new styles, they would be expected to have more favorable attitudes toward new styles than fashion opinion leaders and fashion non-leaders. Rogers generalized that opinion leaders are more innovative and are likely to adopt new ideas before their "followers."[2] This generalization implies that opinion leaders would also have more favorable attitudes toward new innovations than their "followers." Thus, the following relationship was predicted:

> Hypothesis 7. There will be a significant difference between dual fashion leaders, fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovators, and fashion non-leaders on favorableness toward new styles.

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[1] Sohn, "Clothing Fashion Leaders," p. 50.

[2] Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 242.

In order to test the proposition developed in the literature review that certain types of prestigious fashion leaders were more emulative of the dress of the group than other types of prestigious leaders, the two hypothesis which follow were established. The first hypothesis is based on the theory and research findings[1] which suggest that prestigious fashion promoters or leaders cannot be too extreme in their deviation from the group norms on dress or they will not be followed. Rogers also stated that opinion leaders in the diffusion research he reviewed could not deviate far from the norms of their social system and still maintain their influential position.[2]

No research has been found which compared the attitudes of fashion opinion leaders toward new styles with the attitudes of the rest of the subjects. However, since Rogers' generalized that opinion leaders conform more closely to social system norms than the average member,[3] fashion opinion leaders' attitudes toward new styles would likely be similar to the social system's norms or attitudes toward new styles--favorable if the social system favored new styles or unfavorable if the social system did not

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[1]Jack and Shiffer, "Limits of Fashion," pp. 730-38; Simmel, "Fashion," pp. 541-58; Flugel, Psychology of Clothes, pp. 143, 147, 154; Young, Recurring Cycles, p. 4.

[2]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 243.

[3]Ibid., p. 233.

favor new styles. Therefore, the following hypothesis was predicted:

> Hypothesis 8. There will be no significant difference between fashion opinion leaders and the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles.

Rogers generalized that "innovators are perceived as deviants by other members of their social system" and that they also "perceive themselves as deviant from the norms of their social system."[1] Rogers also stated that "laggards are deviants as well as innovators." Therefore, it is likely that individuals in the present study who are more innovative than others, (fashion innovators and fashion dual leaders) and more laggard (fashion non-leaders) than others would be significantly different from the rest of the subjects in their attitudes toward new styles. Therefore, the following hypothesis was proposed:

> Hypothesis 9. There will be a significant difference between each of the following groups and the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles: fashion innovators, fashion dual leaders and fashion non-leaders.

Assumptions

The following list of assumptions was necessary to the formation of the hypotheses:

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[1]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, pp. 200-01.

1. A change in styles was imminent.
2. Variation existed among the clothing styles owned and worn among the university student population.
3. Wearing, owning and time-of-adoption were equal dimensions of innovativeness.
4. The items in the fashion-cycle ranking index and in the style list represented items of clothing which varied in their amount of fashionableness.

CHAPTER IV

PROCEDURE

The discussion of the procedure for this study includes the following sections: (1) selection of the sample, (2) selection and development of the measures, (3) pre-testing of the initial measures, (4) administration of the final measures, and (5) statistical analysis of the data.

Selection of the Sample

Rogers' theory specifies that a social system is one of the crucial elements in the diffusion of new ideas,[1] and furthermore he states that students at a university exemplify a social system. The population selected for this study of fashion included women students, married and single, whose addresses were either East Lansing, Lansing, or the Michigan State University campus. Students with out-of-town addresses were not included since they would likely commute to the campus and thus be outside the social system.

[1] Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 12.

Women were chosen because of the auspicious time in relation to impending changes in styles of garments as promoted by mass media. Also women of university age were more likely than older women to perceive the new styles of the 1970s as innovations since they had not, thusfar in their lives, been exposed to the mid-calf length garments nor short-shorts which had been a popular mode in the mid-1940s. They offered a heterogeneous population with a potential for varying fashion attitudes and leadership abilities. In addition, comparisons could be made with other university women who have been respondents in similar fashion acceptance research studies.

In order to have the maximum number of prestigious fashion leaders required for statistical analysis a random sample of 500 women students was selected from the fall, 1970 student enrollment records. At the time of the data collection, the Registrar's Office stated that the directory was the most accurate and recent record of the desired population which could be obtained. The name of every eligible woman in the directory was numbered serially and the sample was selected using a 5-digit table of random numbers. As a result of the selectivity of the subjects, the sample is representative of only those 12,765 women who live in the campus area of Michigan State University.

The sample size of five hundred was selected in order to obtain a minimum cell size for sub-group analysis. Innovators, the first 2 1/2 per cent to adopt innovations, were the smallest sub-group. The sample size was enlarged in case some questionnaires were not returned or fully completed by the respondents.

Additional random numbers were selected and questionnaires mailed to a second group of randomly selected respondents to substitute for the questionnaires that were returned marked "address unknown." The original respondents who had moved were thereby considered unqualified for the sample as previously defined by place of residence.

Selection and Development of the Measures

Data were collected by a means of a seven-page questionnaire which was devised so that it could be mailed to the respondents and self-administered (see Appendix A, pp. 143-50). The measures which were selected for use in the study were Schrank's Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory,[2] a modification of Chapin's Social Participation Scale,[3] and the McGuire-White Index of Socio-Economic

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[1] Ibid., pp. 161-62.

[2] Schrank, "Fashion Innovation," pp. 93-94.

[3] Chapin, Sociological Research.

Status.[1] An instrument to measure Favorableness Toward New Styles was developed since a suitable measure could not be found. A modification of Schrank's Fashion Innovativeness Measure[2] was used to measure Fashion Adoption. Background information concerning year in university and marital status was obtained from the university enrollment records. A discussion of each of the measures follows.

Fashion Adoption

In many previous research studies concerning the acceptance of fashions, innovativeness was based on the adoption of a single item of clothing rather than a number of items of clothing. Grindereng concluded that one item of apparel "may not be an accurate indicator of an individual's classification as an early or late adopter."[3]

In their attempts to find more valid indicators of innovativeness, several investigators[4] developed composite style lists and fashion innovations inventories which were based on a number of selected apparel items determined by the investigators to be fashionable at the

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[1]McGuire and White, "Social Status."

[2]Schrank, "Fashion Innovation," pp. 91-92.

[3]Grindereng, "Fashion Diffusion," p. 111.

[4]Tousignant, "Fashion Acceptance"; Marshall, "Leadership in Men's Fashions"; Goodell, "Two Techniques"; Snow, "Clothing Interest"; Schrank, "Fashion Innovation."

time of the studies. The items in these style lists and inventories, however, may not have been representative of fashions as perceived by the respondents themselves. Rogers states that an "innovation is an idea, practice or object perceived as new by individuals. It matters little whether or not it is 'objectively' new as measured by the lapse of time since its first discovery."[1]

Consequently, for this study both a wardrobe inventory and a style list were utilized in which garment length categories, developed by the investigator, were weighted and scored primarily on the basis of the respondents' perception of new styles. This was accomplished by tabulating the respondents' perception of new styles prior to the scoring of the actual fashion adoption measure (Appendix A, p. 144).

The total fashion adoption section of the questionnaire consisted of five parts. They were: (1) a fashion-cycle ranking index, (2) the self-designating innovativeness statements, (3) the wardrobe inventory, (4) the wear record, and (5) a style list which consisted of five selected styles which were assessed according to their (a) time-of-adoption, and (b) subsequent discontinuance. Parts 1, 2 and 5b were not used in scoring the actual

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[1]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 13.

fashion adoption measure which consisted of Parts 3, 4, and 5a.

Responses on Part 1, the fashion-cycle ranking index, were utilized only in determining the weights to be assigned in scoring the fashion adoption measure (see Chapter V, p. 70). The index was a means of assessing which styles from among the ten on the fashion-cycle ranking style list were perceived to be the new styles by the respondents. The index was developed for use in a research study in an advanced clothing class by Pamela Johnson, a Michigan State University graduate student.[1] The index was selected because it provided a clear distinction between the clothing mode and new styles.

In Part 2, the self-designating innovativeness statements, served as a reliability check for the fashion adoption measure (see Appendix A, p. 146). Grindereng,[2] Goodell,[3] and Schrank,[4] found that the self-designating technique was effective in identifying fashion leaders. However, Rogers stated that innovativeness is defined in

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[1]Pamela A. Johnson, "Fashion Awareness and Its Relationship to Selected Clothing Consumption Variables" (unpublished research paper in Clothing Consumption, Department of Human Environment and Design, Michigan State University, 1971).

[2]Grindereng, "Fashion Diffusion," p. 112.

[3]Goodell, "Two Techniques," p. 69.

[4]Schrank, "Fashion Innovation," p. 79.

terms of actual time of adoption rather than the individual's perception of the time of adoption in relation to others in his system.[1]

Therefore, the fashion adoption measure in this study was based primarily on actual time-of-adoption rather than self-designating innovativeness statements. The statements, however, were weighted and scored in order to form a second fashion adoption measure which could be correlated with the original measure. The first statement assessed when the respondents believed they adopted new styles in relation to other students and the second, how fashionably dressed they perceived themselves to be compared to other students. The statements were assigned weights of 5-1 and 3-1 points respectively in order to give higher scores to those individuals who indicated they were more innovative than others.

Part 5b was used only in the explanation of the results of the study (see Appendix A, p. 146). A detailed discussion of each of the parts (3, 4, and 5a) of the actual fashion adoption measure follows:

Part 3. The Wardrobe Inventory.--The wardrobe inventory chart in Part 3 of the fashion adoption measure was developed out of a skirt length chart which was a part of a "Manual on the Procedure for Measuring Clothing," which had been developed by the investigator for use in a

[1]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 160.

regional research study on fashion acceptance (see Appendix A, p. 145). Subsequent recommendations from other participating universities during the planning for the research study resulted in the expansion of the garment categories of the chart to include bifurcated garments in various lengths as well as skirt lengths.

The garment length categories which were established according to specific locations on the body were as follows:

Garment Length Category	Location on the Body
1	about 8" above the knee
2	about 5" above the knee
3	about 2" above the knee
4	near the knee-cap
5	about 2" below the knee
6	near mid-calf
7	near ankle and below

Each garment length category was further sub-divided by style such as skirt or bifurcate. The complete wardrobe inventory included sixteen styles and seven length categories. The wardrobe inventory included several styles which were believed not to be fashionable to help disguise

the intent of the measure and so that the more extensive measure could be used in future studies.

Three months prior to the date of data collection the investigator and two graduate assistants tested the feasibility of the seven garment length categories by taking a systematic random fashion count of the garment lengths worn by the Michigan State University women at the time of winter quarter pre-registration. The count was also made to determine which garment lengths had low market saturation and, therefore, would be more indicative of innovativeness. At that time, only one mid-calf length skirt was observed.

"Fashion Quiz Cards" with a few open-ended questions which sought the respondents' opinions on the latest styles were also distributed at the time of the fashion count. The styles which were mentioned on the quiz cards by the respondents were considered later in the selection of items for the style list and the fashion-cycle ranking index as well as for the wardrobe inventory style examples.

Schrank recommended that fashion magazines be used to determine the earliest date at which an adopter could have acquired the new style items.[1] Therefore, fashion diffusion curves, plotted from semi-annual fashion counts of the styles in the editorial sections of Vogue magazine from 1966-1970, were utilized in establishing a

cut-off date for the fashion adoption measure (see Appendix B, p. 151). Vogue magazine was arbitrarily chosen since it seemed to be more representative of new styles than other fashion magazines.

The respondents in this study were requested to include only those garments which they had bought new or sewn since January 1, 1968, since this was approximately the time when mid-calf lengths were first pictured in Vogue. The cut-off date also prevented the inclusion of old or second-hand clothing which the respondents may have acquired but which would not have been a true innovation. Although the cut-off date may have been set beyond the recall ability of some respondents it allowed those individuals who were among the first to adopt the new styles to receive higher scores on fashion adoption.

In order to assign the proper weights for scoring the wardrobe inventory, new styles were determined as follows:

1. To obtain respondents' reactions as to what was new, those styles on the fashion-cycle ranking index which were perceived by the respondents as the "hottest" or newest items as indicated by a relatively higher percentage of the total number of styles in that particular rank, were located.

