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MEN'S PERCEPTIONS OF SEX ROLE
AND DRESS IN PROJECTIVE
OCCUPATIONAL STORY-SITUATIONS

By

Karen Walsh Ketch

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ABSTRACT

MEN'S PERCEPTIONS OF SEX ROLE AND DRESS IN PROJECTIVE OCCUPATIONAL STORY-SITUATIONS

By

Karen Walsh Ketch

The objectives of the study included an examination of males acceptance of females in somewhat traditional male occupational roles and a determination of males reactions toward deviations from clothing and appearance expectations in occupational situations.

The sample consisted of 230 married males residing with their wives and at least one school age child. Data were collected as part of an integrated research project on Quality of Life. The instrument, part of a self-administered questionnaire, consisted of five projective occupational story-situations. Respondents were asked open-ended questions which became the basis for scale development. Demographics, as well as two clothing attitudinal statements were included in the analysis.

Although the null hypotheses, with the exception of one, were not rejected, it was concluded that clothing and appearance is important to occupational situations based on the content of responses. Significant Spearman Rank Order Correlations were revealed for both independent and dependent variables.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	v
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY	1
Background	1
Statement of the Problem	2
Definition of Terms	2
Hypotheses	3
Assumptions.	3
Limitations.	4
Theoretical Framework	4
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	9
Sex Role.	9
Dress and Communication.	22
III. METHODOLOGY	28
Introduction	28
Description of the Instrument.	28
Pretest	31
The Sample, Design and Selection.	33
Data Collection	34
Data Coding.	35
Analysis of the Data.	39
IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	44
Description of Sample	44
Construction Worker Story-Situation.	49
Lawyer Story-Situation	59
Additional Analysis	72
Correlations Between Independent and Dependent Variables for the Total Sample.	75
Correlations Between Independent and Dependent Variables by Set Type.	77

	Page
V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS.	80
Conclusions by Major Hypotheses	81
Limitations of the Findings	83
Suggestions for Further Study.	84
APPENDICES	
A. PORTION OF QUALITY OF LIFE QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN THIS STUDY	86
B. INTERVIEWER PROCEDURES AND FORMS USED IN THE FIELD. . .	94
C. SELECTED RESPONSES TO STORY-SITUATIONS.	99
BIBLIOGRAPHY.	102

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Story-Situations by Set	29
2. Comparative Results of Set A and Set B Questionnaire Respondents on Basic Demographic Variables	41
3. Age of Respondents.	45
4. Educational Background of Respondents	46
5. Employment Status of Respondents	47
6. Dual Career Employment Status	47
7. 1977 Income of Respondents	49
8. Positive Negative Feelings in Response to the Question: "How would you have felt if you were Carol?"	51
9. Intensity of Feeling Derived from Response to the Question: "How would you have felt if you were Carol?"	52
10. Frequency of Mention of Sex-Role, Abilities/Skills and Appearance/Clothing as Reason for Carol Not Being Hired	53
11. Saliency of Clothing/Appearance Scale	54
12. Education of Respondent and Sex-Role Given as a Reason Why Carol Was Not Hired	55
13. Analysis of Variance of Response to Sex-Role and Occupational Prestige	57
14. Approval-Disapproval of Lawyer in Response to the Question: "What do you think of the lawyer?"	61
15. Approval-Disapproval of Lawyer's Appearance and Clothing in Response to the Question: "What do you think of the lawyer?"	62

Table	Page
16. Saliency of Clothing/Appearance Scale.	63
17. Classification of Statements Made by Respondents About the Clothing and Appearance of the Lawyer.	64
18. Action Taken by Respondents in Answer to the Question, "If you were Tom, what would you have done?".	66
19. Spearman Rank Order Correlations of Independent Variables .	73
20. Spearman Rank Order Correlations of Dependent Variables. .	74
21. Spearman Rank Order Correlations Between Independent and Dependent Variables Used in Analysis of Lawyer Story-Situation - Total Sample	76
22. Spearman Rank Order Correlations Between Independent and Dependent Variables Used in Analysis of Lawyer Story-Situation - Male and Female Lawyer	78

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Background

Although there have been numerable societal changes recently, many would agree that there still remain expected patterns of behavior in our culture. Among these are dress and appearance expectations for various occupations. Many occupations require a uniform. Although a formal uniform may not be required in other occupations, the clothing expectations of employers, fellow workers, and even the public, may be very definite. These expectations include not only the garments worn but subtle appearance characteristics such as the state of repair of the clothing and the general way in which it is worn.

There has been a steady increase in the number of women in the work force (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1977). Changes in our society have fostered the growth of women interested in life-long careers as opposed to work primarily to supplement the family's income, or until marriage or the advent of children. Slowly, women are branching out into jobs once exclusively filled by men and are also moving into higher management and professional areas. Is there now general acceptance of persons in non-traditional occupational sex roles? Research has revealed that impressions are formed, and judgments of competence and other personal characteristics may be made on the basis of clothing and appearance cues (Ryan, 1966, pp. 37-38). Are clothing and appearance relied on more

in these judgments when the individual is in a non-traditional sex role?

Statement of the Problem

With the increase in the number of women in the labor force and in jobs formerly held primarily by men, traditional societal expectations of sex roles are changing. There have also been changes in the range of tolerance for acceptable clothing and appearance for many situations. This study focuses on men's reactions to these changes as revealed in their responses to two projective occupational story-situations.

The objectives of the study were to:

1. Examine male acceptance of females in somewhat traditional male occupational roles.
2. Determine male respondents reactions toward deviations from clothing and appearance norms in occupational situations.

Definition of Terms

Appearance. The condition of the garments and visual impact of the referent.

Clothing. Garments worn by the referent in the story-situations.

Deviation. Exceeding or not meeting the normative clothing or appearance expectation for a particular occupational role.

Dress. The items worn and their appearance.

Saliency of Appearance/Clothing. Determined by whether or not appearance and clothing are conspicuous or prominent in the respondents answers to questions about the referents in the story-situations.

Sanction. Degree of approval or disapproval of the referent or his clothing in the story-situations; positive, negative response.

Occupational Prestige. Score which corresponds to the Bureau of Census occupational classifications. Theoretically, it represents the amount of power or influence implied by the activities of the occupation and the resources given to the employee.

Hypotheses

Sex Role Expectations

1. There will be a relationship between the age, educational level, income and occupational prestige of the respondents and their reaction to the sex of the referent in the occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

2. There will be a relationship between the employment status of the respondents' wives and their reaction to the sex of the referent in occupational situations, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

Clothing and Appearance Expectations

3. There will be a relationship between the age, educational level, income and occupational prestige of the respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance in the story-situations.

Assumptions

1. Men are aware of the appropriateness of clothing in relation to specific occupational roles.

2. The dress described in the case studies represents a conceivable deviation from normative expectations for each occupation.

3. Respondents were motivated to indicate their true feelings.

Limitations

1. Due to the fact that responses from three different sampling frames were combined, results cannot be generalized beyond the specific sample under study.

2. The accuracy of the data is limited to how seriously the respondents considered their responsibility to complete the open-ended questions honestly and not rely on socially desirable answers.

Theoretical Framework

Person Perception

Since subjects were asked to respond to actors in hypothetical situations, person perception, which focuses on the process by which impressions, opinions or feelings about other persons are formed, was chosen as the theoretical framework. Person perception includes subjective judgments and inferences that go beyond one's direct sensory information (Secord and Backman, 1964, p. 49).

Individuals vary in the way in which they perceive others, and each appears to have his own "implicit personality theory" of what others are like. Kelly believes that the perceiver approaches each social situation with an expectation or hypothesis about it and then compares this hypothesis to the reality of the situation. The perceiver's hypotheses are called "personal constructs," by Kelly, and he believes they are interrelated into a consistent scheme. No two sets of personal constructs are ever alike, although they may appear similar among perceivers (Shaver, 1975, p. 24).

Considering that there are many diverse ways that others may be perceived, Secord and Backman (1964, p. 53) suggest a number of

fundamental points about person perception;

1. The level of complexity at which persons are perceived varies from one perceiver to another.
2. Each perceiver has certain 'central' traits or characteristics that he emphasizes in describing others. The other person is always sized up with respect to the degree to which he possesses or lacks those traits.
3. The centrality of traits in forming impressions of others is probably a function of the perceiver's own personality.
4. Others are often described in 'relational' terms; that is, how the other relates to the perceiver and to other persons.

The authors define "modes of perception" in terms of complexity of description. Description progresses from simple outward appearances to descriptions of central traits, followed by clusters of congruous traits and finally at the most complex level, description of traits that are incongruous. Perceivers often process limited information to produce a more congruous impression, than is implied by the information itself. Simple cues or bits of information are expanded upon to "round out" the picture or description. On the basis of verbal information alone, people often will make inferences about personality and imagine what one looks like.

A study by Bruner, Shapiro and Tagiuri (1958, pp. 277-288) revealed that each bit of information about another person will lead perceivers to make certain inferences about his character. When many bits are presented, perceivers add up the inferences from each of the bits and arrive at a total impression (Secord and Backman, 1964, p. 58). When a perceiver selectively emphasizes certain cue traits, it is a reflection of the social or personal values he attaches to the traits.

It is impossible for a perceiver to respond to all aspects of a stimulus person. Therefore, s/he resorts to a classification system

which categorizes the information received and places the stimulus person in an established category associated with certain personality attributes. Shaver (1975, pp. 13-14) states that:

perception is really best considered an act of categorization: through early experiences the perceiver learns what stimulus elements are reliably associated with each other and becomes able to combine these into meaningful categories.

Further, in making this determination, some aspects of the stimulus person are obviously more relevant than others.

Categorized attributes may be physical, sexual or racial characteristics; they may involve membership in a group, organization or society; or they may even be based on certain distinctive behavior patterns (Secord and Backman, 1964, p. 67). An important limitation to categorization is the prior entry effect. Early information which contributed to the formation of categories will be hard to overrule by later disconfirmations of that information. Partially because of this cognitive prior entry effect, the values and attitudes that are formed during the early establishment of categories by perceivers will be highly resistant to later change (Shaver, 1975, p. 15).

Because social stimuli is so complex, some degree of categorization in person perception is inevitable. The process of categorization can lead to some problems, as those associated with stereotyping. "A stereotype is a special form of categorical response; membership in a category is sufficient to evoke the judgment that the person possesses all the attributes belonging to the category" (Secord and Backman, 1964, p. 67). Perceivers may have personal stereotypes, which characterize their individual opinions and there are also social stereotypes, which represent the consensus of the majority of a given population of judges.

Tagiuri (1958, p. xiii) adds that an important facet of person perception is the perception of roles: "For in many cases, appropriate behavior depends not so much upon the idiosyncratic character of the other person, but rather upon his role." Why one is behaving in a certain way may be directly related to behaviors manifested in the person's role.

Perceptions have been shown to vary depending upon whether the action of a stimulus is seen as caused by factors internal to him, over which he has control, or by those lying outside him, over which he may have no control.

Attribution

Attribution theory, which is based on the actions of persons, and observers perceptions of actions, has developed out of the area of person perception. The first step in the process is the observation of an action. To be attributionally useful, an observed action must be judged by the person perceiving it as intentional. The language of attribution requires that the perceiver make an attribution of "causality," either to a dispositional quality of the stimulus person, which is called a personal disposition; or to a factor in the environment, known as an environmental disposition (Shaver, 1975, pp. 26-33). The perceiver is making a decision based on his observation or other cognitive processes, as to whether the action of the stimulus person was caused by factors internal to him or by others which are external.

The attributional process is considered to terminate when the dispositional attribution has been determined. The process, as in person perception, is affected by the personal characteristics of the perceivers.

Their perceptual judgments can be affected by their motivation, and as a perceiver becomes removed from the action or relies on second-hand information, the possibility of misinterpretation becomes much greater.

Summary

Individuals vary in the way in which they perceive others, because their perceptions are influenced by life experiences. In general, the process involves grouping pieces of information into categories that have meaning to the perceiver. These categories develop throughout the lifelong socialization process but because of the early entry effect, once categories are established, they are highly resistant to later change or contradictory information. Categories help perceivers to simplify complex stimuli information, but also may result in inaccurate stereotyping by assuming that because a person possesses certain attributes associated with a category, s/he therefore possesses all the attributes of the category.

CHAPTER II

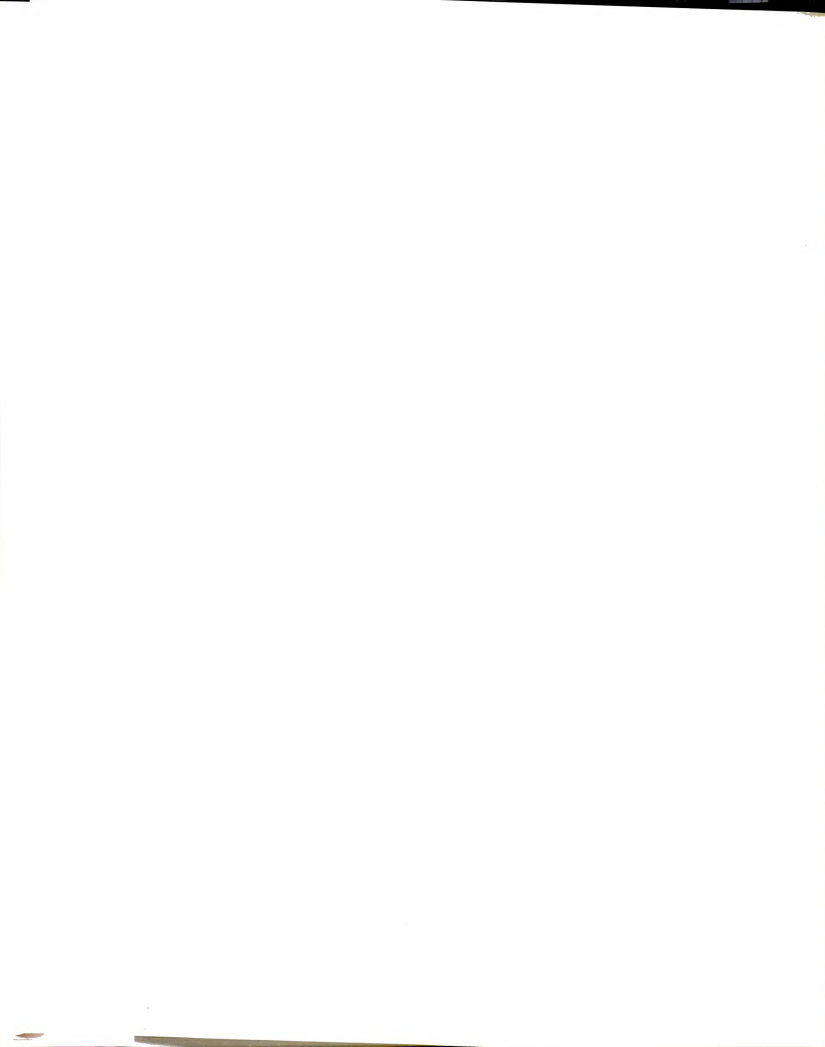
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The first section of this chapter contains a review of relevant research dealing with attitudes and perceptions of sex role especially in relation to occupations. Research reviewed in the latter half of the chapter examines the communicative ability of clothing with special emphasis on its' function in occupational roles.

Sex Role

Theoretical Constructs

Most researchers would agree that sex role definitions are generally linked to the socialization process, which continues throughout life and is especially active each time a person occupies a new position; as when s/he becomes a parent, is promoted in a business organization or becomes a member of a club. Sex roles as well as other roles are learned. According to Kagan (1964, p. 138), this requires learning as "association between certain attributes, behaviors, and attitudes, on the one hand, and the concepts male and female, on the other." When attributes are assigned to others solely on the basis of membership in a class or category such as male or female, the action known as "stereotyping." Albrecht, Bahr and Chadwick (1977, p. 225)



summarize as follows:

Girls and boys are socialized differently. Girls are taught to be more tractable, obedient, suggestible, dependent, and to follow 'feminine' interests, and both sexes seem to acquire a sense that girls are less worthwhile than boys. Sanctions are imposed when behavior and attitudes contrary to the culturally prescribed patterns are exhibited, and activities that are defined as inappropriate for one's sex come to be avoided because they bring rejection rather than approval. The development of individual personality traits and of preferences for occupation and life goals are among the more important outcomes of this sex role socialization.

Parsons (1942, pp. 604-616) agrees that there is a very close association between sex roles and occupational roles in that sex roles are most stringently enforced or sanctioned during the period of adulthood when individuals are engaged in their work careers. Harris and Lucas (1975, p. 394) add:

Men and women who deviate from traditional sex role stereotypes are likely to suffer from the internal doubts and conflicts arising because of the discrepancy between sex-role stereotypes internalized in childhood and their emerging struggle toward androgynous self definition, and they may suffer as well from the hostile reaction of others.

Millman (1971, p. 774) points out that socialization limits women in the occupational world and this affects their personal identity and social status, since these are generally assigned on the basis of individual achievement and talent in one's occupation. Millman states further that

. . . in a society which values identity through occupational achievement, that women are largely excluded from the entire system and its judgements because a woman's primary occupation is homemaking. A woman's identity and status in not assigned on the basis of individual achievement, as the dominant American value would prescribe, but on the basis of ascribed characteristics: her sex,

physical attributes, and her kinship ties (or more specifically, her marriage and husband's identity). This manner of assigning identity, then, is directly opposed to the dominant conscious value of the American Society. (p. 775)

Research on Sex Role

In the past research has supported much of the theory. However, our society has undergone many rapid changes in the past two decades. The feminist movement is no longer a new idea, and one wonders if and how traditional sex roles are changing in its wake. The studies reviewed in the beginning of this section show that while there have been some changes in personality characteristics believed appropriate for each sex, many stereotypes remain.

Kammeyer (1964) was interested in studying the attitudes of college girls to the two female roles determined to exist by Komarovsky (1946) almost twenty years earlier. "The traditional role" stood for a common core of attributes defining proper attitudes toward men and a set of personality traits which had been part of the traditional role for women. In contrast, "the modern role" was in a sense not a sex role, as it eliminated the differences between the sexes. Kammeyer developed two attitudinal dimensions for these polar roles. These scales distinguished between girls that had traditional and modern attitudes about "female personality traits" and "feminine role behavior." Results revealed that approximately two-thirds of the sample of 209 college females had consistent attitudes, being either traditional or modern on both scales. Attitudes were most consistent for those females having the most college friends, the most dates and the most frequent parental contact. In other words, communication feedback was determined to be the "interpretive link" between frequency of interaction and attitude

consistency about the feminine sex role.

More recently, Lao, Upchurch, Corwin and Grossnickle (1975) studied unconscious negative stereotyped attitudes toward females. The sample, consisting of both male and female undergraduate college students, was shown videotapes in which two males and two females in turn, played high, medium and low assertive roles. After viewing the tapes, the subjects rated the actors on intelligence and likeability. Lao et al., hypothesized that generally males would be judged as being more intelligent and likeable than females. The results supported the hypotheses. Interestingly enough, the biased attitude was equally prevalent with females as with males. Medium assertiveness proved desirable for both sexes, whereas high assertiveness was much more "debilitating" for females than for males. The researchers further suggest that since these attributes are important for many types of occupations, females may be restricted from opportunities that require high assertiveness, intelligence and likeability.

Sex role identity has been recognized as having a significant effect upon both attribution and person perception. In examining differences in causal attributions made by male and female subjects for successful or unsuccessful performance by either a male or female target, Feldman-Summers and Kiesler (1974) observed that a female's performance was attributed to different causes than a males. Both female and male subjects attributed greater motivation to a female who was successful than to a successful male. While male subjects perceived the successful female target as being less able and having an easier task to perform than the male target, the female subjects perceived the female target as having a harder task than the male target. Coie, Pennington and Buckley (1974) observed that gender played a significant part in person

perception. Both male and female subjects attributed significantly more psychopathology to a female target than to her male counterpart who engaged in identical behavior, and mental health services were seen as more appropriate for the female. The significant effect of gender upon causal attributions and person perception can be explained as a product of societal perceptions of masculinity and femininity.

In a comparative study, Roper and LaBeff (1974) examined inter-generational attitudes toward feminism with results obtained forty years earlier by Kirkpatrick (1936). For both studies, the sample consisted of college students and their parents. In the forty year span between studies, a general trend had developed toward more egalitarian attitudes toward sex roles. Both males and females in both generations seemed to be more favorable toward feminist issues regarding women in occupations and their political and legal rights. However, they appeared to be less favorable toward the issues regarding women's domestic responsibilities including the division of labor in the household, feminine conduct, morality and dress. Level of education proved to be an important variable in relation to attitudes toward feminism in the comparative as well as earlier study. The higher the level of education for both the parents and the students, the more favorable were their attitudes toward feminism.

Research by Harris and Lucas (1975), involving university social work students, lends support to the premise that sex role stereotypes are changing. However, the males and females sampled have different expectations of what a healthy, socially competent, adult woman is like. This could result in relational difficulties between the sexes at both the personal and professional levels.

Pleck's (1978) findings revealed that hostile, negative, anti-egalitarian attitudes are now minority positions. The research directed at men's perceptions and attitudes about women involved a representative national sample. The attitudinal statement regarding women not working as hard in their employment as men was rejected. Pleck, however, reports that other kinds of traditional beliefs about women's needs and motivations which have important constraining effects on women, such as the belief that women are happiest in the domestic role, and the belief that women are not discriminated against, are still supported by males. With regard to demographic data, it is the older and less educated respondents who more often adhered to the traditional beliefs that women's role is as a homemaker and that women were not discriminated against. Older respondents also believe that women don't work as hard as men and they disapprove of the women's liberation.

Studies have also examined views toward occupations that are appropriate for each sex. While presumably stereotypical attitudes are changing, a recent study (Garrett, Ein and Tremaine, 1977) revealed that occupational choices of first, third and fifth grade school children from a middle class school reflect society's stereotypic standards of gender-appropriate roles. Choices by males were primarily adventurous, traditionally masculine, while females chose those that were nurturing and traditionally feminine. Additionally, many more vocational preferences were mentioned for the males than for females.

The grade school children in the study were also asked to rate forty adult occupations as male, female or neutral, in terms of their feelings as to which sex has the ability to do the job. The results indicated that the older children tended to have less gender stereotypes

toward occupations than the younger ones. Within the neutral and male job classifications, males rated the jobs as more male oriented than the females. The researchers conclude that although older children are exposed to more sex stereotyping, they are at a more sophisticated cognitive level than the younger children.

A similar study, using older subjects was performed by Panek, Rush and Greenawalt (1977). The purpose was again to investigate sex role occupational stereotypes. A list of twenty-five occupations was given to male and female college students and they were asked to rate each according to the sex of employees usually associated with each occupation. A neutral classification was established for those occupations that subjects felt were equally represented by both sexes. The results revealed that of the twenty-five occupations listed, eight were significantly perceived as male occupations and six as female. Analysis also revealed that in only one of the occupations given was there any significant difference in the ratings of the male and female subjects.

The researchers believe that these results suggest that, even though attempts have been made to change social attitudes by the feminist movement, traditional sex stereotypes still exist with regard to many occupations. Furthermore, since the population under study was from a university, it would be expected to be more progressive in attitudes toward sex stereotyping of occupations than the general population.

In another study, using college students as subjects, Lunnenborg and Gerry (1977) compared vocational interests of the students on the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory, with those indicated for "women in general" and "men in general." Contrary to the researchers hypotheses, women differed little from "women in general" with regard to

vocational aspirations. College males, however, were significantly more interested in artistic forms of work and significantly less interested in realistic and enterprising areas than were "men in general."

In comparison to the research presented above using counselees as subjects, Mitchack (1978) sought to determine occupational sex role stereotypes among counselor trainees. Reviewers of the literature on career counseling have concluded that sex bias frequently occurs and appears to be evident in both male and female counselors. Subjects were asked to describe four occupations in terms of personality characteristics that had been empirically linked with specific sex roles. This method is in contrast to other studies dealing with sex role stereotypes that have simply asked subjects to designate occupations as more appropriate for males or females. The results indicated that males do not differ from females in the degree of sex role stereotyping of occupations, but occupations differ in the degree of stereotyping elicited.

A study done by Garland and Price (1977) determined attitudes toward females in management positions. The sample, consisting of undergraduate males were asked to read descriptions of a female manager. Half the sample read that she was successful and the other half read that she was unsuccessful. They were asked to make causal attributions for this success or failure. In addition, attitudes toward women in management were measured. The results provided strong support for the contention that causal interpretations of a female manager's success are strongly related to an individual's general attitude toward females in management positions. It was revealed that internal attributions (i.e., ability and hard work) for success were associated with more positive attitudes toward women in management. External attributions (i.e., good luck,

easy job) were associated with the more negative attitudes toward females in management positions. Attitudes about women in management were not affected by whether the female manager was described as successful or a failure.

An assessment of adults' attitudes about the desirability of occupational roles and personality characteristics for males and females was the purpose of a study conducted by Albrecht et al. (1977). A random sample of Utah residents were asked in a mail questionnaire, the desirability of a number of personality traits and the suitability of a number of occupations for males and females. Although some of the personality traits were identified as distinctly characteristic of one sex or the other, the majority of the nineteen characteristics were identified by both male and female respondents as being equally desirable for both sexes.

This finding contrasts markedly with respondents views regarding occupational stereotypes. Of the fifteen listed occupations, only five were described by over half of the sample as being equally suitable for both men and women. Three occupations, that of housekeeper, secretary and nurse were identified by more than half of the sample as being primarily for women. Age was found to be positively related to sex stereotyping of both personality traits and occupations. The researchers note that it is possible that Utah residents may tend to be a bit more conservative than the general population.

One might expect attitudes such as those reviewed about sex role and occupations to have an effect on attitudes toward occupational choice and sanctions applied to it. An often cited study of college seniors done by Komarovsky (1946) reveals the dilemma faced by young women of the forties. Caught between the ideal of homemaker and that of

career girl, they were encouraged to study hard to get good grades in school in order to get a good job, yet not to appear too bright as to be in competition with male classmates. After all, they were more interested in a nice appearance and finding a prospective bride, than being possibly shown up by a female.

More recently, Horner (1969) found that women were still hesitant to risk the possibility of being considered too academically or career oriented for fear that they might be rejected. Apparently by limiting their aspirations there was a greater chance of not standing out as being different. This finding was based on the negative responses elicited from female college students reacting to a hypothetical case of a female finishing at the head of her medical class.

Conceivably attitudes toward occupational choices may have changed in the past nine years but research documenting the fact was not located. However, data on actual occupational choices are available. In examining the data, one first notes the steady increase of females in occupational roles outside the home, particularly since 1940. As late as 1940, only 30 percent of the working women were married and living with their husbands, whereas approximately 60 percent are in this category today (Sawhill, 1974, p. 90). Although the ratio of women to men in the labor force has increased markedly, one to 4.5 men in 1960 and one to 1.8 men in 1967 (Gross, 1968, p. 198), most writers question whether there has been an actual shift in the occupational structure toward a more egalitarian composite.

An often cited study in this area was performed by Gross (1968). He sought to determine whether the sexual structure of occupations had changed over time. The period studied was 1900 to 1960. The procedure

included taking the detailed occupations provided by the census for this time period, and calculating an index of segregation for the approximately three hundred to four hundred occupations listed each year. He concluded that there was as much sexual segregation in 1960 as there was in 1900. The figures yielded over the years were very close to each other which seems to indicate that many of the societal changes which occurred during the period, including wars and depression, have not appeared to have made a change in the pattern. This finding supports other evidence that the great expansion in female employment has been in occupations that were already heavily female, through the emergence of new positions that were female from their beginnings, and less by females taking over in occupations previously held by males.

Wolf and Rosenfeld (1978) have examined the sex structure of occupations and job mobility by occupational characteristics specifically. Given the sex stability of the labor market, women tend to be highly concentrated in a relatively small number of predominately female occupations. Specifically women are disproportionally employed in clerical, semi-professional and service occupations. These occupations seem to have relatively high occupational prestige, require fairly high levels of education and training be brought to the job, demand little career continuity and commitment of those occupying them and offer comparatively low monetary reward and chance for advancement (p. 825).

Wolf and Rosenfeld contend that it is a requirement that general training be brought to the job, rather than participation in "on-the" job training, and that these skills are therefore easily transferable to different jobs and require little commitment by either employer or employee. This situation results in the lack of upward

mobility and advancement in occupations. In contrast, occupations that are predominately held by men tend to require more on-the-job training and specialized skills. Men tend to increase their occupational prestige as they move through a series of progressively better jobs, whereas women tend to remain at the same level of prestige throughout their lives.

A research finding by Featherman and Hauser (1976) adds to the distinctions already observed between the occupational involvement of females and males.

Equality of economic opportunity for women has not followed from working women's opportunities for schooling and occupational status. The process of earnings attainment is sharply different for the sexes, with men deriving greater benefits from their social origins, educations and occupational standings, even among persons of statistically equivalent work experience and levels of current participation. While the net returns to education have improved more noticeably for women than men between 1962 and 1973, the intertemporal increases in returns to occupational status have benefited only men. (p. 481)

They continue that if women had enjoyed the same "rates" of return as men to their stocks of human capital, the sexual gap in earning would have been significantly reduced. The earning differential reflects discrimination more than the compositional difference between the sexes. Discrimination accounts for 85 percent of the earnings gap between males and females in 1962 and 84 percent in 1973 (p. 481).

Recently studies by sociologists have considered the process of status attainment of males and females. This review has already presented several findings with regard to occupational status or prestige of the sexes. Treiman and Terrell (1975) discount the claim that a woman's status is determined by that of her husband's, as being no longer true at a time when nearly half of all adult American women are in the

labor force. While it still may be that the very highest status positions are closed to women, or at least difficult to advance in, these restrictions cannot be generalized to other levels of the occupational hierarchy. Their research revealed that women and men are actually engaged in jobs that, on the average, have equal prestige. This is partially due to the fact that the large concentration of female workers are in clerical, professional and service work and men are concentrated in managerial, craft and laboring work, with about an equal amount of both sexes involved in sales and operative work. Additionally, it must be noted that prestige or status does not mean equal earnings. Although the process and level of educational and occupational attainment is almost identical for both sexes, women earn far less than men even when work experience and hours of work are taken into account (p. 174).

Findings by McClendon (1976) support this status equality among the sexes. He found that the most important difference between the distribution of the sexes in occupations, is that there is a greater concentration of males at both the upper and lower ends of the distributions. His research also revealed that full-time workers and married women have higher status than part-time workers and unmarried women.