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[1]Schrank, "Fashion Innovation," p. 81.

2. To prevent including modal styles, those styles in the wardrobe inventory which had lower percentages of the total number of styles in relation to the other styles in the inventory, were located.
3. To eliminate declining styles, those styles in the editorial sections of Vogue from February 1, 1970 to February 1, 1971, which had lower percentages of the total number of styles in relation to the other styles in Vogue at that time, (see Appendix B, p. 152) were located.[1]

Styles which met at least two of the above criteria were considered to be "new" fashions and were given higher weights. Styles which met only one or none of the above criteria received either correspondingly lower weights or a zero since they were considered representative of either the mode which was the more frequently owned styles or those styles which were completely out-of-fashion. The following weights were assigned to the styles in the wardrobe inventory:

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[1]"Hot" pants, or very short shorts, were not included in the fashion counts of Vogue magazine since they were introduced immediately prior to the time of data collection.

Weights	Styles
0 points	skirt--8" above the knee
0 points	skirt--5" above the knee
0 points	pants--5" above the knee
0 points	skirt--2" above the knee
0 points	pants--2" above the knee
0 points	pants--just below the knee
0 points	pants--ankle-length pants
1 point	skirt--knee-length
2 points	skirt--just below the knee
3 points	skirt--ankle-length
4 points	pantsuit
5 points	jumpsuit/overalls
5 points	skirt--mid-calf length
5 points	pants--mid-calf length
5 points	knickers
6 points	pants--8" above the knee

The newer styles were assigned the heavier weights since Goodell found that the number of newer styles owned by the respondents was more discriminating than the total number of styles in distinguishing fashion leaders from followers.[1] However, Tousignant found that a lack of new styles in student's wardrobes was not necessarily an indication of fashion acceptance since many of the accepting students did not own the new styles for economic reasons.[2] Hence, to prevent those individuals who had the economic resources to acquire large numbers of modal or outdated styles from receiving disproportionately higher scores on fashion adoption than the innovators themselves, the modal and outdated styles were assigned zero weights. Each respondent's total score on the wardrobe inventory was

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[1]Goodell, "Two Techniques," p. 68.

[2]Tousignant, "Fashion Acceptance," pp. 58-59.

the sum of the weights assigned to each style that the individual indicated she owned.

Part 4. The Wear Record.--Rogers' definition of adoption contains the phrase "make full use of," which implies that the mere purchase of a single style would not qualify an individual as a fashion adopter.[1] For this reason the subjects were asked to indicate the frequency which they wore each style in the wardrobe inventory (see Appendix A, p. 145). The responses of the women about the extent that the garments were worn were weighted as follows:

Weight	Frequency	Definition
5 points	Frequently	Approx. twice weekly
4 points	Regularly	Weekly
3 points	Occasionally	Monthly
2 points	Seldom	Twice yearly
1 point	Never	Not at all

The weights were assigned in order to give higher scores on the fashion adoption measure to those individuals who wore their new garments more frequently.

Part 5a. Style List and Time-of-Adoption.--To measure actual time-of-adoption, a style list was developed which included five new styles. The new styles were chosen on the basis of the investigator's observation and judgment of the styles worn on the Michigan State University campus and the styles available in the local

[1]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 17.

retail stores and in current issues of fashion magazines. The styles which were judged to be newly introduced and which only a small percentage of the women on the campus had adopted were: (1) mid-calf length skirts, (2) mid-calf length pants (gaucho pants), (3) ankle-length skirts, (4) pantsuits, and (5) jumpsuits or overalls (see Appendix A, p. 146). The respondents were requested to indicate the month and year when they first acquired each new style.

Weights were assigned to the style list as follows:

1. The total number of questionnaires were rank ordered according to the earliest time of adoption five times: once for each of the five styles in the style list.
2. Each time the ranked scores for each style were divided into five sub-groups based on the percentages used by Rogers and others to establish adopter categories. A comparison of some of the percentages which have been used to establish the five adopter categories in the adoption-diffusion research studies follow:

Adopter Categories	Beal & Bohlen[1]	Rogers[2]	Schrank[3]
1. innovators	2½	2½	2
2. early adopters	17	13½	15
3. early majority	17	17	18
4. late majority	51	51	49
5. laggards	16	16	15

In this study a larger number of subjects were needed in each of the categories. The following adopter categories and percentages, therefore, were utilized:

Adopter Categories	Percentages	Weights
1. innovators	5	5 points
2. early adopters	11	4 points
3. early majority	17	3 points
4. late majority	51	2 points
5. laggards	16	1 point

3. Weights from five to one were assigned to each style in the style list in order to weight early adoption more heavily than late adoption. When the date of adoption indicated by the respondent was prior to January 1, 1968, the respondent received a zero for that particular style to prevent inclusion of historic garments.

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[1]George M. Beal and Joe M. Bohlen. The Diffusion Process (Special Report No. 18, Ames Iowa: Iowa State University of Science and Technology, Cooperative Extension Service, 1962).

[2]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 162.

[3]Schrank, "Fashion Innovation," p. 60.

Each respondent's score on time-of-adoption section of the fashion adoption measure was the sum of the weights assigned to each style that the individual indicated that she owned.

The respondent's total score on the fashion adoption measure was determined as follows:

1. The number of garments bought new or sewn since January 1, 1968, in each garment length category multiplied by the weights assigned to each style.
2. The weighted score for each style owned multiplied by the weighted frequency worn.
3. The weighted scores on owning and on wearing for each style summed.
4. Each of the five items in the style list was weighted according to time-of-adoption and the weights summed.
5. The sum of the weights on time-of-adoption added to the sum of the weights on owning and wearing.

A higher score on the fashion adoption measure indicated a greater amount of fashion innovativeness.

Fashion Opinion Leadership

Schrank's Fashion Opinion Leadership Measure which was selected for use in this study (Appendix A, pp. 147-48) met the following criteria: (1) it was developed from affective and behavioral operational descriptions of fashion opinion leadership, (2) it had the proper balance

of positive and negative statements, (3) all statements met the critical ratio of 2.50 or above, (4) all items met the minimum .30 SVDR value, (5) it had an internal consistency of .90, and (5) Schrank had obtained a Pearson r correlation of .74 between the scores on the Goodell fashion opinion leadership measure and her own fashion opinion leadership measure.[1]

Schrank's measure contained twenty Likert statements which had five possible responses for each, forming a continuum from definitely true to definitely false. Responses to positively stated items were weighted from 5 to 1 and responses to negatively stated items from 1 for definitely true to 5 for definitely false. Undecided or uncertain responses were weighted 3, as were any statements which were left unanswered.

The respondent's score on the measure was the sum of the weights for each statement. A high score on the measure indicated a greater amount of fashion opinion leadership.

Favorableness Toward New Styles

The majority of the measures which have been developed to study individuals' attitudes toward clothing have dealt with conformity to the clothing mode and the importance of clothing in general rather than acceptance

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[1]Schrank, "Fashion Innovation," pp. 45-48.

of specific new styles.[1] Researchers studying acceptance of new styles have often used, out of necessity, one of these more general measures of clothing conformity.

Measures of conformity to the clothing mode can only indicate whether individuals deviate from the mode but they cannot actually show the direction of these individuals' deviation. Rogers' summary of diffusion research indicates that not all individuals adopt innovations at the same time and that an individual's deviation may be in one of two directions. For example, the innovator adopts before the rest of the group, the opinion leader adopts about the same time as the rest of the group, and the laggard "overconforms" or adopts after the rest of the group have gone on to adopt another innovation.[2] Logically these different types of individuals also may have different attitudes toward new clothing styles--some individuals may have more favorable attitudes, while others may have less favorable attitudes than the rest of the group.

Therefore, a measure entitled "Favorableness Toward New Styles" was developed (Appendix A, pp. 148-49) in order to investigate the differences between the

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[1]Anna M. Creekmore, Methods of Measuring Clothing Variables (East Lansing: Michigan State University Agricultural Experiment Station, June, 1971).

[2]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, pp. 195-97.

attitudes of the following four sub-categories in this study: (1) fashion innovators, (2) fashion opinion leaders, (3) fashion dual leaders, and (4) fashion non-leaders. The instrument was conceptually defined as a measure of fashion change and could be termed a "style preference" measure since it was concerned with style change rather than fabric, color, or other aspects of fashion change.

A modification of Edwards' and Kilpatrick's scale discrimination technique was utilized to select a set of statements which were likely to form a unidimensional measure.[1] Using Edwards' summary of suggestions for the construction of attitude statements, forty statements believed to measure attitudes toward new styles were developed or selected from other fashion research studies.[2] The statements measured different intensities of attitudes toward new styles forming a Likert scale with five possible responses for each statement ranging from definitely true to definitely false.

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[1]Allen L. Edwards, Techniques of Attitude Scale Construction (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1957), pp. 13-14, 210-17.

[2]Pasnak, "Fashion Innovators"; R. Jane Rudy Roth, "Clothing Conformity and Fraternity Men's Attitudes Toward Current Male Fashion Trends" (unpublished Master's thesis, Ohio State University, 1969); (hereinafter referred to as "Fraternity Men's Attitudes"); Elizabeth Susan Sharpe, "Development of a Clothing Interest-and-Importance Scale" (unpublished Master's thesis, Ohio State University, 1963).

A panel of ten graduate students and instructors in textiles and clothing assisted in determining the intensity and direction of scoring for each statement in order to insure a balance of positive and negative statements in the measure. The response categories for negative statements received weights of 1-5 and positive statements, 5-1. The panel also analyzed the statements for face validity and made suggestions for the revision and elimination of some of the statements. After two pre-tests additional corrections and further elimination of statements were made.

The final measure of favorableness toward new styles consisted of twenty statements. Each respondent's score on the measure was the sum of the weights for each statement. A high score indicated more positive or favorable attitudes toward new styles.

Social Participation

There are at least two aspects of social participation: (1) formal, consisting of leadership or officership in clubs and organizations, and (2) informal, consisting of various dimensions including friendships, dating, and neighborliness. Measurement of both informal and formal social participation was judged to be beyond the scope of the present study. Therefore, the western Regional Research Project W-98 modification of Chapin's Social Participation Scale was used (see Appendix A, p. 144)

Chapin's scale is a general scale of participation in voluntary organizational participation of all kinds--professional, civic, and social. "It is used when the total participation pattern is an important variable."[1]

Chapin's original scale had a reliability and validity ranging from .89 to .95 and .52 to .76 respectively.[2] The W-98 revisions in the scale were minor.

The five components of the scale and their weights were as follows:

Weight	Social Participation Components
1 point	membership
2 points	committee member
3 points	chairman of a committee
4 points	elected officer other than president
5 points	president

An individual's score on social participation was the sum of the weights on each of the five components. A high score indicated a greater amount of social participation.

Socio-Economic Status

A modification of the McGuire-White Index of Socio-Economic Status was included in order to obtain descriptive background information regarding the income,

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[1]Delbert C. Miller, Handbook of Research Design and Social Measurement (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1964), p. 208.

[2]Chapin, Sociological Research, pp. 276-78.

occupation, and education of the main wage-earner in the respondent's family[1] (see Appendix A, pp. 149-50).

Each respondent's score on the three factors was multiplied by a weight determined by the McGuire-White Index. The sum of the three weighted scores was used to find the respondent's social class by consulting a standard conversion table.[2] A low score indicated a high social class position.

Pre-Testing the Initial Measures

Prior to the date of data collection, two separate pre-tests of the original questionnaire were conducted. The two pre-tests involved purposive samples of university classes representing a number of different majors: (1) fifty-nine Iowa State University women in a core home economics course, and (2) sixty-eight Central Michigan University women in an introductory geology course. The questionnaire took an average time of fifteen minutes to complete.

Data from each of the pre-tests were analyzed separately as follows:

1. Wording of the instructions and statements was examined for clarity.

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[1] McGuire and White, "Social Status."

[2] Ibid., p. 4.

2. Scatter plots were made to determine the relationships among the variables.

The favorableness toward new styles measure was refined after both pre-tests in the following manner:

1. The discriminatory power of each statement in the measure was determined.
2. Item analysis involved simple correlations between statement to total scores to determine the internal consistency of the measure. Statements with low or negative coefficients were either revised or eliminated.
3. A split-half reliability coefficient of .76 was computed between the general statements and the specific statements which included references to a particular new style. The fairly high coefficient indicated that the measure appeared to be somewhat unidimensional.