Summary

Most of the research reviewed in this chapter is relatively recent. Considering that the subjects in many of the studies are college students who are considered to be younger, more liberal and better educated than the general public, it is interesting to note that the majority still adhere to traditional attitudes toward sex role. Most of these subjects have grown up in an era when the emphasis on the women's movement and equality was also on the rise. Therefore, one would assume

that samples of college students of the Seventies would be favorable toward change to more egalitarian sex roles than results have shown.

Dress and Communication

Theoretical Statements

Horn (1975, p. 100) likens dress to language. Both, she believes "function to compose images, and both employ a complex system of symbols to convey messages." She continues that people make unique and varied statements through their use of dress, but unlike other forms of communication which can be restrained if one chooses not to communicate, messages communicated through dress and appearance cannot be avoided.

These messages are particularly important when the status of a person is unknown. Linton (1936, p. 416) states that "clothing makes it possible for a stranger to determine at once the social category to which the wearer belongs and thus avoids acts or attitudes toward him which would be social errors." James Morgan (1955, p. 312) contributes "You may discover that in a world where a person's abilities are hard to assess, he is sometimes judged by what he wears."

Goffman (1963) asserted that the form of dress is a factor in the meaning of the appearance as projected by the individual, and the appropriateness of the form of dress changes with the situation. Stone (1965, pp. 216-245) provides more detail about the messages that are projected by clothing and appearance. He believes that appearance including gestures, clothing and grooming is non-verbal communication. Further appearance helps establish identity including universal categories such as age and sex, interpersonal relations, including names and

nicknames, structural relations such as occupational and marital titles; and "relational categories," as social relations that may be anonymously entered. Identity is further qualified by mood and value also communicated by dress. In situations involving minimal information-those non-verbal appearance cues may be used to form impressions and make judgments of other persons. He further believes that how others perceive one also influences how one sees himself.

Clothing in Occupational Situations

The importance of appearance in helping people get ahead and hold jobs, was emphasized as early as 1918, by Dearborn. Currently popular are the books on prescriptive dressing for males and females that want to gain access to or get ahead in management positions (Molloy, 1975 and 1977).

The importance of clothing and appearance in the initial judgment of a job applicant was investigated by Godfrey (1965). She analysed the criteria used by hiring agents in judging job applicants for a secretarial position. The study was based on the premise that culturally defined standards of dress exist for various occupations and that hiring agents use these standards in evaluation job applicants. Although the findings revealed that female and male hiring agents differ in their evaluation of what appearance factors are important, external personal qualities, including clothing, were found to have some significance as influential factors in an employment interview.

More recently, hiring agents' perceptions of appearance norms for female job applicants for white collar positions in business were studied by Jones (1972). During interviews, the hiring agents were shown pictures of various outfits that could be worn for an interview.

The outfits that were neat and conservative, along with a skirt and blouse in clashing colors were considered appropriate for an interview. Those that were judged inappropriate included: slack outfits, and outfits that were extreme in length, bold print, revealing, overly accessorized and unkempt. The majority of agents revealed that they considered an applicant's skills, job experience, personality and appearance in an interview. Aspects of appearance considered included judgments of clothing form, neatness, grooming and specific clothing features such as length, propriety, neatness and conservatism. A majority of agents also considered hairstyle and makeup of applicants. Hiring agents used most of the above criteria to evaluate the organizations employees in the daily work situation. Emphasis was placed on adherence to expected appearance norms as a factor in employment retention and as a basis for promotion.

Few studies have dealt with occupational clothing for males. The study by Form and Stone (1955) on the social significance of occupational clothing, performed in a small midwestern town, was an exception. A sample, consisting of married men representing the full range of the occupational structure, was interviewed with four separate schedules regarding clothing. The schedule that focused on the importance of clothing in the work situation revealed that the meaning that clothing held for the different occupational groups varied with the occupational types. White collar workers realized the capability of clothing to influence others. More than one-third dressed up in order to make an impression on hiring agents when applying for their first employment. Manual workers and workers employed in relatively lower prestige occupations attached less importance to clothing and were relatively unaware



that others may judge them on the basis of their dress. They felt less freedom to manipulate their clothing which was due partially to the fact that more of their clothing was prescribed or required of them.

In what they felt to be "an indirect but perhaps more realistic way," Form and Stone used a modified projective technique to elicit responses with regard to occupational dress. The story-situations they presented were based on actual occurrences and represented problem situations involving clothing in different occupations. They contained deviations from established clothing norms, clothing use and occupational mobility.

One situation deals with a man in need of legal counsel. He made an appointment with a lawyer recommended to him by a friend, as competent and with an established reputation of winning legal cases. When he arrived at the lawyer's office, he was surprised to find the lawyer "casually dressed in a faded sport shirt that hung out over an unpressed pair of pants." The respondents were asked to take the role of the client. Approximately two-fifths approved of the lawyer, although two-thirds disapproved of his clothing. Roughly equal proportions of the sample would: refuse to use the lawyer's services, try to learn more about him, make certain reservations before deciding to employ him or hire him despite the poor impression he makes. Reasons given for disapproving generally fell into two categories: inference of disapproval of personal traits, as incompetence, and violation of public expectations of how a professional man should dress.

Since respondents reacted differently to this situation than to another one dealing with clothing norm violations, the researchers



deduced that:

the clothes a person wears are evaluated in the context of the situation. The symbolic value of clothes is then a function of the social definition of the situation, and not a function of the inherent character of clothing or how the person dressed in general. (p. 44)

Two occupational categories, homemaker and other employment, were used by Musa (1973) in her investigation of family role attitudes concerning female roles and attitudes concerning appearance. The stratified random sample consisted of married women and men from a large midwest capital and college town. After a telephone interview with the wives, sets of questionnaires were mailed to the couples. The instrument consisted of attitudinal scales reflecting the variables under study, demographic information questions and several open-ended questions.

A significant relationship was found between attitudes concerning the female role and attitudes concerning appearance for both husbands and wives. Age was also significantly linked with attitudes concerning female occupations and family roles, and attitudes concerning feminine and masculine appearance, for the wives in the sample. Husbands' attitudes concerning feminine and masculine appearance were also significantly related to age, and attitudes regarding female personal attributes were significantly associated with social position. However, the researcher concluded that the hypothesis that family role enactment of the wife is related to attitudes concerning appearance could not be supported in the basis of the data received from this study. Additionally, it was found that traditional homemakers did tend to hold more traditional attitudes concerning family and occupational roles than did wives who were employed outside the home.

Summary

Clothing and appearance studies have yielded results which reinforce the theories presented by Stone, Goffman and others. Clothing is a form of communication and messages are derived whether or not they are intended. Impressions are formed, and judgments are made of others based on the way they appear. In occupational situations, the clothing and appearance of workers and prospective workers plays an instrumental role. Hiring agents considered it to be an indicator as to whether or not an applicant was appropriate for a job. Employers, workers and the public appear to have certain expectations with regard to occupational dress.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This study is part of an integrated research effort on Quality of Life conducted by faculty in the College of Human Ecology at Michigan State University. Co-directors of the research are Dr. Ann Slocum, Department of Human Environment and Design, and Dr. Margaret Bubolz, Department of Family and Child Science. The research is funded by the Michigan State University Agricultural Experiment Station and the University of Minnesota.¹

The objectives of this study include an examination of male respondents reactions to deviations in clothing and appearance of characters in projective occupational situations and determination of male acceptance of females in somewhat traditional male occupational roles.

Description of the Instrument

Case Studies

The data collection instrument was a self-administered questionnaire. Five, short, story-situations, each followed by several open-ended questions, were the major consideration for this study. The

¹Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station Project #1249 "Clothing Use and Quality of Life in Rural and Urban Communities," Project #3151 "Families in Evolving Rural Communities," M.S.U. ORD Grant #21347.

stories dealt with sex roles and occupational dress. Referents in the stories were portrayed in occupations not traditionally held by their sex, and also, in some of the situations, the clothing or appearance of the referent was atypical or non-conforming. Three of the five story-situations are adaptations of those used by Form and Stone (1955, pp. 39-53) in their research on clothing and occupational life. In the original form, the referent in each story was either male or female and this remained the same for all respondents in the sample. The adaptation involved changing the sex of the actor in the story-situation for half of the respondents, e.g. half of the respondents received stories in which the referent was male and the other half received the same story, but with a female actor as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Story-situations by Set

Occupation of Referent	Set A	Set B	Description of Dress
Applicant for Construction Work ^a	Carol	Carol	skirt and blouse
Lawyer	Mr. Drake	Ms. Drake	casually dressed, faded sport shirt hanging out over unpressed pants (slacks)
Typist	Ann	Bob	good, new clothes best dressed in office
Foreman promoted to Division Head	John	Sue	foreman's work clothes; associates wore business suits
Teacher ^a	Nancy		revealing, braless tops
		Paul	shirts open to the waist, tightly fitting slacks

^adeveloped by the researcher

The other adaptations involved changing one of the actors names to one that is in more common usage today, and describing the appearance slightly differently for male and females in the three new stories in order to provide a more realistic referent. For example, the original situation had Mr. Drake casually dressed in a faded sport shirt that hung out over an unpressed pair of pants; when the situation was presented with Ms. Drake, she was casually dressed in a faded shirt that hung out over an unpressed pair of slacks. Two additional story-situations were added by the researcher. In one, the sex of the referent remained the same for the entire sample, in the other, the sex differed, as in the three previously described.

Attitudinal Questions

In another section of the questionnaire respondents indicated strength of agreement or disagreement with thirty attitudinal statements. The response was given by circling a number from one to five. Two statements in this section that dealt specifically with clothing worn on the job were included in the analysis in Appendix A. These statements were also adapted from the Form and Stone Study.

Demographic Variables

The demographic variables to be considered in conjunction with the five story-situations include: age, education, employment status of both husband and wife, occupational prestige and family income. It is believed that these variables may have an effect on the way in which the respondents react to the variables in the stories.

The demographic variables, as shown in Appendix A, were measured as follows:

Age. The respondents age in years.

Education. The highest level of formal education achieved, as derived from the eleven categories.

Occupational Prestige. A score from nine to seventy-eight developed by Hodge, Siegel and Rossi (1966, pp. 322-334) which corresponds to the three-digit occupational classification of the United States Bureau of the Census. The determinants of occupational prestige as described by Hodge, Siegel and Rossi (1966, p. 322) include:

the way in which it is articulated into the division of labor, . . . the amount of power and influence implied in the activities of the occupation, . . . the characteristics of incumbents, and . . . the amount of resources society places at the disposal of incumbents.

Husband's Income. As indicated by checking one of seventeen categories. This figure may include money from wages, salaries, property, stocks and bonds, interest, child support from a previous marriage, welfare and any other additional income.

Employment Status. Determined by whether or not the respondent and his wife were employed twenty hours or more per week.

Pretest

In October, 1977, the instrument was pretested in Ingham and Oakland Counties. The pretest sample was chosen to simulate, as well as possible, the larger sample planned for the research project.

Streets were randomly selected from designated areas. Participants were husband and wife couples, living together, with at least one child aged five to eighteen residing in the household. The interviewers, graduate students working on the research team, contacted prospective households, explained the project and determined whether or not the household met the eligibility criteria. If they met the criteria, the couple was asked to sign a consent form indicating that they

both agreed to participate in the research project. Separate questionnaires for the husband and wife were left at the household. Couples were asked to complete the questionnaires completely. Twenty sets of questionnaires were placed and eighteen completed sets were picked up by the interviewers at a later time. A short evaluation of the instrument was administered at the time the questionnaires were collected. A remuneration of ten dollars was paid to the couples for a completed set of questionnaires.

Three of the open-ended story-situations were included in the pretest questionnaire. Three additional story-situations were pretested separately by the researcher to determine plausibility of usage in the final instrument. Eleven people participated in this separate test. They were required to read stories and answer the accompanying questions. They did not complete the entire pretest.

Changes in the instrument due to the pretests which affected this study included dropping one of the alternately tested stories thus setting the number at five open-ended story-situations for the final questionnaire. Respondents mentioned in their evaluations that, in general, they enjoyed the open-ended questions as a change of pace from the lengthy objective sections of the questionnaire. Due to this, the open-ended stories were moved from close to the end of the instrument, to the middle. In addition, to allow for privacy of response between husbands and wives, and decrease the possibility of collusion, it was decided to provide manilla envelopes with each questionnaire so that respondents could seal their responses upon completion.

The Sample, Design and Selection

The diverse needs of the researchers required that data be obtained from families, and that the sample be relatively rural and include minority groups. A relatively high income level was also desired as a rough indicator of ability to complete the questionnaire. A nationally known research agency was hired to draw the sample and place the questionnaires in eligible households. The sample was drawn from three census tract frames in Oakland County, intended to represent the relatively rural portion of the county, a high concentration of minority residents and the urban-suburban portion of the county. All census tracts that met the criteria of \$12,000 median income in 1970 were listed within the three geographic areas and were ordered by number of occupied dwelling units. In one area the income criteria had to be lowered below \$12,000 to guarantee enough participants. Seventy-five sampling points were systematically chosen from the list of occupied household dwelling units. Contiguous blocks were added to provide a large enough area to yield the desired four households per cluster. A randomly designated dwelling was selected and every fifth one from it was to be contacted, making substitutes to the left and the right as necessary and using a systematic walk pattern (Appendix B).

To be eligible for placement of questionnaires, the household had to consist of a husband and wife, living together, with at least one child between the ages of five and eighteen residing with them. The first designated household was contacted up to three times, if necessary, to determine eligibility for placement. If a household did not meet the requirements, or if the interviewer was unable to contact the husband or wife, a substitution was made of the household to the right. If the

household to the right did not meet the placement criteria or if no contact was made, a further substitution was made with the household to the left of the one originally selected. This pattern was followed throughout the cluster area until four sets were placed. An important factor for this study is that within clusters, Set A and Set B questionnaires were placed alternately, and husbands and wives always received the same set. In some areas, it was necessary to alter the original random selection of households because of the low proportion of residents meeting the research criteria. Households chosen were still required to meet the original eligibility criteria for placement.

Data Collection

Before the actual field work began, the interviewers were trained by the field supervisor from the research agency and the Quality of Life Project Directors. The purpose of the questionnaire was explained to them as well as the procedures to be followed in the field. Interviewers were responsible for screening the chosen households to determine eligibility for placement as outlined above. At the time of placement, the signature of husband or wife was obtained on the consent form. Both signatures were required at the time the questionnaires were picked up. Couples were assured by the interviewers and in writing that their responses and their participation in the research project would remain confidential. A ten dollar remuneration was promised as well as a summary of research findings in exchange for completion of the questionnaire sets by the couple. The questionnaires were left with the family to be self-administered by the husband and wife and sealed in the envelopes provided. They were collected by the interviewers several days later.

Due to time constraints and difficulties in completing the field work, data collection was halted in March 1978, about four months after it began. The number of usable questionnaires obtained was 237.

Data Coding

The primary development of codes for the story-situations was done by Dr. Gloria Williams of the University of Minnesota. Responses for ninety cases, typed on cards were analyzed to determine the range of responses, and facilitate code development.

Complete responses were considered in the coding process and comments that did not fit the codes were recorded on separate cards along with identification numbers. Comments believed to be similar were grouped together and appropriate codes were developed for each category.