Administration of the Final Measures

Five hundred questionnaires were mailed to those Michigan university women who had been randomly selected as the sample during winter quarter, 1970-71. A cover letter which explained the nature of the investigation (Appendix A, p. 143) and a self-addressed and stamped envelope accompanied each questionnaire.

Although the respondents were asked not to put their names on the questionnaires so they would feel free in answering the statements, each questionnaire was identified with a three-digit number. The numbers corresponded to the respondents' names on a master list of names of these women which had been randomly selected from the student directory.

Statistical Analysis of the Data

The PLOTXY computer program was used to determine the linearity of the data and to help select the appropriate statistical treatment. The resulting bivariate distributions were not linear. A comparison of the means, medians, and modes for each measure also revealed that the distributions of scores were skewed. Therefore, a non-parametric or distribution-free statistic, Chi-square, was selected, with the larger sample size compensating for any loss of power efficiency over a more stringent test such as the Pearson r test.[1] The use of Chi-square was also appropriate since one of the measures, fashion adoption, could not be considered to be an interval level measure.

Since the Chi-square test involves nominal classifications and a certain loss of information about

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[1]Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavorial Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1956), pp. 19-20, 26-28.

subjects,[1] Pearson r correlation coefficients were computed between all possible pairs of test variables and compared with the Chi-square coefficients to verify the results. Both statistical tests yielded similar significant results although the Pearson r coefficients were slightly higher in level of significance than the Chi-square contingency coefficients.

The Favorableness Toward New Styles measure was subjected to item analysis techniques using the FORTAP and FACTOR A computer programs. The former yielded a point biserial correlation of .86 between statement to total scores which indicated the internal consistency of the twenty statements was fairly high. The FACTOR A program tested the unidimensionality of the Favorableness Toward New Styles measure as Rogers suggested in his analysis of measures, that many of the diffusion research measures he studied were not unidimensional even though they were often highly reliable and showed acceptable validity. The same problem occurred with the Favorableness Toward New Styles measure in this study. The results of the Factor Analysis indicated that the measure may not be unidimensional.

An .01 Alpha level of significance was established for the acceptance of all hypotheses. Although Type II error, or the probability of not rejecting the null

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[1] Ibid., pp. 21-23.

hypothesis when it should be rejected, is more common when this confidence level is selected, the probability of committing this error decreases as the sample size increases.[1] Therefore, the larger sample size in this study probably counteracted the probability of committing Type II error.

Pearson r correlation coefficients were calculated between each of the test variables and marital status and year in university. Chi-square tests were computed between socio-economic status and each of the test variables. Chi-square tests were also used to determine whether there were significant differences among the four sub-categories of respondents (fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovators, fashion dual leaders, and fashion non-leaders) on social participation and favorableness toward new styles as predicted in hypotheses 6-9. The four sub-categories were established in a manner similar to that Schrank used.[2] The respondents' scores on fashion adoption and fashion opinion leadership were rank ordered, divided into thirds and individuals were assigned to one of the following mutually exclusive sub-categories:

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[1] Ibid., pp. 8-9.

[2] Schrank, "Fashion Innovation," p. 59.

Sub-Categories	Fashion Opinion Leadership Scores	Fashion Adoption Scores
Fashion Innovators	Not upper 1/3	Upper 1/3 only
Fashion Dual Leaders	Upper 1/3	Upper 1/3
Fashion Opinion Leaders	Upper 1/3 only	Not upper 1/3
Fashion Non-Leaders	Lower 1/3	Lower 1/3

The number and percentage of respondents in each of the four sub-categories which resulted were as follows:

Sub-Categories	N	%
Fashion Innovators	40	17
Fashion Dual Leaders	41	17
Fashion Opinion Leaders	47	19
Fashion Non-Leaders	115	47
Total	243	100

Post hoc Chi-square confidence intervals were used to locate significant differences between all possible pairs of sub-categories on favorableness toward new styles. This statistical comparison was also used to locate significant differences between each of the four sub-categories and the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data presented and the discussion have been organized in the following manner: (1) a description of the sample, (2) descriptive data concerning each of the variables, (3) a comparison of the differences between prestigious fashion leaders and fashion non-leaders on social participation and favorableness toward new styles, and (4) a comparison of each of the four sub-categories with the remaining subjects on favorableness toward new styles.

Description of the Sample

Of the more than 17,000 women enrolled at Michigan State University during fall quarter, 1970, 12,765 met the established criteria for the population. Two hundred and sixty of the 500 questionnaires (Appendix A, pp. 143-50) which were mailed to the randomly selected university women were returned. Seventeen of those which were returned were discarded because of missing data.

Therefore, the sample size was 243 or 48.6 per cent of the original sample.

The respondents' marital status and year-in-university were obtained from the fall quarter student enrollment records. The records indicated that nearly all of the women in the sample were single:

Marital Status	Number	Per Cent
Married	16	6.6
Single	227	93.4
Total	243	100.0

The records also showed that over two-thirds of the respondents were freshmen and sophomores:

Year in University	Number	Per Cent
Freshmen	96	39.5
Sophomores	69	28.4
Juniors	48	19.8
Seniors	30	12.3
Total	243	100.0

In order to determine if marital status and year-in-university might affect the relationships between the variables tested, Pearson r correlations between marital status and year-in-university and all other variables were computed. This data yielded two significant negative correlations beyond the .05 level. Year-in-university was negatively related to fashion opinion leadership (-.19) and to marital status (-.21). Since these two correlations were statistically significant although both were very low in value, their significance was probably

exaggerated by the large number in the sample. Therefore, marital status and year-in-university were dropped from further statistical analysis.

A modification of the McGuire-White Short Form Index of Social Status[1] was used to determine the respondent's socio-economic status. A composite score based on the main wage-earner's occupation, income, and education indicated the socio-economic level of each respondent. The data indicated that the range of socio-economic scores varied from 20 (high) to 80 (low) out of a possible 12-84. All five of the socio-economic levels were represented:

	Levels	Number of Women	Per cent
1.	Upper	9	3.7
2.	Upper-Middle	116	47.7
3.	Lower-Middle	70	28.8
4.	Upper-Lower	40	16.5
5.	Lower-Lower	8	3.3
	Total	243	100.0

Since approximately 50 per cent of the respondents were in the two top levels of socio-economic status, the distribution of scores was positively skewed when compared to the general population as a whole. Data falling into this pattern might be expected for a large state university population.

Chi-square tests were employed to determine if socio-economic status might influence the relationships

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[1]McGuire and White, "Social Status."

among the other variables in the study. The data presented in Table 1, however, showed no significant relationships among socio-economic status and social participation, fashion adoption, fashion opinion leadership, and favorableness toward new styles at the .01 level. Therefore, socio-economic status was given no further statistical consideration.

TABLE 1.--Chi-square values and levels of significance for the test variables and socio-economic status.

Test Variables	Socio-economic Status	
	Chi Square Value	p
Social Participation	9.06	NS[a]
Fashion Adoption	3.19	NS
Fashion Opinion Leadership	7.65	NS
Favorableness Toward New Styles	4.33	NS

[a]NS = not significant.

$p_{.01} < (16.218)$ df = 4

In the following section each of the four separate variables will be described briefly before the relationship among variables are discussed.

Descriptive Data Concerning Each of the Variables

Fashion Opinion Leadership

Fashion opinion leadership scores were obtained by summing the weights for each of the twenty statements on pages 4-5 of the questionnaire (see Appendix A, pp. 147-48). The possible range of scores was from 20-100. The actual scores as presented below ranged from 23 to 95, a total range of 73. The frequency distribution was as follows:

Intervals	Number
23-30	8
31-38	12
39-46	31
47-54	31
55-62	33
63-70	36
71-78	42
79-87	37
88-95	13
Total	243

A comparison of the mean, median and mode on fashion opinion leadership (Table 2) revealed that the scores on this measure were somewhat negatively skewed, as they were in Schrank's[1] study. A negative distribution of scores was expected due to the nature of fashion opinion leadership which requires a substantial group of followers or non-influentials.

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[1]Schrank, "Fashion Innovation," p. 62.

TABLE 2.--Summary of the measures of central tendency and dispersion for the test variables.

Test Variables	Means	Medians	Modes	Standard Deviations	Ranges
Fashion Opinion Leadership	62.6	64.4	72	17.0	23-95
Favorableness Toward New Styles	54.2	53.0	48,53,49	13.5	25-90
Fashion Adoption	79.6	56.7	0,28	79.9	0-573
Social Participation	2.1	.7	0	3.2	0-19

Fashion Adoption

Scores on the Fashion Adoption Measure were obtained by summing the weighted parts 3,4, and 5a of the fashion adoption section of the questionnaire (see Appendix A, pp. 145-46). The weighting scheme was devised so that negative scores were not possible to obtain and there was no limit on the maximum score possible. The data indicated, on the following page, that the total actual range of fashion adoption scores was from 0 to 537.

Two women, each with scores approximately 100 points higher than the others in the sample contributed to the wide range of scores. Whether these women were exceptionally innovative or did not report accurate information is not known. The high standard deviation (Table 2) also

Intervals	Number
0	7
1-30	63
31-60	58
61-90	51
91-120	18
121-150	9
151-180	9
181-210	11
211-240	4
241-270	3
271-300	2
301-330	4
333	1
343	1
405	1
537	1
Total	243

indicated that the scores on fashion adoption were widely dispersed. The mean, median and modes as well as the frequency distribution revealed that the scores were negatively skewed (see Table 2). A negative distribution of scores on fashion adoption was logical in view of the nature of the fashion movement which is based on the premise that few individuals adopt when new styles are first introduced.

Since the distribution of fashion adoption scores was bimodal and the values of the two modes (Table 2) were quite different, two distinct groups of women may have existed in this sample: (1) those who did not adopt any of the new styles, and (2) those who adopted a small number of the new styles. In order to describe the innovativeness of the respondents in greater detail, data will be presented from four of the sub-sections of the

fashion adoption section of the questionnaire which follow: (1) fashion-cycle ranking index, (2) self-designating innovativeness statements, (3) wardrobe inventory, and (4) style list.

Fashion-cycle ranking index.--The respondents' perception of new styles on the fashion-cycle ranking index was the primary criterion used to weight the various items in the wardrobe inventory. As shown in Table 3, the largest percentage of respondents rated hot pants as the newest style and midi skirts and gaucho pants as fairly new styles.

All women, however, did not agree as to which styles were the newest. In order to confirm that the three styles above (midi skirts, gauchos, and hot pants) were actually new styles, two additional criterion were used (see Chapter IV for detailed explanation): (1) frequency of styles occuring in Vogue magazine (Appendix B), and (2) styles in the wardrobe inventory with the lower per cent-to-total (see Table 4). While the former showed that midis, gauchos and hot pants had been recently been introduced; the latter indicated that they were not yet accepted by the majority of the women in the sample and, therefore, were new styles.

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[1]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 160.

TABLE 3.--Percentage of women rating each of the styles on the fashion-cycle ranking index.

Style List Items	N	Hottest Item	Fairly New	Everyone's Wearing	On It's Way Out	Outdated
Knickers	243	.04	.56	.02	.21	.17
Mini-skirts	243	.04	.01	.76[c]	.17	.02
Bell bottoms	243	.14	.01	.82[c]	.03	.00
Midi skirts	243	.07	.59[b]	.04	.26	.04
Gaucho pants	243	.08	.63[b]	.02	.30	.07
Maxi skirts	243	.10	.40	.12	.20	.08
Pantsuits	243	.24	.05	.67[c]	.03	.01
Thigh vests	243	.11	.23	.46	.17	.03
Hot pants	243	.40[a]	.47	.02	.04	.07
Jumpsuits	243	.09	.40	.32	.17	.02

[a]Perceived as the newest style.

[b]Perceived as fairly new styles.

[c]Perceived as the mode.