A collusion variable was developed to help guarantee authenticity of response. Responses from husbands and wives were compared. Based on similarity of wording and similarity of handwriting, a code indicating no evidence of collusion, possible or probable collusion was assigned.

For the first case the actual coding was performed by three graduate students; two from Michigan State University and one from the University of Minnesota. An initial meeting including all coders, Dr. Williams and Dr. Slocum was held in which the first ten questionnaires were coded together to establish reliability among coders. Thereafter, coders were check-coded every fifth case for the first thirty cases each and following that any problem cases were check-coded.

For the second case, the coding was performed by two graduate students from Michigan State University, a graduate student from the

University of Vermont and a staff member of the Department of Human Environment and Design. Coders worked together closely and met frequently to ensure reliability. The second case proved to be a bit more difficult to code, therefore, check-coding averaged approximately one case per four coded.

The demographic data, with the exception of two items, was coded by graduate students and two work-study students involved in the project. The first five questions were check-coded. A 90% reliability was required. After this, every fifth case was checked. Two Sociology graduate students were employed to code occupational class and occupational prestige. They check-coded each other.

Development of Scales

Several scales were developed to measure the respondents reactions to sex role and clothing and appearance in the story-situations.

Positive-Negative Feelings Dimension. Used in analysis of the first story-situation, responses to the question "How would you have felt if you were Carol?" were classified into five on-scale categories. In coding responses, a qualified category was used to represent answers for which the respondent imposed a condition or qualification. Another distinction that should be noted is the one between responses that were categorized as mixed and those classified neutral. The mixed category represents a response containing both positive and negative feelings, whereas a neutral response was one that was impossible to classify as either positive or negative.

Intensity of Feeling. Responses to the first question "How would you have felt if you were Carol?" were also coded as to strength

or intensity of the feeling expressed by the respondent. The five on-scale categories ranged from most negative to most positive. Whether a negative or positive response was classified into the "most" category at each end of the scale was determined by the strength of the wording used and the use of modifiers as: very, really, etc.

Sex Role and Clothing/Appearance. In response to the question "Why do you think that she was not hired?" responses were categorized by whether or not sex role or clothing and appearance were mentioned.

Saliency of Clothing and Appearance Dimension. Responses to the question "Why do you think that she was not hired?" that mentioned clothing or appearance were further classified along a five point saliency scale. If clothing was mentioned as important in this situation, then it was classified as salient; whereas, if mentioned, but as unimportant, it was considered as not salient. Mixed or ambivalent mid-scale codes were given to those responses containing both salient and not salient feelings about clothing in the situation. Qualified responses represent a condition or qualification imposed by the respondent.

Approval-Disapproval Dimension. A seven point scale was developed to code responses to the question "What do you think of the lawyer?" in the second story-situation. It ranged from unqualified approval to unqualified disapproval and each contained codes for qualified and implied approval or disapproval. Qualified answers were determined to be those in which a condition was imposed by the respondent. Implied responses were based on the action the respondent indicated he would take.

The same scale and coding procedure were used for measuring

the respondents approval or disapproval of the lawyer's clothing.

Saliency of Clothing and Appearance Dimension. Answers to the "Why?" question which asked respondents the reason for their feelings about the lawyer were further coded on a five point clothing saliency dimension if clothing or appearance was mentioned. If clothing was mentioned as important to this situation, then it was classified as salient, whereas if mentioned but as unimportant, it was coded not salient. Mixed or ambivalent mid-scale codes were given to those responses containing both salient and not salient feelings about clothing to this situation. Qualified responses were distinguished as those in which the respondent imposed a condition.

Sanction Continuum. Responses to the question "If you were Tom, what would you have done?" were categorized along a five point action dimension which ranged from positive to negative sanction. The action indicated by the respondent was considered to be a positive sanction if he indicated he would continue his appointment with the lawyer; whereas, negative sanction meant the respondent indicated he would withdraw from the situation. Qualified answers, either positive or negative were coded on scale but separately from unqualified.

Analysis of the Data

Comparison of Respondents by Set Type

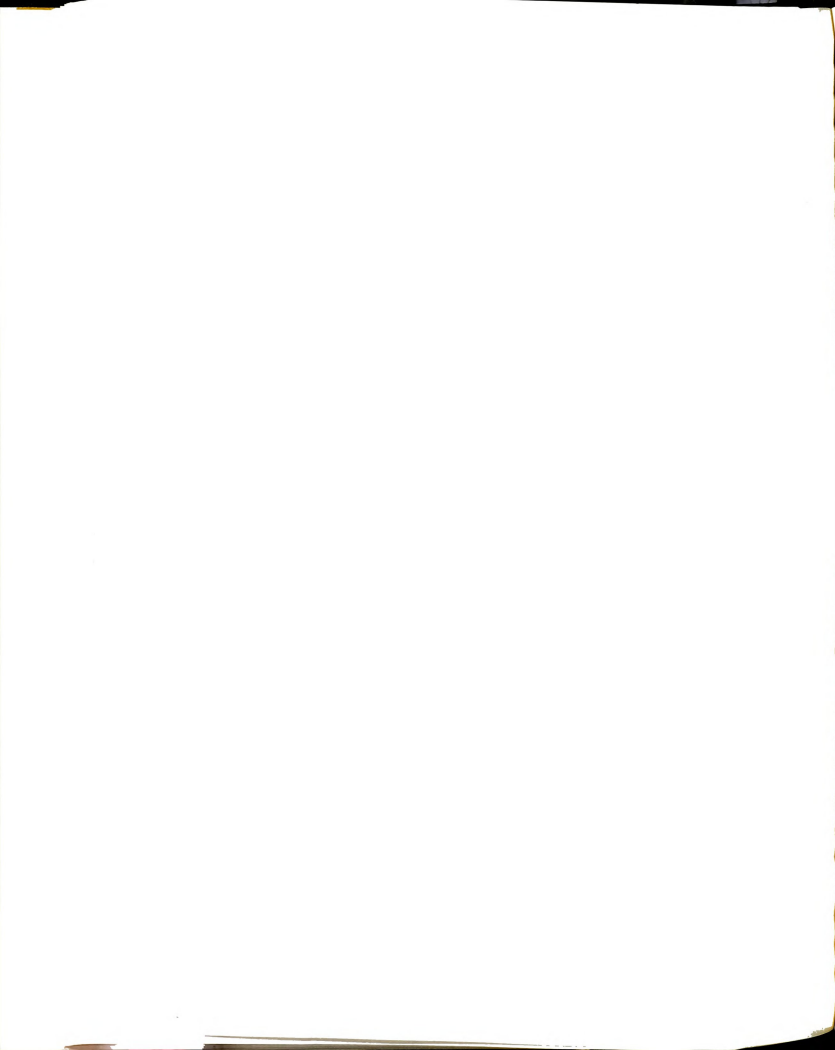
Since the investigator wanted to use demographic variables to explain variations in response to the sex of the actor and the dress deviations in the story-situations, it was necessary to determine whether respondents to Set A were similar with regard to demographic variables to respondents to Set B. The two groups were compared on the variables of: age, education, race, income, occupational prestige and employment status of their wives. Set A and Set B respondents were determined to be very similar on the basic demographic variables except for employment status of wives, and it was concluded that there is no reason to believe that they represent different populations. Table 2 contains a comparison of the demographic variables by set type. From the results presented in the table, it was concluded that different reactions to the sex of the referent or the referent's clothing most likely would not be attributed to dissimilarity in basic demographics between the two groups.

Independent Variables Used in Analysis

The demographic variables: age, education, income and employment status of respondents' wives are shown in Table 2 by the categories used for Chi Square analysis. Occupational prestige which was also used in analysis was treated as a linear scale. The means for the two sets on occupational prestige are presented in Table 2. For the Spearman Rank Order Correlation, the variables were used as originally coded.

Dependent Variables Used in Analysis

The following variables were derived from the previously described scales for the purpose of analysis, Story-Situation 1:



Clothing Saliency, Sex Role, Clothing and Appearance; Story-Situation 2: Approval-Disapproval of the Lawyer, Approval-Disapproval of the Lawyer's Clothing and Appearance, Saliency of Clothing, Positive-Negative Sanction.

Use of Scales in Analysis

For the purpose of analysis, the following adjustments were made in the scales: positive-negative scales were collapsed into three categories representing the range of responses, the approval-disapproval dimensions were collapsed into three categories which represented the range of responses, the saliency of clothing and appearance dimension was collapsed in four categories and the sanction continuum was collapsed into three categories representing the positive, negative and mixed responses.

Hypotheses Testing

The Chi Square and Analysis of Variance were selected to test the hypotheses. Additional analysis was performed using Spearman Rank Order Coorelation. The level of significance was set at .05.

Further Limitation of the Study

Due to delays in code development and time constraints, it was decided to limit the number of cases analyzed for this thesis to the first two story-situations presented in the questionnaires.

TABLE 2.--Comparative Results of Set A and Set B Questionnaire Respondents on Basic Demographic Variables

	N	SET A % Responding	N	SET B % Responding	χ^2
<u>Age</u>					
Under 35	36	30.7	31	27.7	
35 - 44	48	41.0	47	42.0	$\chi^2 = 1.242$
45 and over	33	28.3	34	30.3	df = 3
Missing Data	<u>1</u>	_____	<u>--</u>	_____	p = .7431
TOTAL	118	100.0	112	100.0	
<u>Education</u>					
Less than 12 years high school	17	14.5	27	24.3	
Completed high school	36	30.8	27	24.3	
1 - 3 years college	30	25.6	24	21.7	$\chi^2 = 6.066$
Bachelor's degree, post 18 bachelor's course work	16	15.4	23	20.7	df = 4
Master's, Ph.D., Ed.D., or other professional degree as M.D., D.O., J.D., D.D.S.	16	13.7	10	9.0	p = .1943
Missing Data	<u>1</u>	_____	<u>1</u>	_____	
TOTAL	118	100.0	112	100.0	
<u>Race</u>					
White	96	81.4	97	86.6	$\chi^2 = .82$
Black/Negro/African American	<u>22</u>	<u>18.6</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>13.4</u>	df = 1
TOTAL	118	100.0	112	100.0	p = .366

TABLE 2 (cont'd.)

	N	SET A % Responding	N	SET B % Responding	χ^2
<u>Employment Status of Respondent's Wife</u>					
Wife employed 20 hours per week or more	66	56.9	81	73.0	$\chi^2 = 5.738$
Wife does not work or works less than 20 hours per week	50	43.1	30	27.0	df = 1
Missing Data	2		1		p = .016
TOTAL	118	100.0	112	100.0	
<u>Occupational Prestige</u>					
Mean	48.3033		48.7589		τ -test, $\tau = -.20$
<u>Income</u>					
	N	%	N	%	χ^2
Under \$3,000	1	.8	4	3.6	$\chi^2 = 16.552$
\$4,000 - 4,999	0	0.0	1	.9	df = 14
\$5,000 - 5,999	2	1.7	2	1.8	p = .2808
\$6,000 - 6,999	1	.8	0	0.0	
\$7,000 - 7,999	0	0.0	1	.9	
\$8,000 - 9,999	2	1.7	5	4.5	
\$10,000 - 11,999	2	1.7	7	6.3	
\$12,000 - 14,999	8	6.8	8	7.1	
\$15,000 - 19,999	26	22.0	24	21.4	
\$20,000 - 24,999	30	25.4	21	18.7	
\$25,000 - 29,999	24	20.3	12	10.7	
\$30,000 - 34,999	8	6.8	12	10.7	

TABLE 2 (cont'd)

	N	<u>SET A</u> %	N	<u>SET B</u> %
<u>Income (cont'd)</u>				
\$35,000 - 49,999	8	6.8	8	7.1
\$50,000 - 74,999	2	1.7	5	4.5
Not Applicable	2	1.7	2	1.8
Missing	<u>2</u>	<u>1.7</u>	<u>--</u>	<u>---</u>
TOTAL	118	99.9 ^a	112	100.0

^aTotal does not equal 100 percent due to rounding

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Included in this chapter is a description of the sample and a discussion of the hypotheses and analysis by story-situation. The hypotheses dealt with men's perceptions of the appropriateness of the sex of the referent in the occupational situations and also their reactions to the clothing and appearance of each referent.

Description of Sample

The original sample consisted of 237 husbands and wives with at least one child between the ages of five and eighteen living with them. Only responses of the husbands are analysed. A comparison of husband's and wife's responses, based on similarity of wording, ideas and handwriting, yielded evidence of probable collusion for seven respondents and these were dropped from the sample. Therefore, for the purpose of analysis the sample consisted of 230 males.

Age

The sample ranged in age from twenty-four to sixty-three years. Respondents were primarily middle-aged with a mean age of 40.2. The age distribution of the sample is categorically presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3.--Age of Respondents

Age	N	%
30 and younger	30	13.0
31 - 35	44	19.1
36 - 40	54	23.5
41 - 45	40	17.4
46 - 55	50	21.7
Over 55	11	4.8
Missing data	<u>1</u>	<u>.4</u>
TOTAL	230	99.9 ^a

^aDoes not equal one hundred due to rounding

Education

The sample was generally well educated. Five categories, which ranged from less than a high school diploma, to achievement of a master's or other advanced degree, were established. Of the sample, 19 percent had less than a high school diploma, whereas 28 percent had finished high school, but had gone no further. Twenty-nine percent had achieved a bachelor's degree or greater. Table 4 contains the breakdown of the sample in the educational categories.

TABLE 4.--Educational Background of Respondents

	N	%
Less than 12 years of high school	44	19.1
Completed high school	63	27.4
1 to 3 years of college	54	23.5
Bachelor's degree and post bachelor's course work	41	18.0
Master's, Ph.D., Ed.D., or other professional degree as M.D., D.O. J.D., D.D.S.	26	11.3
Missing Data	<u>2</u>	<u>.8</u>
TOTAL	230	100.1 ^a

^aDoes not equal 100 percent due to rounding

Employment Status

Table 5 shows the employment status of the men who participated in the study. As one would expect, the majority of males were employed away from home.



TABLE 5.--Employment Status of Respondents

	N	%
House husband not employed or looking for work	1	.4
Employed away from home	213 ^a	92.6
Unemployed, looking for work, on strike, or on sick leave	9	3.9
Retired or disabled	<u>7</u>	<u>3.0</u>
TOTAL	230	99.9 ^b

^aIncludes three employed students

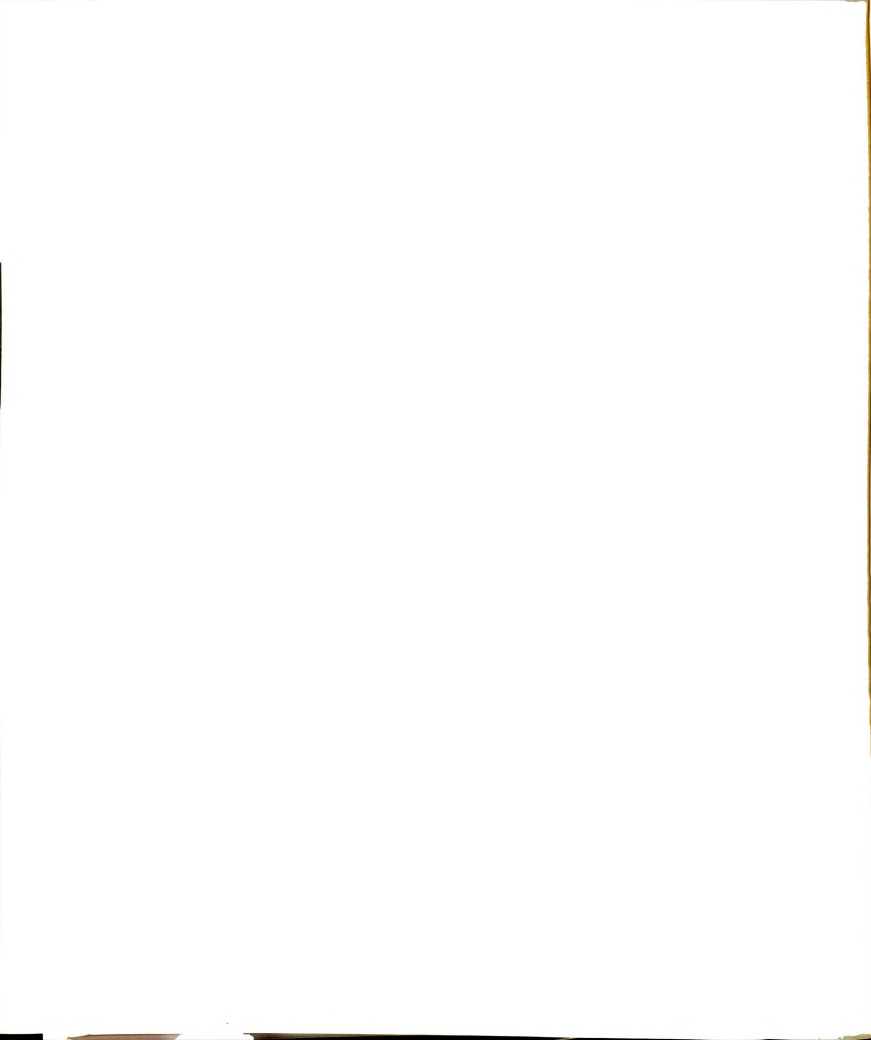
^bDoes not equal 100 percent due to rounding

Employment status of a couple was divided into two categories: one in which both husband and wife were working at least twenty hours or more per week and another for those couples in which they did not work or worked less than twenty hours per week. As Table 6 indicates, the sample consists of eighty employed males whose wives also work twenty hours or more and 147 in which only the husband was employed.

TABLE 6.--Dual Career Employment Status

	N	%
Both husband and wife employed 20 hours per week or more	80	35.2
Wife does not work or works less than 20 hours per week	147	64.8
TOTAL	<u>227^a</u>	<u>100.0</u>

^aDoes not include three who are retired, disabled.



Occupational Prestige

The Occupational Prestige scores for the sample ranged from twelve to seventy-eight. For the purpose of analysis the scores were not collapsed into categories; occupational prestige was treated as a linear scale. The sample mean was 48.53, and variance was equal to 309.9.

Income

The income of the sample was coded in two ways: the total income for the family and the amount of family income earned specifically by each spouse. Often these two figures were the same due to the fact that a large portion of the sample of males were the sole wage earners in the family. Table 7 shows total family income broken into four categories. The family income category in which the largest number of respondents fell was of \$20,000 to \$29,999 followed closely by the category of \$30,000 to \$39,999. Over two-thirds of the sample reported family income as over \$20,000. Also revealed in Table 7 is the amount of family income earned specifically by the male respondents. The income category in which the largest number of males fell was, again, of \$20,000 to \$29,999.

TABLE 7.--1977 Income of Respondents

	Total Family Income ^a		Amount of Income Earned by Husband	
	N	%	N	%
Under \$10,000	18	7.8	19	8.2
\$10,000 - \$19,999	47	20.4	75	32.6
\$20,000 - \$29,999	90	39.1	87	37.8
\$30,000 and above	73	31.7	43	18.7
Missing Data	<u>2</u>	<u>.9</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>2.6</u>
TOTAL	230	99.9 ^b	230	99.9 ^b

^aIncluding wages, property, stocks, interest, welfare, Aid to Families with Dependent Children, child support from a previous marriage, and any other money income received by all family members living in the household.

^bDoes not add to 100 percent due to rounding

Construction Worker Story-Situation

This study examined the responses from two projective story-situations. The first story, responded to by the entire sample, deals with a female applying for a non-traditional position as a construction worker. Of particular interest is that she is described as having previous experience in construction work and that she is dressed for the interview in non-work clothing. The situation presented to respondents is as follows:

Carol read that a local company was hiring workers for their construction crews. Since she had several years experience, she felt that she would get a job. After making an appointment for an interview, she arrived at the personnel office wearing a skirt and blouse and was surprised to see that she was the only female in the roomful of applicants. Carol felt that her interview with the

personnel director had gone well and was certain that she would be hired. The following day she received a phone call and was told that all the positions on the construction crews had been filled.

Respondents were asked the following open-ended questions:

"How would you have felt if you were Carol?"

"Why do you think that she was not hired?"

"Other comments."

Results

Response to the first question, "How would you have felt if you were Carol?" was primarily negative. Given the description of someone feeling qualified and confident, and then being rejected, it is not surprising that 75 percent of the sample gave a negative response. Due to the lack of variation further analysis was not performed on the results to this item. Table 8 consists of the distribution of responses to this question.

TABLE 8.--Positive Negative Feelings in Response to the Question:
 "How would you have felt if you were Carol?"

Dimension	N	Relative Frequency	Adjusted - Frequency
Positive	4	1.7	1.8
Qualified Positive	2	.9	.9
Mixed-Ambivalent	1	.4	.5
Qualified Negative	26	11.3	11.8
Negative	148	64.3	67.0
Neutral	10	4.3	4.5
Other Orientation ^a	7	3.0	3.2
Don't Know	6	2.6	2.7
Not Applicable	17	7.4	7.7
Missing	<u>9</u>	<u>3.9</u>	<u>---</u>
TOTAL	230	100.0	100.0

^adid not take the role of Carol

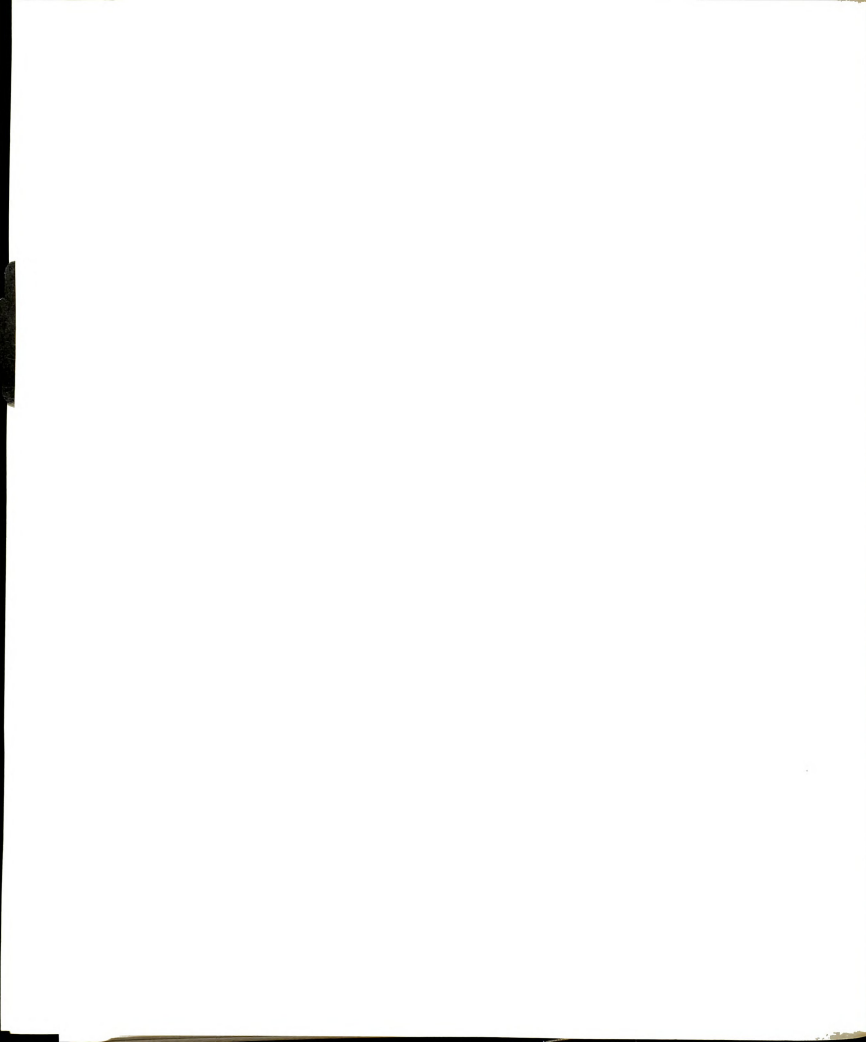
Responses were analysed as to the intensity of feeling as implied by the wording used by respondents. Since the majority of the sample had replied negatively to the first question, the Intensity of Feeling Scale based on this response was also predominately negative. Therefore, further analysis was not performed. Table 9 contains the sample distribution on the Intensity of Feeling Scale.

TABLE 9.--Intensity of Feeling Derived from Response to the Question:
"How would you have felt if you were Carol?"

Dimension	Example	N	Relative Frequency	Adjusted Frequency
Most Negative	awful, very bad	45	19.6	20.4
Negative	disappointed, troubled	124	53.9	56.1
Neutral, Mixed	indifferent, surprised	4	1.7	1.8
Positive	relieved, pleased	6	2.6	2.7
Most Positive	used very as a modifier	0		
Not Applicable	did not take the role of Carol	42	18.3	19.0
Missing		<u>9</u>	<u>3.9</u>	<u>---</u>
TOTAL		230	100.0	100.0

When asked "Why do you think that she was not hired?" the majority of responses included references to sex role, appearance and clothing and abilities and skills as the reason. Many mentioned more than one of these and some respondents included all three. Those that referred to sex role, often said that women didn't belong in construction jobs, would be a disruptive element, or should remain in traditional women's occupations.

Carol's skirt and blouse was considered inappropriate attire for an interview for construction work by males and some added that it is important to dress for an interview as you would for the job. Carol's abilities and skills were also questioned and were often mentioned as the reason that she was not hired; although it must be remembered that in the story-situation Carol was described as having had "several years experience." Selected responses to this question are included in



Appendix C. Table 10 shows the frequency with which sex role, appearance and clothing and abilities and skills were mentioned.

TABLE 10.--Frequency of Mention of Sex-Role, Abilities/Skills and Appearance/Clothing as Reason for Carol Not Being Hired.

Response	Mentioned		Not Mentioned		Total
	N	%	N	%	
Sex-Role	127 ^a	55.2	103	44.8	230
Appearance/Clothing	45 ^a	19.6	185	80.4	230
Abilities/Skills	82 ^a	35.7	148	64.3	230

^arespondents could have answered more than one category

The mention of appearance and clothing was further examined to determine how important or salient it was to the situation. The majority of respondents did not refer to the clothing cues as given in the story. Approximately 20 percent of the sample mentioned clothing or appearance; of those mentioning it, over 95 percent indicated that clothing was salient in this situation. Table 11 contains the Clothing Saliency Dimension.

TABLE 11.--Saliency of Clothing/Appearance Scale

Reaction to Clothing/Appearance	N	Relative Frequency	Adjusted Frequency
Salient	24	10.4	53.3
Salient, Qualified	19	8.3	42.2
Not Salient	2	.9	4.4
Not Salient, Qualified	0	0.0	0.0
Saliency Dimension	45	19.6	99.9 ^a
Not Mentioned	163	70.9	----
Don't Know, No Opinion	7	3.0	----
Not Applicable	6	2.6	----
Missing	<u>9</u>	<u>3.9</u>	----
TOTAL	230	100.00	

^aDoes not equal 100 percent due to rounding

Testing of Sex Role Hypotheses

The null hypotheses dealing with age, education, income and employment status of the wives and their reaction to a female in a non-traditional occupational situation were not rejected because the probability from the Chi Square test was larger than .05, the level of significance set by the researcher.

Hypothesis 1

H₀: There will be no relationship between the age of the respondents and their reaction to a female in a non-traditional occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

H₁: There will be a relationship between the age of the respondents

and their reaction to a female in a non-traditional occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

No significant relationship was found between age and mention or non-mention of sex role ($\chi^2 = 1.47$, $df = 2$, $p = n.s.$), therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Hypothesis 2

H_0 : There will be no relationship between the educational level achieved by respondents and their reaction to a female in a non-traditional occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

H_1 : There will be a relationship between the educational level achieved by respondents and their reaction to a female in a non-traditional occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

Although no significance was found ($\chi^2 = 4.88$, $df = 4$, $p = n.s.$), one can see from Table 12 the continual decrease in percentage mentioning sex role as the level of education increases.

TABLE 12.--Education of Respondent and Sex-Role Given as a Reason Why Carol Was Not Hired

Response	Less than High School	Completed High School	1-3 yrs. College	Bachelor's or Some post	Master's or other advanced degree	Total
Sex role given as reason	28 (63.6) ^a	39 (61.9)	29 (53.7)	20 (48.8)	11 (42.3)	127
Sex role not mentioned	16 (36.4)	24 (38.1)	25 (46.3)	21 (51.2)	15 (57.7)	101
Total	44 (100.0)	63 (100.0)	54 (100.0)	41 (100.0)	26 (100.0)	228

^abracketed numbers are column percentages

Hypothesis 3

- H_0 : There will be no relationship between the income earned by respondents and their reaction to a female in a non-traditional occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.
- H_1 : There will be a relationship between the income earned by respondents and their reaction to a female in a non traditional occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

No significant relationship was found ($\chi^2 = 14.502$, $df = 14$, $p = n.s.$) therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Hypothesis 4

- H_0 : There will be no relationship between the occupational prestige of the respondents and their reaction to a female in a non-traditional occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.
- H_1 : There will be a relationship between the occupational prestige of the respondents and their reaction to a female in a non-traditional occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

An Analysis of Variance test showed a significant difference between groups on occupational prestige. Those who mentioned the sex of referent as a reason she was not hired for a construction job had a lower occupational prestige score than those who did not mention sex. A significant F value was found and therefore the null hypothesis must be rejected. Table 13 contains the results of the statistical test on sex role and occupational prestige. One can assume that people in lower prestige occupations are less accepting of women in non-traditional occupations.



TABLE 13.--Analysis of Variance of Response to Sex-Role and Occupational Prestige

	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	3001.915	1	3001.915	10.07 ^a
Within Groups	67966.368	228	298.098	
Total	70968.283	229		

^ap < .05

Hypothesis 5

H₀: There will be no relationship between the employment status of the respondents' wives and their reaction to a female in a non-traditional occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

H₁: There will be a relationship between the employment status of the respondents' wives and their reaction to a female in a non-traditional occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

No significant relationship was found ($\chi^2 = 3.24$, df = 1, p = n.s.), therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Testing of Appearance and Clothing Hypotheses

The hypotheses testing age, educational level, income and occupational prestige of respondents and their reactions to deviation from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance, were not significant at the .05 levels.

Hypothesis 6

H₀: There will be no relationship between the age of the respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance.

H₁: There will be a relationship between the age of the respondents

and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance.