Self-designating innovativeness statements.--The range of the self-designating innovativeness statements was from 0 to 8. The distribution of scores follows:

Intervals	Number of Women	Per cent
0-2	3	1
3-5	174	72
6-8	66	27
Total	243	100

The majority of the women scored in the middle interval which indicated that these women judged themselves to be similar to others in the group rather than more or less innovative.

Wardrobe inventory.--The seven garment length categories of clothing styles which comprised the wardrobe inventory are shown in Table 4. Both ankle-length and mini-length garment categories contained the largest numbers of garments; each with well over one-third of the total number of garments in the wardrobe inventory. Since the number of pants and mini-skirts were similar and were more than twice that of any of the other styles in the inventory, both styles were therefore designated as the mode or the accepted clothing styles for this sample.

Style list, time-of-adoption, and subsequent discontinuance.--As previously explained in Chapter IV, a style list was included in the questionnaire (Appendix, A, p. 146) in order to measure actual time of adoption.

TABLE 4.--Percentage distribution and mean number of styles bought new or sewn in total wardrobe.

Wardrobe Inventory	Number		Per cent		Mean
Garment Length Category 1					
A. Skirts (micro-mini)	588		9.1		2.4
B. Pants ("hot" pants)	223		3.4		.9
		811		12.5	
Garment Length Category 2					
A. Skirts (mini)	1,529*		23.6		6.3
B. Pants (shorts)	807		12.4		3.3
		2,336		36.0	
Garment Length Category 3					
A. Skirts (just-above knee)	483		7.4		2.0
B. Pants (culottes)	144		2.2		.6
		627		9.6	
Garment Length Category 4					
A. Skirts (knee-length)	44		.7		.2
B. Pants (knickers)	28		.4		.1
		72		1.1	
Garment Length Category 5					
A. Skirts (just-below knee)	16		.3		.1
B. Pants (peddle-pushers)	8		.1		.0
		24		.4	
Garment Length Category 6					
A. Skirts (mid-calf)	36		.6		.1
B. Pants (Gauchos)	25		.4		.1
		61		1.0	
Garment Length Category 7					
A. Skirts (maxi)	227		3.5		.9
B. Pants	1,573*		24.2		6.5
C. Jumpsuit/overalls	219		3.4		.9
D. Pantsuit	540		8.3		2.2
		2,559		39.4	
Totals		6,490		100.0	26.6

*Designated modes.

Fashion diffusion curves were plotted for each of the five styles in the list (Appendix B, p. 153) based on the month and year of adoption indicated by the respondents. The data revealed that while several women owned pantsuits and maxis in 1968, there were no midi skirts or gaucho pants in any of the respondents' wardrobes until June, 1969 and September, 1969, respectively. Although pantsuits and maxis appeared to have the most rapid diffusion rates, jumpsuits seemed to have fairly moderate popularity throughout the period and midis and gauchos were owned by only a few of the respondents.

Since the respondents were asked to recall those styles adopted over a three-year period of time, time of adoption was followed by a subsequent discontinuance record. The data (Table 5) revealed that pantsuits and maxi skirts were the most frequently rejected styles. This finding was consistent with data from the wardrobe inventory which showed that pantsuits and maxi skirts were not the newest styles. Perhaps these two styles may be a declining mode or a fad. However, the percentage of the number of women discontinuing to the total number of women who had purchased the styles was quite small. Reasons which were given by the women for discontinuing wearing the styles are shown on the following page.

TABLE 5.--Frequency and percentage of women discontinuing wearing style list items to total number of women owning style list items.

Style List Items	Number Women Owning	Number Discontinuing Wearing	Per cent Discontinuing Wearing
Mid-Calf Length:			
A. Skirts	21	2	10
B. Pants	20	1	5
Ankle-Length:			
A. Skirt	114	9	8
B. Pantsuit	201	8	4
C. Jumpsuit/ overalls	99	4	4

Reasons Discontinuing Wearing Styles	Number of Women Stating Reason
"doesn't fit"	7
"dislike style"	7
"not comfortable"	4
"no occasion to wear"	4
"opposite sex dislikes"	1
"boredom"	1
Total	24

Favorableness Toward New Styles

The scores for each respondent on favorableness toward new styles were the summed weights of the twenty statements on pages 5-6 of the questionnaire (see Appendix A, pp. 148-49). The range of scores on the favorableness toward new styles measure varied from 25 to 90 out of a possible range of 20-100. The distribution of scores follows:

Interval	Number
25-30	6
31-35	11
36-40	23
41-45	25
46-50	36
51-55	43
56-60	26
61-65	27
66-70	13
71-75	13
76-80	11
81-85	6
86-90	3
Total	243

The frequency distribution does not appear skewed but a comparison of the mean, median and modes in Table 2, indicated that the scores were skewed somewhat in the positive direction. The skewness of the scores could not be predicted since the attitudes of the respondents toward new styles was likely to depend on the group's norms on innovativeness.

Since a panel of judges rated the intensity and polarity of the statements (for a detailed explanation see Chapter IV) in the Favorableness Toward New Styles Measure, a score of 60 on this measure, which had a possible range of scores of 20 to 100, may be designated as a neutral attitudinal position. The sample mean, median and mode on favorableness toward new styles may then be compared with this presumed neutral position. A closer examination of the measures of central tendency (Table 2) showed that these scores appeared to cluster

only slightly lower than the presumed neutral attitude score of 60. The data seem to indicate that the norm for the group is primarily indifference toward new clothing styles. The current popular literature also seems to indicate that "anything goes" in dress and that individuals do not seem to care what others wear.

Social Participation

Few respondents participated in university, church, or community organizations, clubs or groups (see Appendix A, p. 144). A comparison of the mean, median, and mode on social participation in Table 2 as well as an analysis of the frequency distribution of social participation scores indicated a highly negatively skewed distribution:

Interval	Number
0	113
1	47
2-3	27
4-5	23
6-7	18
8-9	5
10-11	5
12-13	2
14-15	1
16-17	1
18-19	1
Total	243

One hundred and thirteen women or 46.5 per cent of the respondents received zero scores on the social participation measure. A negatively skewed distribution was anticipated since the social participation measure was

weighed to give higher scores to those women who were presidents and officers of clubs and organizations.

A report of the findings concerning the relationships among the variables of fashion adoption, fashion opinion leadership, social participation, and favorableness toward new styles follows.

Relationship Between Fashion Adoption and Fashion Opinion Leadership

Fashion adoption was hypothesized to be positively related to fashion opinion leadership. A Chi-square test indicated that the coefficient of contingency was highly significant (see Table 6). This result revealed that women who scored high on fashion adoption also scored high on fashion opinion leadership. Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted.

TABLE 6.--Relationship of women's fashion adoption and fashion opinion leadership.

Fashion Opinion Leadership	Fashion Adoption			Totals
	0-36	37-78	79-537	
23-53	41	25	20	86
54-71	27	23	24	74
72-95	13	29	41	83
Totals	81	77	85	243

$\chi^2 = 22.22$ $c = .29$ $p < .001$

This finding which indicated that women who were highly influential in the field of fashions also owned and wore more new styles than others, lends support to Schrank's[1] and Marshall's[2] results which showed fashion opinion leadership to be positively related to fashion adoption. Since Rogers[3] believed that the relationship between opinion leadership and adoption was dependent upon social system norms, and since fashion opinion leadership and fashion adoption were found to be positively related in this study, the norms of the sample should have been somewhat favorable toward innovations in clothing styles. However, the descriptive data on the Favorable ness Toward New Styles measure indicated that the group norm was somewhat negative or slightly below the assumed neutral position. Perhaps the actual neutral attitude position was lower than the assumed score of 60 due to unknown intervening factors such as the respondents' interpretation of the statements in the Favorableness Toward New Styles measure.

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[1]Schrank, "Fashion Innovation," p. 67.

[2]Marshall, "Leadership in Mens Fashions," p. 48.

[3]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 245-57.

Relationship Between Fashion Opinion Leadership and Favorableness Toward New Styles

A positive relationship between fashion opinion leadership and favorableness toward new styles was hypothesized. The Chi-square contingency coefficient (Table 7) was highly significant beyond the .01 level and gave ample support for the hypothesis.

TABLE 7.--Relationship of women's fashion opinion leadership and favorableness toward new styles.

Favorableness Toward New Styles	Fashion Opinion Leadership			Totals
	23-53	54-71	72-95	
0-46	53	19	20	92
47-58	25	32	28	85
59-90	8	23	35	66
Totals	86	74	83	243

$\chi^2 = 39.63$ $c = .37$ $p < .001$

This finding indicates that women who were highly influential in the field of fashion also were very positive in their attitudes toward new styles. This result was congruent with the findings of the first hypothesis which indicated that women who scored high on opinion leadership were also innovators in wearing the new styles. Thus, although individual's attitudes are not always in agreement with their actual behavior, the attitudes and behaviors of the opinion leaders in this

study seemed to be consistent concerning the acceptance of new styles.

Although little research has been done concerning the relationship between these two variables, this data supports the single study[1] which showed that women who were opinion leaders enjoyed experimenting with the newest styles.

The results of the two preceeding hypothesis which show that both fashion opinion leadership and fashion adoption were significantly related to favorableness toward new styles indicates that the latter variable might have affected the relationship between fashion adoption and fashion opinion leadership. Furthermore, Rogers' generalizations suggest that the relationship between opinion leadership and innovativeness is dependent upon the norms of the social system.[2] Therefore, the effect of favorableness toward new styles on the relationship between fashion adoption and fashion opinion leadership was eliminated by Chi-square tests. Visual inspection of the data indicated that the contingency coefficients obtained between the high ($\chi^2 = 4.47$), medium ($\chi^2 = 9.59$) and the low ($\chi^2 = 5.25$) groups on the two variables were lower (compare with Table 6) when the effects of the

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[1] Summers, "Fashion Opinion Leaders," p. 180.

[2] Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 245.

third variable, favorableness toward new styles, was removed. Thus, favorableness toward new styles seems to have affected the relationship between fashion opinion leadership and fashion adoption.

Relationship Between Fashion Opinion Leadership and Social Participation

A positive relationship was hypothesized between fashion opinion leadership and social participation. The Chi-square contingency coefficient, however, was not significant at the .01 level, and consequently the hypothesis could not be confirmed (see Table 8). Although the finding reveals that no significant relationship existed between the two variables, the result was in the predicted direction.

TABLE 8.--Relationship of women's fashion opinion leadership and social participation.

Social Participation	Fashion Opinion Leadership			Totals
	23-53	54-71	72-95	
0	27	26	26	79
1	20	12	18	50
2-19	39	36	39	114
Totals	86	74	83	243

$\chi^2 = 1.35$ c = .07 p = .85 NS[a]

[a]NS = not significant.

Based on the review of the literature which showed that fashion opinion leadership was related to both formal and informal social participation, the present study does not support the majority of the research. The social participation measure itself may not have been refined enough to distinguish between the respondents. On the other hand, the fashion opinion leaders in this study may have participated in informal rather than formal social activities and a multi-dimensional measure of informal as well as formal social participation might have produced different results. The non-significant relationship found between fashion opinion leadership and social participation as measured by formal organizational participation did, however, support Katz and Lazarsfeld's statement that: "The fact that a woman is a leader in one area has no bearing on the likelihood that she will be a leader in another . . ."[1]

Relationship Between Fashion Adoption and Social Participation

Social participation was hypothesized to be positively related to fashion adoption. Contrary to the prediction, the Chi-square contingency coefficient did not reach the .01 level of significance, and therefore, failed to support the original hypothesis (see Table 9).

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[1]Katz and Lazarsfeld, Personal Influence, p. 334.

TABLE 9.--Relationship of women's fashion adoption and social participation.

Social Participation	Fashion Adoption 0-36	37-78	79-537	Totals
0	32	25	22	79
1	16	18	16	50
2-19	33	34	47	114
Totals	81	77	85	243
$\chi^2 = 4.87$	$c = .14$	$p = .30$	NS[a]	

[a]NS = not significant at .01 level.

This finding suggests that social participation as measured was not related to fashion adoption.

A Pearson r test to verify the results confirmed the non-significant relationship between the two variables. Both statistical tests, however, did show that the relationship between fashion adoption and social participation was in the positive direction as hypothesized. Perhaps if the measure had included cosmopolitan social activities in addition to the formal activities on the campus and in the local community the relationship would have been significant. Rogers summary of diffusion research indicated that fashion innovators were likely to belong to cliques and formal organizations outside their social system.[1]

[1]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, pp. 169, 183.