No significant relationship was found between age and mention or non-mention of clothing and appearance ($\chi^2 = 1.07$, $df = 2$, $p = n.s.$), therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Hypothesis 7

H_0 : There will be no relationship between the educational level achieved by respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance.

H_1 : There will be a relationship between the educational level achieved by respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance.

No significant relationship was found between education and mention or non-mention of clothing and appearance ($\chi^2 = 7.30$, $df = 4$, $p = n.s.$), therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Hypothesis 8

H_0 : There will be no relationship between the income earned by respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance.

H_1 : There will be a relationship between the income earned by respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance.

No significant relationship was found ($\chi^2 = 8.70$, $df = 14$, $p = n.s.$), therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Hypothesis 9

H_0 : There will be no relationship between the occupational prestige of the respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance.

H_1 : There will be a relationship between the occupational prestige of the respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance.

No significant relationship was found ($\chi^2 = 5.0$, $df = 6$, $p = n.s.$),

therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Lawyer Story-Situation

The second story differs from the first in several ways. The referent in the story is a lawyer. For approximately half of the sample the lawyer is a male and for the other half, a female. In the story, a person in need of legal counsel, makes an appointment to see a lawyer who was recommended as having a successful reputation in legal matters. Upon arrival at the lawyer's office, the prospective client is surprised to find the lawyer dressed in a rather atypical manner. The situation presented to the respondents is as follows:

Tom needed a lawyer's advice for the first time in his life. He asked his neighbor to recommend somebody. The neighbor advised him to see Mr. Drake, a competent lawyer who had handled several legal matters in town with great success. After making an appointment with Mr. Drake, Tom arrived at the lawyer's office and was surprised to find him casually dressed in a faded shirt hung out over an unpressed pair of slacks."

Respondents were asked the following open-ended questions:

"What do you think of the lawyer?"

"Why?"

"If you were Tom, what would you have done?"

"Other comments."

Results

Responses to the first question, "What do you think of the lawyer?" were analysed along two approval-disapproval dimensions: one dealing with the lawyer and the other with the lawyer's clothing and appearance. Often responses contained both a reaction to the lawyer and to his/her dress, and in such cases they were recorded on both

dimensions. Table 14 contains the distribution of responses to this question for both the group that had a male lawyer, and for the group that had a female. Table 15 shows the distribution of responses that mentioned clothing or appearance for both groups. These dimensions were used respectively for testing the hypotheses which dealt with sex role, and clothing and appearance expectations.

An examination of Table 14 shows that almost one-third of the total respondents disapproved of the lawyers whereas approximately one-fifth approved and 10 percent were neutral. The distribution of responses to the male and female lawyer were very similar. In contrast, almost half of those responding disapproved of the clothing and appearance of the lawyers, 12 percent approved and over 16 percent were neutral. When responses to the male and female lawyer are compared, it is interesting to note that if implied disapproval is combined with the other disapproval categories, the percentages are equal. Excluding the implied category, almost twice as many respondents approved of the dress of the male lawyer than approved of the dress of the female lawyer.

An additional way of examining the reaction to clothing was in terms of its saliency (e.g., if clothing and appearance was prominent or mentioned in answers to any of the questions, whether or not the respondent made a positive or negative comment about it). Table 16 reports the frequency distribution for this scale. Clothing or appearance was included in over three-fourths of the responses, and for approximately half of the total sample, clothing was a salient aspect of the situation. The distribution on the scale was relatively even for the group reacting to a male lawyer and those reacting to a female lawyer.

TABLE 14.-- Approval-Disapproval of Lawyer in Response to the Question: "What do you think of the lawyer?"

Dimension	Male		Female		Total	Frequency		Frequency	Relative	Adj.	Frequency	Relative	Adj.
	Lawyer	Relative	Lawyer	Relative		Relative	Adj.						
	N		N		N								
Unqualified Approval	20	16.9	16	14.3	36	17.6	15.7	19.3					
Qualified Approval	4	3.4	4	3.6	8	4.4	3.5	4.3					
Implied ^a Approval	24	20.3	26	23.2	50	28.6	21.7	26.7					
Mixed	6	5.1	4	3.6	10	4.4	4.3	5.3					
Unqualified Disapproval	35	29.7	32	28.5	67	35.2	29.1	35.8					
Qualified Disapproval	4	3.4	4	3.6	8	4.4	3.5	4.3					
Implied Disapproval ^a	3	2.5	5	4.4	8	5.5	3.5	4.3					
Neutral	10	8.5	13	11.6	23	---	10.0	---					
Don't Know	5	4.2	3	2.7	8	---	3.5	---					
Not Applicable	3	2.5	3	2.7	6	---	2.6	---					
Missing	4	3.4	2	1.8	6	---	2.6	---					
TOTAL	118	99.9 ^b	112	100.0	230	100.1 ^b	100.0	100.0					

^a Implication based on action indicated in response to the question^b does not equal 100 percent due to rounding

TABLE 15.---Approval-Disapproval of Lawyer's Appearance and Clothing in Response to the Question: "What do you think of the lawyer?"

Dimension	Male Lawyer		Female Lawyer		Total	
	N	Frequency Relative Adj.	N	Frequency Relative Adj.	N	Frequency Relative Adj.
Unqualified Approval	17	14.4	7	6.2	24	10.4
Qualified Approval	1	.8	3	2.7	4	1.7
Implied Approval	2	1.7	7	6.2	9	3.9
Mixed	4	3.4	4	3.6	8	3.5
Unqualified Disapproval	42	35.6	44	39.3	86	37.4
Qualified Disapproval	16	13.6	12	10.7	28	12.2
Implied Disapproval	2	1.7	1	.9	3	1.3
Neutral	18	15.3	20	17.9	38	16.5
Don't Know	0	0.0	3	2.7	3	1.3
Not Applicable	12	10.1	9	8.0	21	9.1
Missing	4	3.4	2	1.8	6	2.6
TOTAL	118	100.0	112	100.0	230	99.9 ^a
						100.0

^aTotal does not equal 100 percent due to rounding

TABLE 16.--Saliency of Clothing/Appearance Scale

Reaction to Clothing/ Appearance	Male Lawyer		Female Lawyer		Total		Frequency Relative		Frequency Relative	
	N	Adj.	N	Adj.	N	Adj.	Adj.	Adj.	Adj.	Adj.
Salient	39	33.0	44	44.8	83	48.9	39.3	36.1	46.9	46.9
Salient, Qualified	16	13.6	19	18.4	35	21.1	16.9	15.2	19.8	19.8
Mixed, Ambivalent	2	1.7	2	2.3	4	2.2	1.8	1.7	2.3	2.3
Not Salient	21	17.8	19	24.1	40	21.1	16.9	17.4	22.6	22.6
Not Salient, Qualified	9	7.6	6	10.3	15	6.7	5.4	6.5	8.5	8.5
Neutral	4	3.4	4	---	8	---	3.6	3.5	---	---
Not Mentioned	16	13.6	11	---	27	---	9.8	11.7	---	---
Not Applicable	1	.8	1	---	2	---	.9	.9	---	---
Missing	10	8.5	6	---	16	---	5.4	7.0	---	---
TOTAL	118	100.0	112	99.9 ^a	230	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.1 ^a	100.1 ^a

^aDoes not total 100 percent due to rounding

Many of the respondents further explained their reactions to the lawyer's dress, and the explanations were grouped into classifications which represent the general content of the statement. Table 17 contains the distribution of clothing and appearance statements by general classification.

TABLE 17.--Classification of Statements Made by Respondents About the Clothing and Appearance of the Lawyer

Classifications Clothing/Appearance:	Referent		Total N
	Male N	Female N	
Is Important	19	18	37
Is not important	17	10	27
Is a reflection of abilities, the quality of one's work	8	10	18
Is not a reflection of abilities or the quality of one's work	24	22	46
Creates an image; appearance expectations	27	27	54
Creates an impression, atmosphere	4	10	14
Is a reflection of self	<u>8</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>15</u>
TOTAL	107	104	211 ^a

^aRespondents may have given more than one answer

The final question asked of the respondents was "If you were Tom, what would you have done?" Responses were coded as to the type of action the respondents indicated they would take in this situation, and were considered to represent a positive or negative sanction continuum. Positive answers included a wide range of possible responses with one

common attribute; the respondent would continue with the situation as presented. Negative answers were those that indicated immediate termination or withdrawal from the situation. Over two-thirds of the respondents indicated positive action. Although some said that they would hire the lawyer immediately, many stated that they would stay and listen to what s/he had to say about the legal matter and then decide. It is interesting to note that although approximately half of the sample indicated disapproval of the lawyer's dress, that two-thirds would still stay. One-fourth of the sample indicated a negative action. In most of these cases, the response was that they would have "left," or "found another lawyer." Table 18 shows the type of action indicated by respondents, for both the male and female lawyer and for the group as a whole.

Testing of Sex Role Hypotheses

The null hypotheses testing age, education, income, occupational prestige and employment status of the respondents wives, and their reaction to the sex of the lawyer were not rejected because the probability of the tested relationships were larger than .05, the level of significance set by the researcher.

Hypothesis 1

- H_0 : There will be no relationship between the age of the respondents and their reaction to the sex of the referent in the occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.
- H_1 : There will be a relationship between the age of the respondents and their reaction to the sex of the referent in the occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

Table 2 indicated that the two groups: those that had a male referent and those that had a female, are similar on age. The Chi Squares between

TABLE 18.--Action Taken by Respondents in Answer to the Question, "If you were Tom, what would you have done?"

Type of Action	Example	Male Lawyer			Female Lawyer			Total		
		N	Relative	Frequency Adj.	N	Relative	Frequency Adj.	N	Relative	Frequency Adj.
Positive	asked advice, hired him, decided after talking	85	72.0	77.3	71	63.4	69.6	156	67.8	73.6
Mixed	gave both a positive and negative answer	1	.9	.9	1	.9	1.0	2	.9	.9
Negative	left, not hired him	24	20.3	21.8	30	26.8	29.4	54	23.5	25.5
Neutral		0	0.0	---	3	2.7	---	3	1.3	---
Don't Know		1	.9	---	1	.9	---	2	.9	---
Not Applicable		3	2.5	---	3	2.7	---	6	2.6	---
Missing		4	3.4	---	3	2.7	---	7	3.0	---
TOTAL		118	110.0	100.0	112	100.1 ^a	100.0	230	100.0	100.0

^aTotal does not equal 100 percent due to rounding

age and respondents approval-disapproval of the lawyer were not significant, therefore, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Set A (male lawyer) $\chi^2 = 3.17$, $df = 4$, $p = n.s.$

Set B (female lawyer) $\chi^2 = 2.03$, $df = 4$, $p = n.s.$

Hypothesis 2

H_0 : There will be no relationship between the educational level achieved by the respondents and their reaction to the sex of the referent in the occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

H_1 : There will be a relationship between the educational level achieved by the respondents and their reaction to the sex of the referent in the occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

As previously reported in Table 2, the groups were similar on educational level achieved. The Chi Squares between educational level and respondents reaction to the sex of the referent were not significant, therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Set A (male lawyer) $\chi^2 = 5.08$, $df = 8$, $p = n.s.$

Set B (female lawyer) $\chi^2 = 5.42$, $df = 8$, $p = n.s.$

Hypothesis 3

H_0 : There will be no relationship between the income earned by the respondents and their reaction to the sex of the referent in the occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

H_1 : There will be a relationship between the income earned by the respondents and their reaction to the sex of the referent in the occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

Table 2 indicated that the two groups were similar on income. The Chi Squares between income and respondents reaction to the sex of the referent were not significant, therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Set A (male lawyer) $\chi^2 = 18.619$, $df = 20$, $p = n.s.$,

Set B (female lawyer) $\chi^2 = 25.479$, $df = 20$, $p = n.s.$

Hypothesis 4

H_0 : There will be no relationship between the occupational prestige of the respondents and their reaction to the sex of the referent in the occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

H_1 : There will be a relationship between the occupational prestige of the respondents and their reaction to the sex of the referent in the occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

A Multiple Analysis of Variance between reactions to the lawyer, occupational prestige and the two groups was performed. No interaction was found between reaction as indicated by approval, neutral, disapproval to the lawyer and the sex of the lawyer. ($F = 1.20$, $df = 2$, $p = n.s.$) The three major types of responses given were compared on occupational prestige and no significant difference was found. ($F = 2.05$, $df = 2$, $p = n.s.$) As previously stated, no significant difference was found between the two groups on occupational prestige. ($F = 0.18$, $df = 1$, $p = n.s.$) The null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Hypothesis 5

H_0 : There will be no relationship between the employment status of the respondents' wives and their reaction to the sex of the referent in the occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

H_1 : There will be a relationship between the employment status of the respondents' wives and their reaction to the sex of the referent in the occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

Table 2 indicated that the two groups varied somewhat on employment status of wives. The Chi Squares between employment status of wives and respondents reaction to the sex of the referent were not significant,

therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected

Set A (male lawyer) $\chi^2 = .46$, $df = 2$, $p = n.s.$

Set B (female lawyer) $\chi^2 = 2.94$, $df = 2$, $p = n.s.$

Testing of Clothing and Appearance Hypotheses

The hypotheses testing age, education and occupational prestige of the respondents and their reactions to deviation from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance, were also not significant.

Hypothesis 6

H_0 : There will be no relationship between the age of respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance.

H_1 : There will be a relationship between the age of respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance.

As previously reported in Table 2, the groups were similar on age. The Chi Squares between age and respondents approval-disapproval of the clothing and appearance of the referent were not significant, therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Set A (male lawyer) $\chi^2 = 2.34$, $df = 4$, $p = n.s.$

Set B (female lawyer) $\chi^2 = 4.38$, $df = 4$, $p = n.s.$

Hypothesis 7

H_0 : There will be no relationship between the educational level achieved by respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance.

H_1 : There will be a relationship between the educational level achieved by respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance.

Tables indicated that the two groups were similar on educational level achieved. The Chi Squares between educational level and their reaction

to the clothing and appearance of the referent were not significant, therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Set A (male lawyer) $\chi^2 = 4.53$, df = 8, p = n.s.

Set B (female lawyer) $\chi^2 = 5.09$, df = 8, p = n.s.

Hypothesis 8

H_0 : There will be no relationship between the income earned by the respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance.

H_1 : There will be a relationship between the income earned by the respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance.

As indicated in Table 2, the two groups were similar on income. Chi Squares between income and respondents reaction to the clothing and appearance of the referent were not significant, therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Set A (male lawyer) $\chi^2 = 15.397$, df = 22, p = n.s.

Set B (female lawyer) $\chi^2 = 31.377$, df = 26, p = n.s.

Hypothesis 9

H_0 : There will be no relationship between the occupational prestige of the respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance.

H_1 : There will be a relationship between the occupational prestige of the respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance.

An Analysis of Variance between reactions to the clothing and appearance of the lawyer, occupational prestige and the two groups was performed. No interaction was found between reaction to the clothing and appearance of the lawyer and by groups on occupational prestige. ($F = 1.11$, df = 2, p = n.s.) The three major types of reaction given to the clothing and appearance of the lawyer: approval, neutral and disapproval were



compared on occupational prestige and no significant difference was found. ($F = 0.19$, $df = 2$, $p = n.s.$) As previously revealed, no significant difference was revealed between the two groups on occupational prestige. The null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Additional Analysis

In an endeavor to determine whether the lack of significant relationships in the previous section might be due to the level of measurement and type of statistical test employed, additional analysis was performed using Spearman Rank Order Correlations.