Relationship Between Fashion Adoption and Favorableness Toward New Styles

A positive relationship was predicted between fashion adoption and favorableness toward new styles. A Chi-square test between the two variables yielded highly significant results beyond the .01 level, confirming the hypothesis. Women who scored high on fashion adoption also scored high on favorablenss toward new styles (see Table 10.)

TABLE 10.--Relationship of women's fashion adoption and favorableness toward new styles.

Favorableness Toward New Styles	Fashion Adoption 0-36	37-78	79-537	Totals
0-46	41	31	20	92
47-58	24	28	33	85
59-90	16	18	32	66
Totals	81	77	85	243

$\chi^2 = 14.76$ c = .24 p < .01

This study supports the research of Pasnak[1] whose findings also seemed to indicate that fashion innovators have positive attitudes toward new styles. The data also substantiates Rogers[2] statement that innovators are

[1]Pasnak, "Fashion Innovators," p. 96.

[2]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, pp. 111, 169.

characterized by venturesomeness and have more favorable attitudes toward new ideas than others.

Significance of Differences Between Sub-Categories on Social Participation

In order to test whether significant differences existed among types of prestigious fashion leaders and fashion non-leaders, the sample was divided into four sub-samples based on the fashion opinion leadership and fashion adoption measures. The scores on both measures were divided into thirds as described in Chapter IV, pp. 84-85, and the four mutually exclusive sub-categories which were established were: (1) fashion innovators, (2) fashion opinion leaders, (3) fashion dual leaders, and (4) fashion non-leaders. Since part of the respondents who scored in the upper one-third of the fashion adoption measure were removed and labeled "fashion dual leaders," the innovators who remained may have had characteristics which differed from those of innovators in other studies. The fashion dual leaders' mean score on fashion adoption (see Table 11) was slightly higher than the innovators' which indicates that the fashion dual leaders were in reality the most innovative of those in the sample. Therefore, Rogers' generalizations concerning the characteristics of innovators may be more applicable to the fashion dual leaders in this study.

TABLE 11.--Mean scores on fashion adoption for each sub-category and the rest of the subjects.

Sub-Categories	Mean Scores for Sub-Categories	Mean Scores for Rest of Subjects
Fashion Dual Leader	164.4	80.1
Fashion Innovator	161.4	81.1
Fashion Opinion Leader	43.3	120.5
Fashion Non-Leader	35.7	123.0

Significant differences were hypothesized between fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovators, fashion dual leaders, and fashion non-leaders on social participation. Contrary to the prediction, a Chi-square test revealed that the differences among the four sub-categories on social participation was not significant at the .01 level (see Table 12). Consequently, the hypothesis was not confirmed.

This finding indicates that any one of the four sub-categories did not have a significantly greater amount of social participation than the other sub-categories. The statistical test showed that there is only one chance in a 100 that the sub-categories may differ in their amount of social participation. Perhaps a multi-dimensional measure of social participation including cosmopoliteness and informal social activities as well as the formal organizational participation would yield

TABLE 12.--Significance of differences between sub-categories on social participation.

Social Participation	Fashion Opinion Leaders	Fashion Innovators	Fashion Dual Leaders	Fashion Non-Leaders	Total
0	23	16	17	58	114
1	12	8	8	22	50
2-19	12	16	16	35	79
Totals	47	40	41	115	243
$\chi^2 = 3.80$		c = .12	p = .70	NS[a]	

[a]NS = not significant at .01 level.

significant differences between the four sub-categories. Since the results revealed no significant differences among the four sub-categories no further statistical treatment of the data was undertaken.

Significance of Differences Between Sub-Categories on Favorableness Toward New Styles

Significant differences were hypothesized between fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovators, fashion dual leaders, and fashion non-leaders on favorableness toward new styles. The Chi-square contingency coefficient obtained between the two variables was significant beyond the .01 level (see Table 13). Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted. This finding indicated that at least one of the pairs of sub-categories was significantly

TABLE 13.--Significance of differences between sub-categories on favorableness toward new styles.

Favorableness Toward New Styles	Fashion Opinion Leaders	Fashion Innovators	Fashion Dual Leaders	Fashion Non-Leaders	Total
25-46	27	14	27	24	92
47-58	14	13	11	47	85
59-90	6	13	3	44	66
Total	47	40	41	115	243

$\chi^2 = 39.62$ $c = .37$ $p < .001$

different in their attitudes toward new styles and that there was only one chance in 100 that they were alike.

In order to identify the location of the significant differences among the groups, post hoc Chi-square confidence intervals[1] were used. The data (Table 14) revealed significant differences between two pairs of groups: (1) fashion dual leaders and fashion non-leaders, and (2) fashion opinion leaders and fashion non-leaders.

Since both fashion dual leaders and fashion opinion leaders possess the common trait of opinion leadership, this finding which indicates that both sub-categories were significantly different from fashion non-leaders is consistent with the previous finding which

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[1]Leonard A. Marascuilo, "Large-Sample Multiple Comparisons," Psychological Bulletin, LXV, No. 5 (1966), 281-84.

TABLE 14.--Confidence intervals for significance of differences between pairs of sub-categories on favorableness toward new styles.

Sub-Categories Examined	Difference Between Sub-Categories	Decision
Non-leaders vs. Dual leaders	$+.11<p-p<+.79$	S[a]
Non-leaders vs. Opinion leaders	$+.69<p-p<+.03$	S
Non-leaders vs. Innovators	$-.20<p-p<+.44$	NS[b]
Dual leaders vs. Opinion leaders	$+.33<p-p<+.51$	NS
Dual leaders vs. Innovators	$+.74<p-p<-.12$	NS
Opinion leaders vs. Innovators	$+.65<p-p<-.21$	NS

[a] S = significant difference at .01 level.
[b] NS = no significant difference at .01 level.

revealed that fashion opinion leadership was significantly related to favorableness toward new styles.

However, this finding appears to differ from Rogers' conclusion, based on diffusion research findings, that opinion leaders are "just like their followers, only more so."[1] Since a sociometric technique was not used to determine the fashion opinion leadership scores in the present study, but was used in the majority of the adoption-diffusion research studies, the fashion non-leaders in this study cannot be assumed to be the followers

[1] Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, p. 233.

of the fashion opinion leaders. Therefore, differences between diffusion research findings and the finding of the present study which showed fashion opinion leaders and fashion non-leaders to be significantly different on favorableness toward new styles may be due to the selection of different methods of measuring opinion leadership.

Significance of the Difference Between Fashion Opinion Leaders and the Rest of the Subjects on Favorableness Toward New Styles

No significant difference was hypothesized between fashion opinion leaders and the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles. For this analysis fashion dual leaders, fashion innovators, and non-leaders were grouped and compared with fashion opinion leaders. Post hoc Chi-square confidence intervals for differences between groups (Table 15) indicated that no significant differences existed between fashion opinion leaders and the rest of the subjects. Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted.

This finding supports Rogers'[1] generalization that opinion leaders conform closely to the group's norms and Schrank's[2] finding that women who scored high

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[1]Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, pp. 233-36.

[2]Schrank, "Fashion Innovation," p. 66.

TABLE 15.--Confidence intervals for significance of the difference between fashion opinion leaders and the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles.

Favorableness Toward New Styles	Fashion Opinion Leaders	Rest of Subjects	Difference Between	Decision
25-46	27	65	+.52<p-p<-.04	NS[a]
47-58	14	71	+.22<p-p<-.34	NS
59-90	6	60	+.11<p-p<-.47	NS
Totals	47	196		

[a]NS = no significant difference at .01 level.

on fashion opinion leadership also expressed a belief in conforming to the norm of their friends' dress. Therefore, the fashion opinion leaders in this study, seemed more likely to possess motives of emulation or the desire to be like the group rather than motives of differentiation in their attitudes toward new styles. The data also indicate support for the proposition developed in the literature review that influential prestigious leaders must possess attitudes similar to those of the group in order to carry out their role as an influential.

Although this finding that fashion opinion leaders are not significantly different from the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles does not seem to

coincide with the previous finding that fashion opinion leaders are significantly different from non-leaders on the same measure, the difference may be due to the increased variability in the scores which occurs when the fashion innovators and fashion dual leaders scores are combined with the scores of the fashion non-leaders to form one group.

Significance of the Differences Between Each of the Following Sub-Categories and the Rest of the Subjects on Favorableness Toward New Styles: Fashion Innovators, Fashion Dual Leaders, and Fashion Non-Leaders

Significant differences were predicted between each of the following sub-categories and the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles: fashion innovators, fashion dual leaders, and fashion non-leaders. In order to perform the statistical analysis each of the three sub-categories was paired with the other three remaining sub-categories combined to form one group. Post hoc Chi-square confidence intervals between each of the pairs revealed partial support for the hypothesis (Table 16). Two of the sub-categories, fashion non-leaders and fashion dual leaders, were each found to be significantly different from the rest of the subjects. Innovators, contrary to the hypothesis, were not significantly different from the rest of the subjects in their attitudes toward new styles. Therefore, the hypothesis could not be fully confirmed.

TABLE 16.--Confidence intervals for significance of differences between each of the following sub-categories and the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles: fashion innovators, fashion dual leaders, and fashion non-leaders.

Favorableness Toward New Styles	Sub-Category Examined	Rest of the Subjects	Difference Between	Decision
25-46 (low)	Non-leaders	Rest	$-.12<p-p<-.54$	S[a]
47-58 (medium)	Non-leaders	Rest	$+.36<p-p<-.14$	NS[b]
59-90 (high)	Non-leaders	Rest	$+.41<p-p<+.02$	S
25-46	Innovators	Rest	$+.02<p-p<-.08$	NS
47-58	Innovators	Rest	$+.01<p-p<-.08$	NS
59-90	Innovators	Rest	$-.13<p-p<+.36$	NS
25-46	Dual leaders	Rest	$+.67<p-p<+.01$	S
47-58	Dual leaders	Rest	$-.39<p-p<+.19$	NS
59-90	Dual leaders	Rest	$-.57<p-p<+.19$	NS

[a]S = significantly different.

[b]NS = no significant difference.

This finding indicates that the attitudes of the fashion dual leaders and fashion non-leaders, but not the fashion innovators, appeared to differ from the group norm on favorableness toward new styles. Possibly the Fashion Adoption and Favorableness Toward New Styles measures were not sufficiently refined to enable fashion innovators to be differentiated from the rest of the subjects. Or, fashion innovators may actually be less favorable in their attitudes than would seem likely from their innovative behavior.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The major concern of this study was to investigate the acceptance of new styles in women's clothing and to compare differential characteristics of three types of prestigious fashion leaders and fashion non-leaders on social participation and favorableness toward new styles. Acceptance of two recently introduced styles, "hot" or very short pants and mid-calf length skirts and pants, were used as a means to assess the extent to which each of the four sub-categories of respondents above exhibited differentiation or emulation of group norms on dress.

The literature revealed that although theorists generally agree that fashion diffusion and the acceptance of new styles are based on two polar motives, emulation and differentiation, writers have generally emphasized either emulation or differentiation rather than the relationship between the two. Despite the majority of the theorists' emphasis on the importance of either the group or the fashion leader, the implication throughout the

literature is that the fashion leaders' ability to influence others or to promote styles which are later accepted by the group is related to the fashion leaders' own innovativeness which in turn depends upon group norms. Since many new styles are promoted but do not become generally accepted it is likely that certain types of fashion leaders may show more non-conformity or differentiation in dress than group norms will tolerate. Differences found between various types of prestigious leaders and the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles would give some support to the proposed theoretical relationship between the concepts of differentiation and emulation.

Rogers' theory of the diffusion and adoption of innovations, included generalizations concerning both the influential and innovative characteristics of certain typical prestigious leaders in relation to group norms on innovativeness. Therefore, Rogers' theory seemed to be most useful in relating the two polar concepts, emulation and differentiation. In addition, Rogers' theory appeared to be helpful in explaining the stage in the process of fashion change where prestigious fashion leaders actually transfer new styles to their followers.