Intercorrelation of Independent Variable.

Occupational prestige, income and education were all positively intercorrelated and the relationships were highly significant. As Table 19 shows, age was also significantly and positively related to income. Clothing attitudes: the way one dresses for an interview affects whether or not s/he is hired, and that work performance is judged by one's clothing and appearance were both positively correlated with occupational prestige and income.

Intercorrelation of Dependent Variables

Approval-disapproval of the lawyer was positively associated with approval-disapproval of lawyer's clothing and each was positively associated with sanction. Since a high score on the clothing saliency scale represented a lack of clothing importance in the situation, the significant negative correlations meant that as importance of clothing in the saliency scale increased the disapproval of the lawyer and of his/her clothing also increased. An increase in clothing saliency was also associated with a negative sanction toward the lawyer. All relationships were significant at the .001 level. The same relationships were also highly significant when analyses were performed separately for Set A and Set B. Table 20 contains the intercorrelation of the dependent variables.

TABLE 19. --Spearman Rank Order Correlations of Independent Variables

	Occupational Prestige	Education	Income	Age	The way one dresses for an interview makes a difference
Occupational Prestige					
Education	.6569 .001 (N216)				
Income	.3402 .001 (N215)	.3804 .001 (N226)			
Age	n.s.	n.s.	.2091 .002 (N216)		
The way one dresses for an interview makes a difference	.1564 .011 (N217)	.1534 .011 (N228)	n.s.	n.s.	
Work performance is judged by clothing	.1512 .013 (N217)	.1565 .010 (N228)	n.s.	n.s.	.2752 .001 (N230)

TABLE 20.--Spearman Rank Order Correlations of Dependent Variables

	Approval- Disapproval Lawyer	Approval- Disapproval Clothing/Appearance	Clothing/Appearance Saliency
Approval- Disapproval Lawyer			
Approval- Disapproval Clothing/Appearance	.6809 .001 (N153)		
Clothing/Appearance Saliency	-.7158 .001 (N156)	.6756 .001 (N149)	
Sanction	.7009 .001 (N183)	.5370 .001 (N156)	-.5037 .001 (N171)

Correlations Between Independent and
Dependent Variables for the Total Sample

Although few significant relationships were found in the Chi Square Analysis, the Spearman Rank Order Correlation revealed some significant relationships that need to be noted. Table 21 contains the correlations between the independent and dependent variables for the total sample.

Higher occupational prestige was significantly associated with a more positive assessment of the lawyer's clothing and appearance and positive sanction toward him/her. Education was significantly and negatively correlated with approval-disapproval of the lawyer and judgment of his/her attire which means that those who had achieved a higher level of education were more approving of the lawyer and his/her clothing and appearance. Although income was significantly related to the independent variables of occupational prestige and education, it did not show significant relationships with the dependent variables as the other two independent variables did. As previously shown in the independent variables matrix, education and occupational prestige were also related to the two attitude variables while income was not. This raises the possibility that occupational prestige and education may reflect certain attitudes toward clothing that income does not. Finally, age related significantly to sanction. Older respondents would take more negative action with regard to the lawyer.

Agreement with the attitudinal statement that the way one dresses for an interview makes a difference in whether or not s/he will be hired was significantly related to a more negative opinion of the lawyer, the lawyer's clothing and appearance and a negative sanction

TABLE 21.--Spearman Rank Order Correlations Between Independent and Dependent Variables Used in Analysis of Lawyer Story-Situation - Total Sample

	Occupational Prestige	Edu- cation	Income	Age	The way one dresses for an interview makes a difference	Work performance is judged by clothing
Approval-Disapproval Lawyer	n.s.	-.1191 .053 (N186)	n.s.	n.s.	.1582 .016 (N187)	.2623 .001 (N187)
Approval-Disapproval Clothing/Appearance	-.1690 .018 (N155)	-.2069 .005 (N161)	n.s.	n.s.	.1712 .015 (N162)	n.s.
Clothing/Appearance Saliency	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	-.1985 .005 (N177)
Sanction	-.1315 .031 (N204)	-.2413 .001 (N211)	n.s.	.1267 .037 (N202)	.1112 .054 (N212)	.2022 .002 (N212)

toward the lawyer. Likewise, agreement with the belief that work performance is judged by one's clothing and appearance also was significantly related to a more negative opinion towards the lawyer.

Correlation Between Independent
and Dependent Variables by Set Type

Table 22 contains the correlations of variables for both the male and female lawyer. While a statistical test for the significance of the differences observed between the sets of rank order correlations could not be located, it is interesting to observe differences in the data. One of the more obvious differences is that many more of the variables are significant for the female than for the male. Education was not related to any dependent variables for the male lawyer but was negatively correlated with feelings about the female lawyer, her dress and also the action taken. This means that those who have achieved higher levels of education were more approving of Ms. Drake, her clothing and appearance and were more willing to keep the appointment. Those who felt that the way one is dressed for an interview is important also disapproved of the way in which Ms. Drake was dressed for her appointment with a prospective client, and were more disapproving of a female lawyer and negatively sanctioned her. However, the attitude toward interview dress was not related to any of the dependent variables for the male lawyer.

Age was significantly correlated with approval-disapproval of the male lawyer and the type of sanction. Older respondents would be more disapproving of him and take more negative action toward him.

Variables, as occupational prestige, which were significant for

TABLE 22.--Spearman Rank Order Correlations Between Independent and Dependent Variables Used in Analysis of Lawyer Story--
Situation - Male and Female Lawyer

	Occupational Prestige Lawyer		Education Lawyer		Income Lawyer		Age Lawyer		The way one dresses for an interview makes a difference		Work performance is judged by clothing	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Approval-Disapproval of Lawyer	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	-.1689 .053 (N93)	n.s.	n.s.	.1905 .034 (N93)	n.s.	n.s.	.2568 .007 (N93)	.2150 .016 (N100)	.2660 .005 (N93)
Approval-Disapproval Clothing/Appearance	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	-.2163 .027 (N80)	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	.2742 .007 (N80)	n.s.	n.s.
Clothing Saliency	.1852 .037 (N94)	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	-.2348 .011 (N96)
Sanction	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	-.2797 .002 (N105)	n.s.	n.s.	.1611 .049 (N107)	n.s.	n.s.	.2479 .006 (N105)	n.s.	.2466 .006 (N105)

the total sample were often not significant when correlated by set. Possibly if the hypotheses had been tested separately by sex of actor using correlations, the results would be significantly different.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary of the Study

The sample for this study consisted of 230 married males residing with their wives and at least one child between the ages of five and eighteen. Data were collected from November 1977 to March 1978 as part of an integrated research project on Quality of Life.

The instrument, which was part of a self administered questionnaire, consisted of five projective occupational story-situations. The stories which were analyzed in this study dealt with females in non-traditional occupations and with clothing and appearance deviations for both sexes. For one of the story-situations, half of the sample responded to a male referent and the other half to a female.

Respondents were asked open-ended questions which became the bases for scale development. Responses for two clothing attitudinal statements, as well as basic demographics were also included in analysis:

The objectives of the study were to:

1. Examine male acceptance of females in somewhat traditional male occupational roles.
2. Determine male respondents reactions toward deviations from clothing and appearance expectations in occupational situations.

Conclusions by Major Hypotheses

Sex Role Expectations

Major Hypothesis 1. There will be a relationship between the age, educational level achieved, income and occupational prestige of the respondents and their reaction to the sex of the referent in the occupational situation when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

With the exception of occupational prestige for the first story-situation, none of the independent variables were significantly related to the reaction to the sex of the referent.

Other studies have concluded that age is an important indication of attitudes toward sex role and that older respondents are more apt to sex stereotype occupations. Although not significant, a trend was revealed between the level of education achieved and the mention of sex role for the construction work applicant. As the level of education increased, the mention of sex role decreased. Other researchers have found similar results indicating that the higher the level of education, the more favorable are attitudes toward feminism.

An Analysis of Variance revealed a significant relationship between occupational prestige and mention of sex role for the construction work applicant. Those who mentioned the sex of the referent as the reason that she was not hired for a construction job had a lower occupational prestige score. It can be concluded for this case, that respondents in lower prestige occupations are less accepting of women in non-traditional occupations. Occupational prestige was not significant for the lawyer story-situation. Other studies have revealed mixed findings with regard to occupational prestige partially due to the fact that the way occupational prestige was measured has varied from study to study.

Major Hypothesis 2. There will be a relationship between the employment status of the respondents' wives and their reaction to the sex of the referent in the occupational situation, when the description of clothing and appearance is held constant.

The investigator believed that respondents whose wives were employed would be more accepting of females in occupational roles. Employment status of the respondents' wives was not significant for either story-situation. This may partially be due to the way in which it was measured. Wives who were employed for less than twenty hours were combined with those who were unemployed outside the home and compared to those employed twenty hours or more.

One might conclude from the lack of significance revealed for the hypotheses dealing with sex role that indeed stereotyped beliefs and attitudes toward women in the labor force may have changed. Likewise, since no significant difference was found in reaction toward the male or female lawyer, that possibly sex stereotypes are diminishing with regard to certain occupations. The review of recent literature does not support such an optimistic conclusion. It must be remembered that only two types of occupations were included in the analyses and also the majority of males studied reacted negatively to a female in a non-traditional construction worker role.

Clothing and Appearance Expectations

Major Hypothesis 3. There will be a relationship between the age, educational level, income and occupational prestige of the respondents and their reaction to deviations from generally expected occupational clothing and appearance in the story-situations.

Responses to clothing and appearance deviations were not significantly related to any of the demographic variables as hypothesized. Other studies have revealed that occupational prestige or white collar and manual



labor divisions have made a difference in the way clothing was perceived by respondents. Age has also been an indicator of attitudes toward feminine and masculine appearance in other studies.

Although the dress deviations were not significant as hypothesized, they were mentioned by one-fifth of the respondents for the first situation and by the majority for the case dealing with the male and female lawyer. It may be concluded that clothing and appearance were perceived important to the occupational situations although approval-disapproval of dress was not significantly related to the demographic variables as measured.

Limitations of the Findings

Since the investigator was not present to clarify the respondents' answers to the questions, responses were interpreted based on the coder's perceived meaning of the wording as stated. The accuracy of the data may be limited, depending on whether responses represent true feelings or what respondents believed to be socially desirable answers to the open-ended questions.

Variations between the two projective story-situations may have accounted for differences in the responses. Approximately 20 percent of those responding to the construction applicant case mentioned clothing or appearance, whereas almost 80 percent included the lawyer's clothing or appearance in their responses. This may be partially due to the placement of the clothing cues within the individual stories. In the first story, it was inserted approximately halfway through the story and in the second story it was at the very end. The location of the clothing cue at the end and the inclusion of the word "surprised" when describing

the clients reaction to the lawyer may account for the fact that the majority of respondents mentioned clothing and appearance.

More than one-third of the respondents mentioned that Carol was not hired for the construction job because she did not have the ability or skills required for the position for which she was applying. Although the researcher meant to imply that Carol had previous construction experience, the story only stated that she had "experience" without qualification. Respondents may have not considered it to be applicable to construction work and therefore believed her to be inexperienced in that area.

Due to the fact that responses from three different sampling frames were combined, the results cannot be generalized beyond the specific sample under study. The findings are also limited by the kind of measurement and testing that was done with the data. Possibly more sophisticated statistical tests would yield different results.

Suggestions for Further Study

An analysis of responses to the open-ended questions with selected attitudinal variables relating to feelings about occupational clothing, how it affects the occupational role and how others perceive it might add more dimension to occupational clothing research. The researcher had originally intended to compare additional stories representing various occupations of differing occupational prestige. An analysis of responses to several stories would serve as a better indicator of the extent of sex role stereotyping of occupations. A possible alteration of the construction applicant story, would be a male applicant, inappropriately dressed for the interview in a three-piece suit. Half

of the sample would receive a male referent, and the other half, a female, as in the lawyer story-situation.

This type of projective story-situation might be used for samples of differing life styles and family structures such as: single adults, single parent families, and dual career couples without children. A comparison of husbands' and wives' responses to the open-ended questions would be another possible study. Considering the societal changes in recent years, it would be interesting to replicate the original Form and Stone study (1955), using a similar sample composition in which each occupation is proportionately represented.

An interesting methodological study would be to present the stories with the important cues in different strategic positions within the story, in order to determine its effect on the types of responses elicited. It may reveal that the placement is as important as the actual content of the cue itself.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PORTION OF QUALITY OF LIFE QUESTIONNAIRE
USED IN THIS STUDY



Set A

INTERPERSONAL SITUATIONS

The following five situations may occur. Please respond to the questions following each one and add any comments you would like to make.

- 10.1 Carol read that a local company was hiring workers for their construction crews. Since she had several years experience, she felt confident that she would get a job. After making an appointment for an interview, she arrived at the personnel office wearing a skirt and blouse and was surprised to see that she was the only female in the roomful of applicants. Carol felt that her interview with the personnel director had gone well and was certain that she would be hired. The following day she received a phone call and was told that all the positions on the construction crews had been filled.

10.1a How would you have felt if you were Carol? _____

10.1b Why do you think that she was not hired? _____

10.1c Other comments _____

- 10.2 Tom needed a lawyer's advice for the first time in his life. He asked his neighbor to recommend somebody. The neighbor advised him to see Mr. Drake, a competent lawyer who had handled several legal matters in town with great success. After making an appointment with Mr. Drake, Tom arrived at the lawyer's office and was surprised to find him casually dressed in a faded shirt that hung out over an unpressed pair of slacks.

10.2a What do you think of the lawyer? _____

Why? _____

10.2b If you were Tom, what would you have done? _____

10.2c Other comments _____



Set B

INTERPERSONAL SITUATIONS

The following five situations may occur. Please respond to the questions following each one and add any comments you would like to make.

- 10.1 Carol read that a local company was hiring workers for their construction crews. Since she had several years experience, she felt confident that she would get a job. After making an appointment for an interview, she arrived at the personnel office wearing a skirt and blouse and was surprised to see that she was the only female in the roomful of applicants. Carol felt that her interview with the personnel director had gone well and was certain that she would be hired. The following day she received a phone call and was told that all the positions on the construction crews had been filled.

10.1a How would you have felt if you were Carol? _____

10.1b Why do you think that she was not hired? _____

10.1c Other comments _____

- 10.2 Tom needed a lawyer's advice for the first time in his life. He asked his neighbor to recommend somebody. The neighbor advised him to see Ms. Drake, a competent lawyer who had handled several legal matters in town with great success. After making an appointment with Ms. Drake, Tom arrived at the lawyer's office and was surprised to find her casually dressed in a faded shirt that hung out over an unpressed pair of slacks.

10.2a What do you think of the lawyer? _____

Why? _____

10.2b If you were Tom, what would you have done? _____

10.2c Other comments _____

GENERAL CLOTHING INTERESTS

	Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	In between (equally agree and disagree)	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
5.4 The way people dress for a job interview makes a difference in whether or not they are hired.	1	2	3	4	5
5.16 People judge your work performance by the way that you are dressed.	1	2	3	4	5

YOUR FAMILY SITUATION

This study is about the quality of life of family members. Therefore, we are interested in knowing some things about yourself and your family. As you answer the questions, please consider only yourself and the family members now living in your household.