The population for the study consisted of married and single undergraduate women who lived on the university campus, in East Lansing, or Lansing, Michigan. Since the sample of 243 respondents was drawn randomly from the

12,756 women who met the criteria, the findings of this study are applicable to the other women students living in the university area.

The questionnaires, mailed to 500 randomly selected women, were designed to obtain information about fashion opinion leadership, fashion adoption, favorableness toward new styles, social participation, and socio-economic status. Demographic data concerning marital status and year-in-university were obtained from the university enrollment records printed in the student directory.

Fashion curves of the frequencies of new styles appearing in Vogue magazine were plotted to establish a cut-off date for the Fashion Adoption Measure. The respondents' perceptions of new styles were used to weight specific items in the wardrobe inventory section of the Fashion Adoption Measure.

The scores of all 243 respondents were used in the analysis of the first five hypotheses concerning the relationships among the test variables. The test variables were fashion adoption, fashion opinion leadership, social participation, and favorableness toward new styles. Since the data were not all interval level, the distribution of scores was skewed, and the bivariate distributions non-linear, Chi-square tests were used to determine the significance of the relationships among the variables. Pearson r correlation coefficients were calculated to verify the results and to measure the effects of demographic

data on the test variables. Few significant correlations resulted in the latter case. Therefore, concern for those intervening demographic variables measured was dismissed. Means, medians, modes, standard deviations, and ranges were calculated to describe the distribution of the scores.

The subjects were divided into four mutually exclusive sub-categories for the statistical analysis of hypotheses six through nine. The sub-categories were based on the respondents' scores on the Fashion Adoption and Fashion Opinion Leadership measures. The upper one-third of the subjects on each of these variables were chosen as fashion innovators and fashion opinion leaders. Women who scored in the upper one-third of both measures were labeled fashion dual leaders. Fashion non-leaders were those women who did not score in the upper one-third of either of the two measures. Chi-square tests were used to determine whether there were significant differences between all possible pairs of sub-categories on social participation and favorableness toward new styles. In order to determine the location of the differences between the four sub-categories of respondents on favorableness toward new styles, post hoc Chi-square confidence levels were used. This statistical comparison was also used to determine the significance of the differences among each of the four sub-categories and the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles.

A summary of the proposed hypotheses and the results are recorded as follows:

Hypothesis 1.--Fashion opinion leadership will be positively related to fashion adoption.

A highly significant relationship was found between fashion opinion leadership and fashion adoption, thereby confirming the hypothesis above.

Hypothesis 2.--Fashion opinion leadership will be positively related to favorableness toward new styles.

The contingency coefficient measuring the relationship between fashion opinion leadership and favorableness toward new styles indicated a highly significant association between the two variables. This finding supports the second hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3.--Fashion opinion leadership will be positively related to social participation.

The positive relationship found between fashion opinion leadership and social participation as measured by formal participation in clubs, organizations, and groups was not significant. Therefore, the third hypothesis could not be confirmed.

Hypothesis 4.--Fashion adoption will be positively related to social participation.

Although the contingency coefficient between fashion adoption and social participation was found to be in the positive direction, the relationship between the

two variables was not significant. Therefore, the hypothesis above was not accepted.

Hypothesis 5.--Fashion adoption will be positively related to favorableness toward new styles.

A highly significant relationship was discovered between fashion adoption and favorableness toward new styles. This finding confirmed the fifth hypothesis.

Hypothesis 6.--Fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovators, fashion dual leaders, and fashion non-leaders will differ significantly from each other on social participation.

The differences among fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovators, fashion dual leaders, and fashion non-leaders on social participation were not found to be significant at the .01 level of confidence. Therefore, hypothesis six could not be confirmed.

Hypothesis 7.--Fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovators, fashion dual leaders, and fashion non-leaders will differ significantly from each other on favorableness toward new styles.

Highly significant differences were revealed between fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovators, fashion dual leaders, and fashion non-leaders on favorableness toward new styles. Consequently, the seventh hypothesis was supported. Post hoc Chi-square confidence intervals for differences between groups indicated that

two pairs of groups: (1) fashion dual leaders and non-leaders, and (2) fashion opinion leaders and non-leaders, were significantly different in their attitudes toward new styles.

Hypothesis 8.--Fashion opinion leaders will not differ significantly from the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles.

As predicted, no significant differences were discovered betweeen fashion opinion leaders and the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles. Thus, the hypothesis above was accepted.

Hypothesis 9.--Fashion innovators, fashion dual leaders, and fashion non-leaders will each differ significantly from the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles.

Partial support for the above hypothesis was obtained since two of the above sub-categories, fashion dual leaders and fashion non-leaders, were each found to be significantly different from the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles. Since, however, innovators were not significantly different from the rest of the subjects in their attitudes toward new styles, the hypothesis could not be fully accepted.

In summary, the findings of this study revealed highly significant positive relationships, for university women living in the East Lansing or Lansing area, among

favorableness toward new styles, fashion adoption, and fashion opinion leadership. No significant relationships, however, were revealed between fashion adoption or fashion opinion leadership and social participation.

Consistent with the findings which showed a lack of relationship between fashion adoption or fashion opinion leadership and social participation, there were also no significant differences found between fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovators, fashion dual leaders, and fashion non-leaders on social participation. There was a significant difference between the four sub-categories, however, on favorableness toward new styles. Two of the three sub-categories which were expected to differ from the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles were found to be significantly different. These sub-categories were fashion dual leaders and fashion non-leaders. Innovators, contrary to the prediction, were not found to be significantly different from the rest of the subjects on the same measure. Opinion leaders, as predicted, were not significantly different from the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles.

Implications

The findings support the major objective of this study revealing that a theoretical relationship may exist between: (1) the extent to which fashion leaders may either emulate group norms on dress or show individual

distinction in dress, and (2) the group norms on innovativeness in dress. The evidence indicates that both forces, emulation and differentiation, operate within a social system and that the balance of these forces seem to exert a differential effect on the three types of prestigious fashion leaders and the fashion non-leaders studied.

Motives of differentiation appeared to be evident in the attitudes of the fashion dual leaders and the fashion non-leaders since these sub-categories were found to be significantly different from the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles. The fashion dual leaders and the fashion non-leaders represented the extreme and opposite ends of the innovativeness and favorableness continuums. Their less-conforming attitudes toward new styles, thus, were consistent with their behavior. Fashion dual leaders and fashion non-leaders appear to be two different types of non-conformists: (1) fashion dual leaders were more innovative and more favorable toward new styles while, (2) fashion non-leaders were less innovative and less favorable toward new styles.

Motives of emulation seemed to be exhibited in the attitudes of the fashion innovators and the fashion opinion leaders who were both not found to be significantly different from the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles. While motives of emulation had been

predicted for the fashion opinion leaders; the conforming attitudes of the fashion innovators were unexpected.

One explanation for the fashion innovators' conforming attitudes and less-conforming behavior may be the availability of new styles on the market. A fashion innovator may be the person Blumer spoke of who ". . . unwittingly follows a fashion . . . because of a limitation of choice."[1] It is interesting to note that the fashion non-leaders who were relatively more "laggard" in their adoption of new styles than the other three sub-categories, were found to have attitudes toward new styles which were not significantly different from the fashion innovators. Perhaps the role of the innovator may be that of a less deliberate fashion leader. The findings of Schrank[2] and Goodell[3] seem to indicate that the fashion dual leader, rather than the fashion innovator, is the more active of the two types of innovators. The significant difference found in this study between fashion dual leaders and the rest of the subjects but not between fashion innovators and the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles, suggests that women who both adopt and influence are more favorable toward new styles than those women who only adopt.

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[1]Blumer, "Collective Selection," p. 277.

[2]Schrank, "Fashion Innovation," pp. 69-70, 77.

[3]Goodell, "Two Techniques," pp. 52, 65.

The attitudes and behaviors of the fashion opinion leaders appear to have been more consistent than those of the fashion innovators since fashion opinion leaders, who influence others but do not adopt new styles themselves, were also not found to be significantly different from the rest of the subjects in their attitudes toward new styles. This finding appears to support the proposition developed in the literature review that extreme differentiation in clothing styles worn or promoted and the influential's perception of his ability to influence others may be negatively related. Negative public reaction toward new styles may, therefore, have some controlling effect on the type of styles worn and promoted by fashion opinion leaders.

Just as Jack and Schiffer[1] found that fashion designers and promoters must remain within certain bounds or they will not be followed by the woman on the street, the results of this study seem to indicate that the fashion opinion leader must also not be too different from the rest of the group or they will not be followed. Apparently, neither designers who attempt to dictate extreme new styles nor prestigious fashion leaders who wear extreme new styles will be followed.

The implications of these findings may be of interest to designers, manufacturers and retailers who

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[1]Jack and Schiffer, "Limits of Fashion," p. 738.

must often make expensive readjustments in production or take costly markdowns when consumers do not react favorably toward a new textile or apparel design. Thus, the failure of fashion promoters and fashion leaders to obtain followers may subsequently result in higher prices for consumers. Knowledge of consumers' attitudes toward new styles may assist fashion promoters to provide designs which consumers need, want and can afford.

Evidence in the present study indicates that socio-economic class level was not significantly related to innovativeness as the "trickle-down" theory suggests. Instead, the data lend support to King's counter theory of the "trickle-across" nature of fashion. Apparently emulation and differentiation occurred within rather than between socio-economic levels. Since favorableness toward new styles also was not significantly related to socio-economic class level, the reciprocal relationships which seemed to exist between certain prestigious fashion leaders and group norms were apparently not affected by socio-economic class level.

The reciprocal relationships which evidently existed between certain of the prestigious fashion leaders and the rest of the subjects may help to explain certain aspects of fashion change or what Blumer terms "the historical continuity of fashion." If group norms are able to exert some control on the attitudes held or styles adopted by these prestigious leaders, then abrupt shifts

in fashion are not likely. Blumer stated that ". . . fashion innovators always have to consider the prevailing fashion, if for no other reason than to depart from it or to elaborate on it."[1] The implications of these findings may be of value to costume historians and others studying fashion cycles or fashion trends. Perhaps the attitudes and behaviors of certain historical prestigious fashion leaders, influential in fashion change, were related to group norms on innovativeness.

While this study was confined to the investigation of fashion change, the implications of the findings may have ramifications to other aspects of human behavior. For example, the findings concerning the reciprocal controlling influence of certain prestigious leaders and group norms may be of value to behavioral scientists as they study social control.

Additional findings of the present study imply that prestigious fashion leaders' attitudes and behavior concerning new styles have no relationship to their leadership roles in social organizations. Presumably the committee chairmen, officers, and presidents among the respondents in the sample were able to carry out their roles whether or not they conformed to group norms on innovativeness. Since social participation showed a slight positive relationship to fashion adoption and

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[1]Blumer, "Collective Selection," p. 283.

fashion opinion leadership but the relationship among these variables was not significant, it is possible that a refinement of the measure might produce significant results. The data indicated that social participation as measured by leadership in clubs and organizations was quite low. Since few respondents participated in clubs and organizations the sample norm on formal social participation may have been neutral or somewhat negative. Differences between innovators and opinion leaders on social participation might have occurred if informal and cosmopolitan social activities as well as formal social participation were included in the measure.

In summary, it is evident that in order for a comprehensive theory of fashion to evolve, the concept of emulation and differentiation must be further investigated. A more detailed delineation of the reciprocal nature of these forces is needed. Recommendations for further research will be given in the following section of the summary.

Recommendations

In order to make finer distinctions between the three types of prestigious fashion leaders and the fashion non-leaders, a more refined measure of fashion adoption must be devised. Refinement of the present Fashion Adoption measure could be accomplished through an analysis of each of the three component parts, wearing, owning, and

time of adoption. These parts should be analyzed separately in combination with all other variables. Other ways to distinguish between innovators and opinion leaders would be to: (1) study a population known to have unfavorable attitudes toward new styles, (2) collect data on the prestigious fashion leaders immediately after the new styles come out, and (3) study the population over a period of time.

An investigation of the type of clothing worn by each of the four sub-categories of individuals might also reveal differences among these groups on their attitudes and innovativeness. Perhaps the innovators in this study scored lower on favorableness toward new styles than did the fashion dual leaders because they prefer faddish styles or short-lived fashions which were not included in the measure of fashion adoption since it was limited to garment lengths and styles rather than garment details and accessories which might not have historical continuity and therefore could be considered fads. A style list similar to the one in the fashion adoption measure, but consisting of accessories and other small items of apparel, should be developed and given to a group of respondents in conjunction with the fashion adoption measure in order to distinguish between sub-categories of respondents who are fad leaders and those who are fashion leaders.

Since a self-designating technique was used in this study to establish mutually exclusive groups, it is not known whether the fashion dual leaders were more active verbal influentials than the fashion opinion leaders because their "followers" could not be sociometrically determined. Future studies should attempt to validate the present self-designating fashion opinion leadership measure through correlation with sociometric measures of fashion opinion leadership and then additional studies of the differential characteristics of fashion opinion leaders and fashion dual leaders may be undertaken.

Additional analysis of the present data could be made by categorizing the respondents into five adopter categories as the diffusion research suggests: (1) innovators, (2) early adopters, (3) early majority, (4) late majority, and (5) laggards. Perhaps when the innovators are defined in this manner they would differ significantly from the rest of the subjects on favorableness toward new styles. When the four sub-groups were established fashion dual leaders were distinguished from fashion innovators by designating as innovators, those individuals in the lower portion of the upper one-third of the scores on the fashion adoption measure. The characteristics of innovators could be more precisely profiled if the upper 2 1/2 per cent of a large sample were defined as innovators.

In order to investigate in greater detail the differences between the sample norms and the attitudes of the individuals or the relationships between the theoretical concepts of emulation and differentiation, a more flexible and precise means of measuring the sample norms must be devised. The use of measures of central tendency to compare the norms of a group with a prior established neutral score on an attitude measure is valid only if the balance of the positive and negative statements or positions on the measure are equal in direction and intensity. For more valid results in future studies, the effects of the sample norm on innovativeness, perhaps should be partialed out since the data in this study seemed to indicate that favorableness toward new styles was an intervening variable.

Since the respondents names and home addresses were retained from the student enrollment records it is possible that a longitudinal study of these respondents could be made. Research using similar measures could attempt to determine whether an individual's innovative or influential status and attitudes toward fashions vary over time or vary with different garment styles. For example, the new styles in this study were extreme in length: one, "hot" pants, was quite short, and the other, mid-calf lengths, quite long, in comparison to the mode which was ankle length pants and mini skirts. If a less extreme new style were introduced, such as skirts just below the

knee, individuals might have different attitudes toward this new style than toward "hot" pants, midi skirts, and gaucho pants.

Since a substantial number of individuals in two other universities were pre-tested this data could be analyzed and compared with the findings concerning the respondents in this study. Variation in geographic location may reveal differences in the relationships among the test variables and differences between group norms on favorableness toward new styles.

The significant relationships found between favorableness toward new styles, fashion adoption, and fashion opinion leadership suggest that additional studies could be made concerning the relationship of these variables to creativity and experimentation with clothing in general.

The positive though non-significant relationships between social participation and the other test variables should be investigated with other populations using a more general measure of social participation including informal social activities and measures of cosmopoliteness as well as formal organizational participation.

The measures used in this study could be further refined and used in other investigations of the acceptance of fashions by men or by women of other ages than the respondents in this study. Perhaps social participation would have been related to the other test variables if a

younger group of respondents, for example, had been investigated.

Since the data has been collected concerning the respondents' accuracy of perception of new styles in terms of the groups perception of new styles on the fashion-cycle ranking index, the relationship between initial awareness of the new styles and adoption of new styles or favorableness toward new styles could be investigated.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY East Lansing · Michigan

College of Human Ecology

Department of Human Environment and Design

February 26, 1971

Dear Student:

You have been selected from among the Michigan State University coeds to help with our survey about university women and their clothing.

Please do not write your name on the accompanying questionnaire. The number on the questionnaire insures your anonymity.

The questionnaire will take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Before you answer any questions, read the directions for each section carefully. Do not deliberate but put down the answer which first comes to mind.

Be sure to respond to every question.

Since time is important, I must ask you to please return your completed questionnaire in the enclosed postage-paid envelope by March 5, 1971.

Sincerely,

Carol Myers

Carol Myers
Graduate Research Assistant
Textiles and Clothing

attachment: 7-page questionnaire

List below any school, church or community organizations, clubs or groups to which you have belonged during the school year 1970-71. Do not include those in your home community unless you live at home.

Indicate your position in each of those groups by placing a checkmark (✓) in the categories on the right.

Name of Organization	Member	Committee Member	Chairman of Committee	Elected officer (other than president) Write name of position.	President
1.					
2.					
3.					
4.					
5.*					

*If you need more space you may add to the back.

Please rank the following items of clothing as to where you think they currently fall on the fashion cycle at Michigan State University.

Item:	Fashion Cycle Ranking				
	Hottest Item	Fairly New	Everyone's Wearing	On Its Way Out	Outdated
1. knickers					
2. mini skirt					
3. bell bottoms					
4. midi skirt					
5. gaucho pants (mid-calf length)					
6. maxi skirt					
7. pantsuit					
8. thigh length vests					
9. hot pants (short shorts)					
10. jumpsuit					

Listed below are seven categories of garment lengths. In order for me to establish the popularity of these lengths, please estimate the following:

1. The number of garments in each category which you have either bought new or sewn since January 1, 1968. Omit all garments which you may have received as gifts or hand-me-downs. Also omit all outer garments such as capes or coats.

2. Black out the frequency which you wear each of the garment lengths. Use the following guide:

F = Frequently (approximately twice weekly)
R = Regularly (weekly)
O = Occasionally (monthly)
S = Seldom (twice yearly)
N = Never (not at all)

	Number Bought New or Sewn Since Jan. 1, '68	Frequency Worn
EXAMPLE:		
4. Garment Length: near knee-cap		
a. skirt (knee-length suit, dress, etc.)	3	F ■ O S N
b. pants (knickers, etc.)	1	F R O ■ N
1. Garment Length: about 8" above knee		
a. skirt (micro-mini dress, suit, skirt, etc.)		F R O S N
b. pants (short shorts, hot pants, etc.)		F R O S N
2. Garment Length: about 5" above knee		
a. skirt (mini skirt, dress, suit, etc.)		F R O S N
b. Pants (shorts, culottes, etc.)		F R O S N
3. Garment Length: about 2" above knee		
a. skirt (just above-the-knee dress, suit, etc.)		F R O S N
b. pants (culottes, etc.)		F R O S N
4. Garment Length: near knee-cap		
a. skirt (knee-length suit, dress, etc.)		F R O S N
b. pants (knickers, etc.)		F R O S N
5. Garment Length: about 2" below knee		
a. skirt (just below-the-knee dress, suit, etc.)		F R O S N
b. pants (peddle-pushers, etc.)		F R O S N
6. Garment Length: near mid-calf		
a. skirt (midi-length dress, suit, skirt, etc.)		F R O S N
b. pants (gauchos, etc.)		F R O S N
7. Garment Length: near ankle and below		
a. skirt (maxi-length dress, suit, skirt, etc.)		F R O S N
b. pants (slacks, etc.)		F R O S N
c. jumpsuit, overalls, etc.		F R O S N
d. pantsuit (ensemble purchased to go together)		F R O S N

8. Please indicate approximately when you first acquired the following garment lengths and whether of not you have discontinued wearing any of the lengths. If you have never owned any of the lengths, check the last column only.

	When First Acquired	Discontinued Wearing	Own None
a. Mid-calf length			
1.) skirt	_____ (month & year)	____	____
2.) pants	_____ (month & year)	____	____
b. Ankle-length			
1.) skirt	_____ (month & year)	____	____
2.) pantsuit	_____ (month & year)	____	____
3.) jumpsuit, overalls	_____ (month & year)	____	____

9. If you indicated that you discontinued wearing any of the garment lengths above, please indicate why below.

_____

_____

10. Make one checkmark below to indicate when you adopt new clothing styles:

____Much earlier than most students
____Somewhat earlier than most students
____About the same time as most students
____Somewhat later than most students
____Much later than most students

11. Make one checkmark below to indicate how you believe you are dressed compared to most students on the campus:

____More fashionably dressed
____About the same
____Less fashionably dressed

Please read the following statements about clothing. Rate each according to the extent to which you believe the statement is true or not true. Use the following guide; black out your response.

DT = Definitely True
PT = Partially True, more true than false
U = Undecided, Uncertain
PF = Partially False, more false than true
DF = Definitely False

---

1. I generally don't pass along fashion information to others.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
2. Fashion holds a low priority as a topic of conversation among my friends.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
3. Others consult me for information about the latest fashion trends.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
4. I believe I am a very good source of advice about fashion.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
5. People talk too much about fashion.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
6. I never borrow or lend fashion magazines.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
7. My friends ask for my opinions about new styles.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
8. I am more likely than most of my friends to be asked for advice about fashion.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
9. I do more listening than talking during conversations about fashion.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
10. When it comes to fashion, I am among the least likely of my friends to be thought of as an advice giver.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
11. It is important to share one's opinions about the new styles with others.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
12. My friends don't think of me as a knowledgeable source of information about fashion trends.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
13. I recently convinced someone to change an aspect of her appearance to something more fashionable.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF

DT = Definitely True
PT = Partially True, more true than false
U = Undecided, Uncertain
PF = Partially False, more false than true
DF = Definitely False

14.	I believe in sharing with others what I know about trends in fashion.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
15.	I enjoy discussing fashion.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
16.	People bypass me as a source of advice about fashion.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
17.	I dislike discussing clothes and fashion.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
18.	I like to help others make decisions about fashion.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
19.	I am never first to be asked for an opinion about a current style.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
20.	I enjoy being asked about fashion trends.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
21.	I look forward to the changes in women's fashions each season.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
22.	I like the gaucho (mid-calf pants) look.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
23.	Wearing the latest fashions would make me feel conspicuous and uncomfortable.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
24.	I dislike the new longer skirt lengths.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
25.	Wearing the newest fashions is stimulating and exciting.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
26.	I believe midi (mid-calf length) skirts are never going to be popular.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
27.	I enjoy being the first to wear a new clothing style.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
28.	Women's fashions change too often for my liking.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
29.	I think long skirts make women look dowdy.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
30.	I think that the mid-calf lengths look ridiculous on most women.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
31.	I prefer to wear clothing which stays in style for several years.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
32.	I think long skirts are comfortable to wear.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF

DT = Definitely True
PT = Partially True, more true than false
U = Undecided, Uncertain
PF = Partially False, more false than true
DF = Definitely False

33. I readily accept new fashion trends.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
34. I plan never to buy a midi skirt.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
35. I think the new longer lengths make women appear more feminine.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
36. I prefer skirts which are above-the-knee.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
37. I believe maxi skirts are impractical.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
38. Wearing the latest fashions is important to me.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
39. I do not think long skirts are economical.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF
40. I like to be considered one of the most fashionably dressed coeds.	DT	PT	U	PF	DF

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Please indicate the main wage earner in your family.

_____father
_____mother
_____other (please specify) _____
(example: stepfather, uncle, brother)

2. Please indicate the source of income for the major wage earner in your family.

_____a) wages, hourly wages (weekly paycheck)
_____b) profits and fees from a business or profession
_____c) salary paid on a monthly basis
_____d) social security or unemployment insurance
_____e) odd jobs, irregular work, seasonal work
_____f) if other, please explain

_____

3. Please explain in detail what the main wage earner does at work. Please explain specifically type of work. Examples: salesman in a clothing store, waiter, manages 20 other workers in an office, works on the assembly-line, owns and manages a small store with six employees.

_____

4. Does any other person contribute to the financial support of your family?

____yes ____no

5. If yes, please explain who (mother, brother, uncle, etc.).

_____

6. If yes, please explain in detail the type of work done by this person.

_____

7. Please indicate the source of income for the second person who contributes to your family's financial support.

_____a) wages, hourly wages (weekly paycheck)
_____b) profits and fees from a business or profession
_____c) salary paid on a monthly basis
_____d) social security or unemployment insurance
_____e) odd jobs, irregular work, seasonal work
_____f) if other, please explain

_____

8. Please indicate the highest level of education achieved by each of the following.

_____father

_____mother

_____main wage earner (if other than mother or father)

a) finished 7th grade or lower
b) finished 8th grade
c) finished 9th grade
d) finished 10th or 11th grade
e) graduated from high school
f) one to three years of college
g) college graduate
h) graduate school after college
i) don't know

9. If the main wage earner is a college graduate, what is the highest degree he holds?

_____

Please glance back over the questionnaire
to make sure you have not omitted any items.

APPENDIX B

Fashion Curves

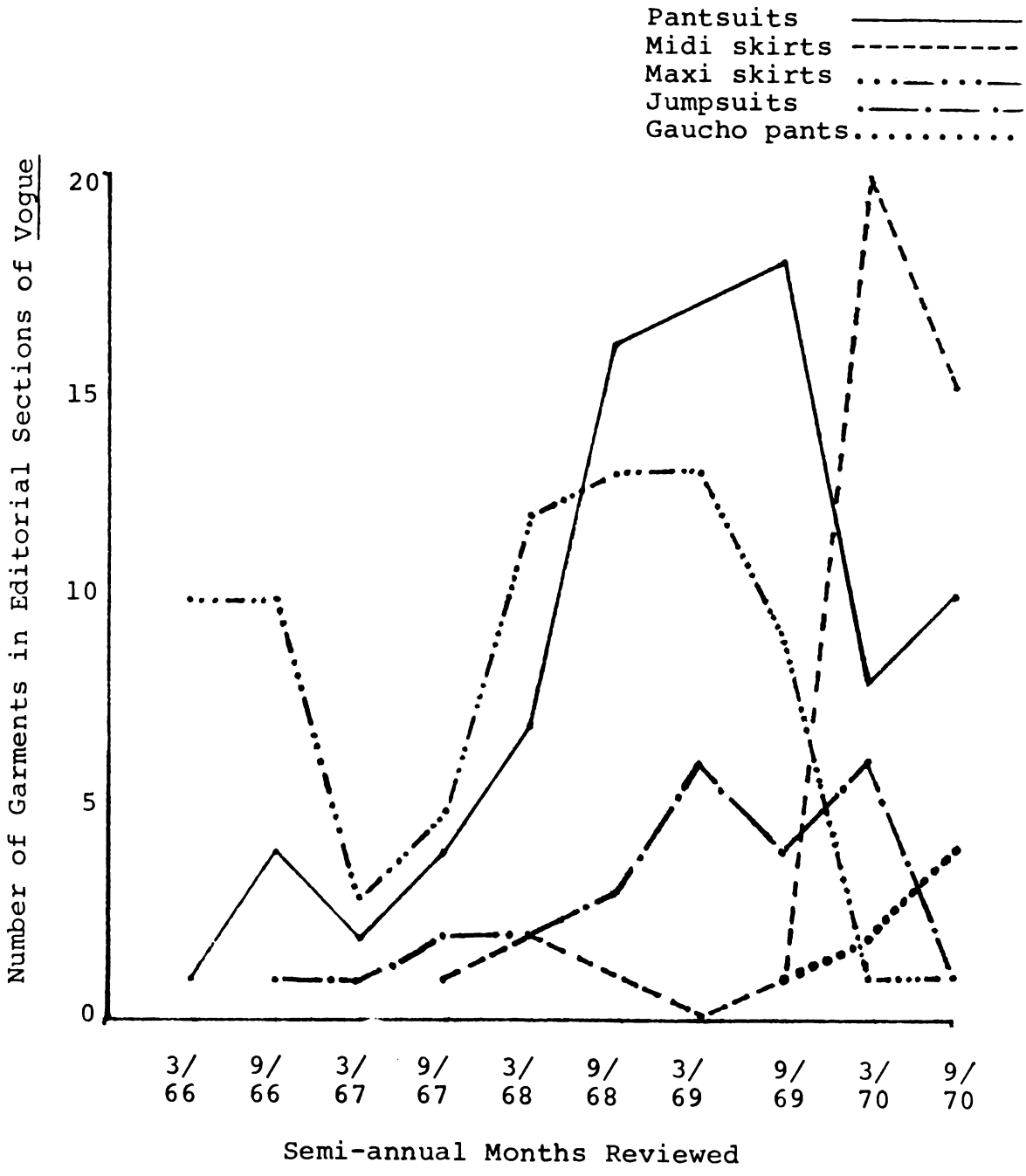

Figure B-1.--Fashion curves for styles appearing in Vogue, 1966-1970.

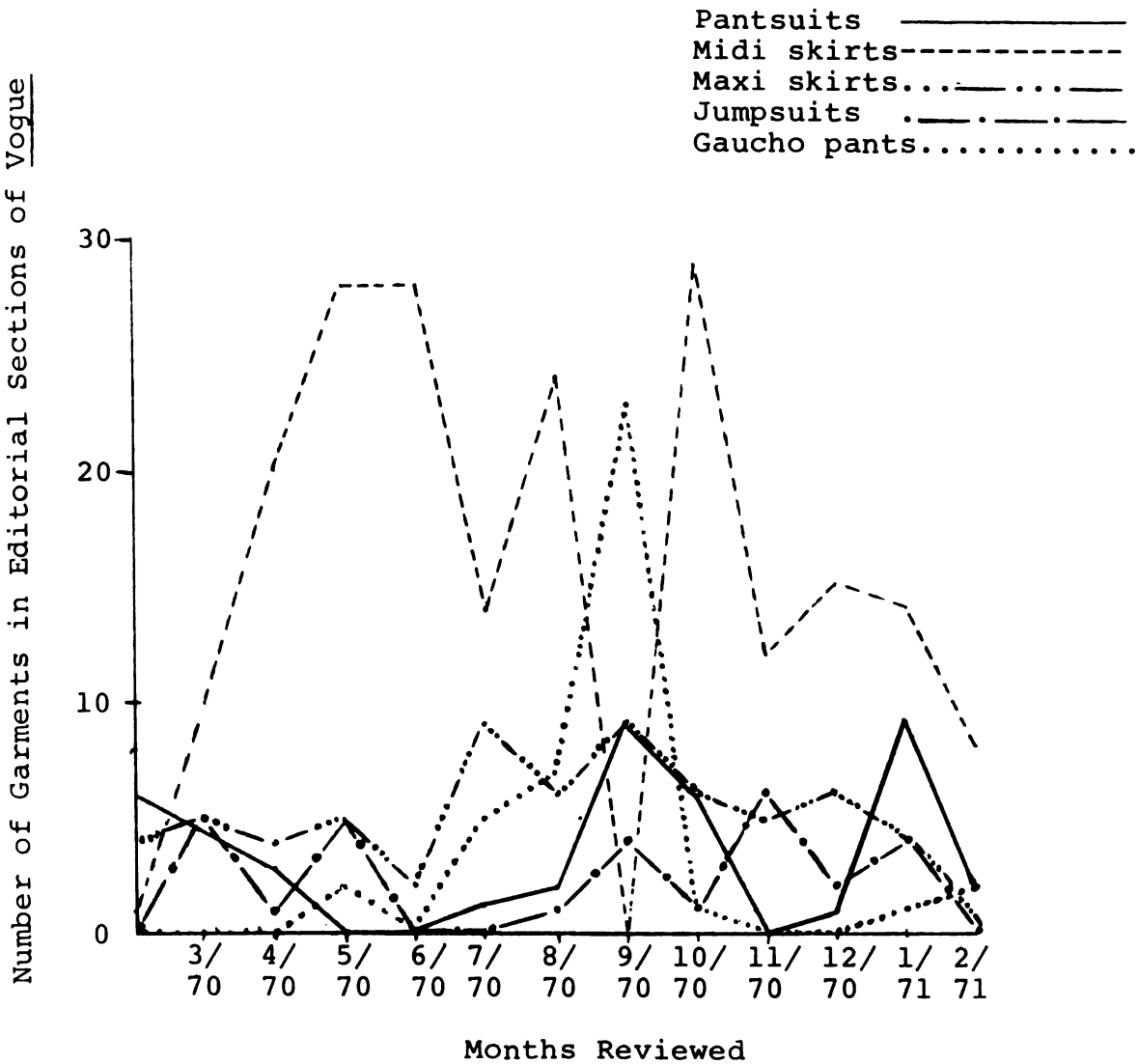

Figure B-2.--Fashion curves for styles appearing in Vogue, 1970-71.

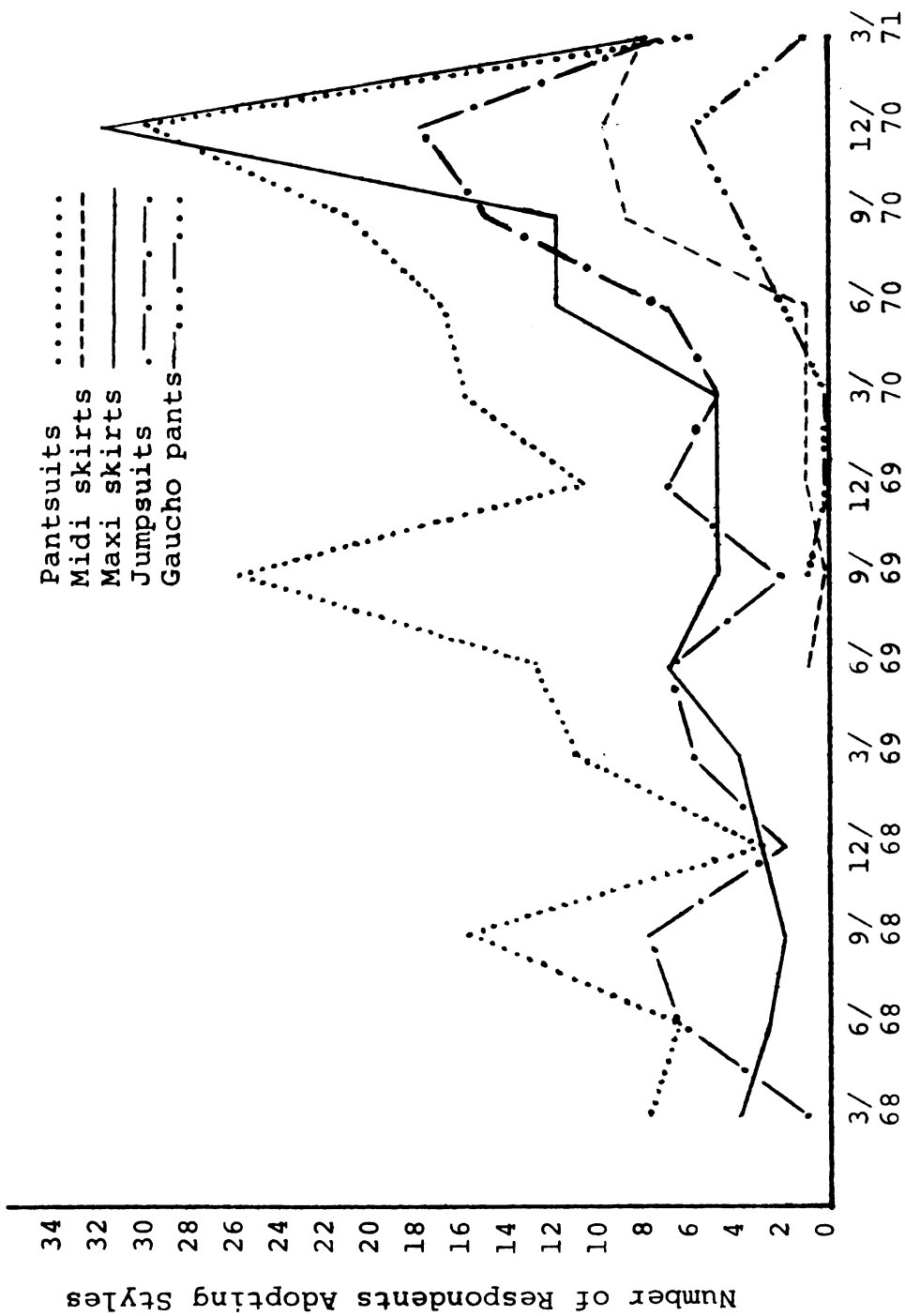

Figure B-3.--Fashion curves for style list items, 1968-71.