FOR EACH QUESTION, PLACE A CHECK MARK IN THE BRACKETS [✓] OR WRITE THE ANSWER ON THE LINE PROVIDED.

13.1 What is your sex?

[] Male

[] Female

13.2a How old were you on your last birthday?

_____ Age at last birthday

13.2b What is the month, day, and year of your birth?

_____ Month _____ Day _____ Year of Birth

13.3 What is your religion, if any?

[] Protestant: _____
(please specify)

[] Catholic

[] Jewish

[] None

[] Other: _____
(please specify)

13.4 What is your race?

[] White

[] Black/Negro/Afro-American

[] Other: _____
(please specify)

13.5 Do you (or does a member of your family who lives with you) own your home, do you rent, or what? (CHECK ONE)

[] Own or buying

[] Renting

[] Other: _____
(please specify)

13.6a Is this your first marriage?

☐ YES —————> In what year were you married? _____

☐ NO —————>

13.6b In what year did your present marriage begin? _____

13.6c How did your last marriage end? CHECK ONE.

☐ Death —————> Year of death: _____

☐ Divorce —————> Year of divorce: _____

☐ Annulment —————> Year of annulment: _____

13.7a What is the highest level of formal schooling that you have completed? CHECK ONE.

☐ Less than 8 grades of elementary school

☐ 8 grades of elementary school

☐ 1-3 years of high school

☐ Completed high school and received diploma or passed high school equivalency exam

☐ 1-3 years of college

☐ College graduate, bachelor's degree

☐ Post bachelor's course work

☐ Master's degree

☐ Post master's course work

☐ PhD, EdD

☐ Other professional degree (such as MD, DO, JD, DDS): _____
(please specify)

13.7b Are you NOW attending or enrolled in one of the programs listed above?

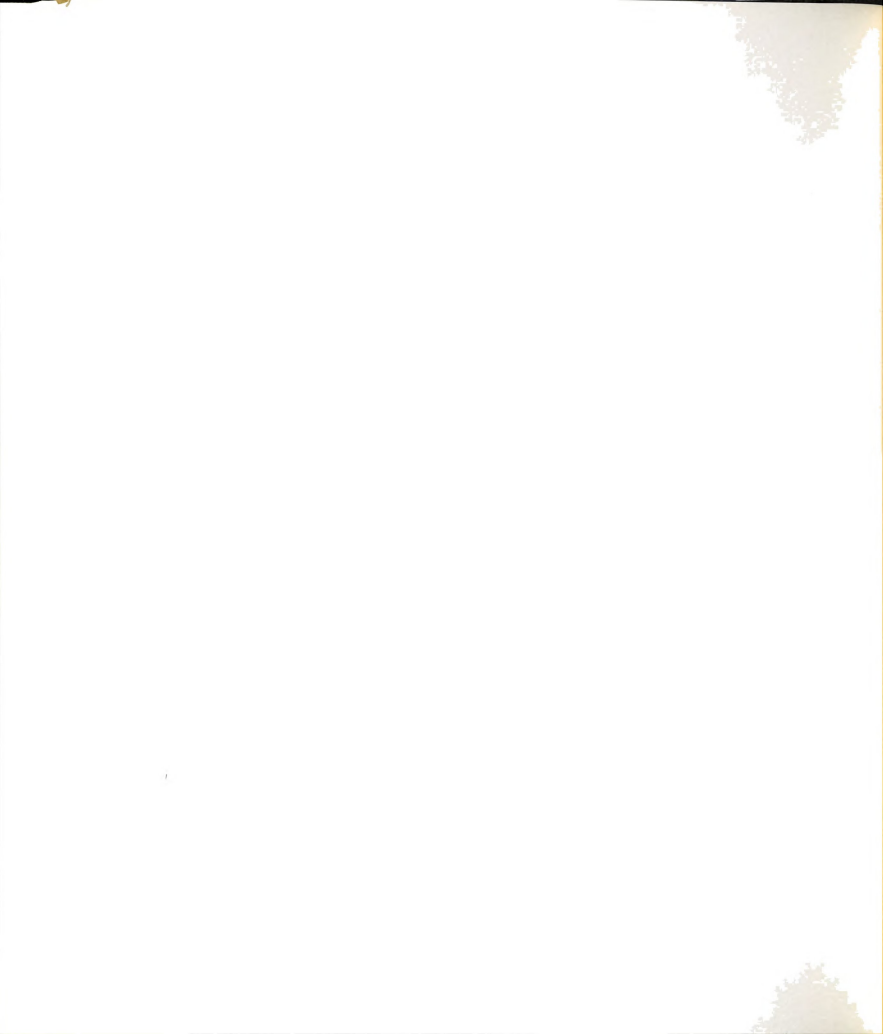
☐ YES —————> 13.7c If YES, is that full-time or part-time?

☐ Full-time student

☐ Part-time student

13.7d Please specify in which one of the above programs you are now enrolled (such as high school, college, master's program).

Type of school or program _____



13.8a IN THE PAST, have you been enrolled in any type of educational program other than high school or college, such as vocational school?

- ☐ YES →
☐ NO

13.8b If YES, please specify your field of training (such as business, office work, practical nursing, beautician, mechanic, electrician).
 Field of training _____

13.8c Did you complete the training program?
☐ YES
☐ NO
☐ DOES NOT APPLY

13.8d Are you NOW enrolled in any type of educational program other than high school, college or graduate school, such as vocational training program, arts and crafts classes, or religion classes?

- ☐ YES →
☐ NO

13.8e If YES, what type of educational program is it?

Field of training or type of program _____

13.9a Are you presently employed, unemployed, retired, or what?
 CHECK AS MANY AS APPLY TO YOU.

- ☐ Housewife or househusband
☐ Student
☐ Permanently disabled
☐ Retired
☐ Unemployed (that is, previously employed for pay and/OR presently looking for a job)
☐ Temporarily laid off
 OR on strike
 OR on sick leave
☐ Working now

GO TO QUESTION 13.10a ON PAGE 38.
 (unless you also check one of the categories below in which case go to 13.9b on the next page).

GO TO QUESTION 13.9b ON THE NEXT PAGE.



- 13.9b If you are working now OR are temporarily laid off OR on strike OR on sick leave, what kind of work do you do? What is your main occupation called? (If you have two jobs, your main occupation is the job on which you spend the most time. If you spend an equal amount of time on two jobs, it is the one which provides the most income.)

Main occupation _____

- 13.9c What do you actually do in that job? What are some of your main duties?

Duties _____

- 13.9d What kind of business, industry or organization is your job in? What do they do or make at the place where you work?

Kind of business, industry or organization _____

What they make or do _____

- 13.9e About how many hours a week do you do this work? CHECK ONE.

☐ Less than 20 hours per week

☐ 20 hours per week

☐ 21-39 hours per week

☐ 40 hours per week

☐ 41-50 hours per week

☐ 51-60 hours per week

☐ More than 60 hours per week

- 13.9f Do you do this work inside your home, outside your home but on your own property, or away from your home and property? CHECK THE ONE PLACE IN WHICH YOU DO MOST OF THIS WORK.

☐ Inside my home

☐ Outside my home but on my property

☐ Away from my home and property

- 13.9g Are you an hourly wage worker, salaried, on commission, self-employed, or what? CHECK ONE.

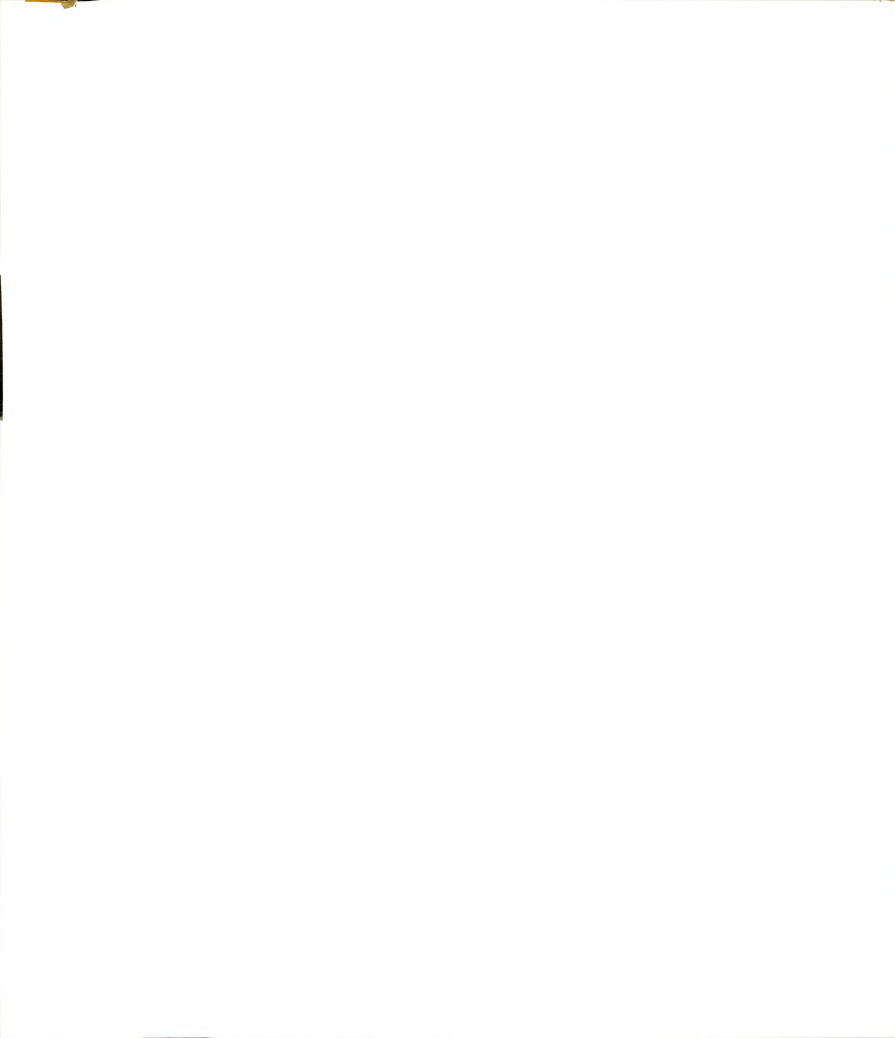
☐ Hourly wage worker

☐ Salaried

☐ Work on commission, tips

☐ Self-employed in own business, professional practice, or farm

☐ Work without pay in family business or farm



- 13.11a What do you estimate will be your total family income before taxes in 1977? Please include income from all sources before taxes, including income from wages, property, stocks, interest, welfare, Aid to Families with Dependent Children, child support from a previous marriage, and any other money income received by you and all family members who live with you.

ESTIMATED TOTAL FAMILY YEARLY INCOME, 1977

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Under \$3,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$12,000 - \$14,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$3,000 - \$3,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$15,000 - \$19,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$4,000 - \$4,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$20,000 - \$24,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$5,000 - \$5,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$25,000 - \$29,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$6,000 - \$6,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$30,000 - \$34,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$7,000 - \$7,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$35,000 - \$49,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$8,000 - \$9,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$50,000 - \$74,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$10,000 - \$11,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$75,000 and over |

- 13.11b About how much of this total family yearly income do you estimate that YOU will earn in 1977?

ESTIMATED PORTION OF TOTAL FAMILY INCOME, 1977, EARNED BY YOURSELF

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Does not apply, not employed in 1977 | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Under \$3,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$12,000 - \$14,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$3,000 - \$3,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$15,000 - \$19,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$4,000 - \$4,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$20,000 - \$24,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$5,000 - \$5,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$25,000 - \$29,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$6,000 - \$6,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$30,000 - \$34,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$7,000 - \$7,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$35,000 - \$49,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$8,000 - \$9,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$50,000 - \$74,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$10,000 - \$11,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$75,000 and over |

- 13.12 In the coming year, would you say your financial situation will get worse, stay about the same, or get better? CHECK ONE.

- ☐ Get worse
- ☐ Stay about the same
- ☐ Get better

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEWER PROCEDURES AND FORMS

USED IN THE FIELD



November, 1977

OAKLAND COUNTY LIFESTYLE
Interviewer Instructions

TYPE OF INTERVIEWING TECHNIQUE

For this study you will not be doing any actual interviewing with a respondent. You will, however, screen households within each area to determine eligibility for placement of questionnaires, and you will be required to return to those households to pick up and verify completion of those questionnaires.

ELIGIBLE RESPONDENT/HOUSEHOLD

In order for a household to be eligible for placement of questionnaires, the following criteria must be met:

- 1.) The household must be occupied by a married couple.
- 2.) The couple must have one or more children from five years of age through 18 years of age.
- 3.) The husband and wife must both consent to filling out a questionnaire.

In order for a household to be considered complete, BOTH questionnaires are to be completely filled out and must be accompanied by a signed consent form.

RESPONDENT INCENTIVE

In order to show their appreciation for respondent's co-operation, Michigan State University will issue a \$10.00 check to each family who participates in this study. These checks will be mailed directly to the household approximately four to six weeks after they have completed the questionnaires. Additionally, a summary report of the findings of this research project will be mailed to the participating households upon completion (this will be a couple of months after receipt of the check.)

QUOTA

Each area has a quota of four completed households. This means that four husband/wife sets and consent forms will be completed for a total of eight questionnaires per area.

SAMPLING PROCEDURE

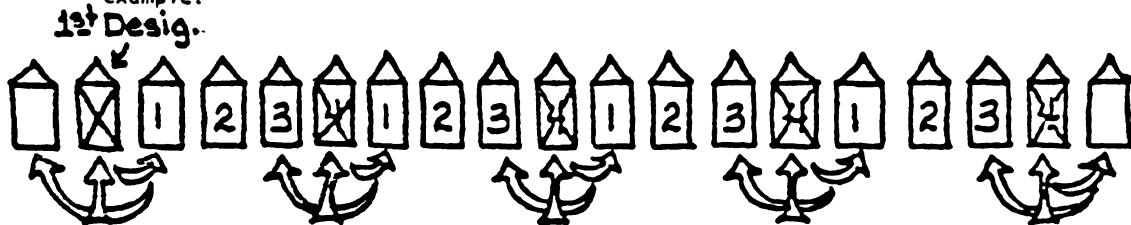
Standard sampling procedure is to be used for this study. Proceed to the corner indicated by a red X on your area mapsheet. Begin at the household indicated in the bottom right-hand corner of your mapsheet, this becomes your first designated household and should be written in on your first call record. If you are unable



Oakland County Lifestyle Interviewer Instructions

to place the questionnaires at the designated household, you will substitute by going to the residence to the right, then to the left, then by skipping four households from your designated one, and continuing this pattern until you have placed them with an eligible household. Please look at the following example:

example:



This is the pattern that you will follow in covering your blocks to determine eligibility for placement.

CALLBACKS

There are three callbacks required on the first household attempted for each set of questionnaires to be completed. Let's examine some possible field situations. Since you can only place your questionnaires in households meeting certain criteria it would be futile to make three callbacks on a household containing a widow over 65. When you begin work in an area and run into a no answer at one of your designated households, check with the residence to the right, explain the purpose of your visit and ask if their neighbor meets the eligibility requirements. If they do, you should continue to call on that household; if not, ask the person you are speaking to if they meet the requirements and attempt placement. In other words, screen your neighborhood efficiently for eligible households before attempting callbacks and you will minimize the number of trips made to an area considerably.

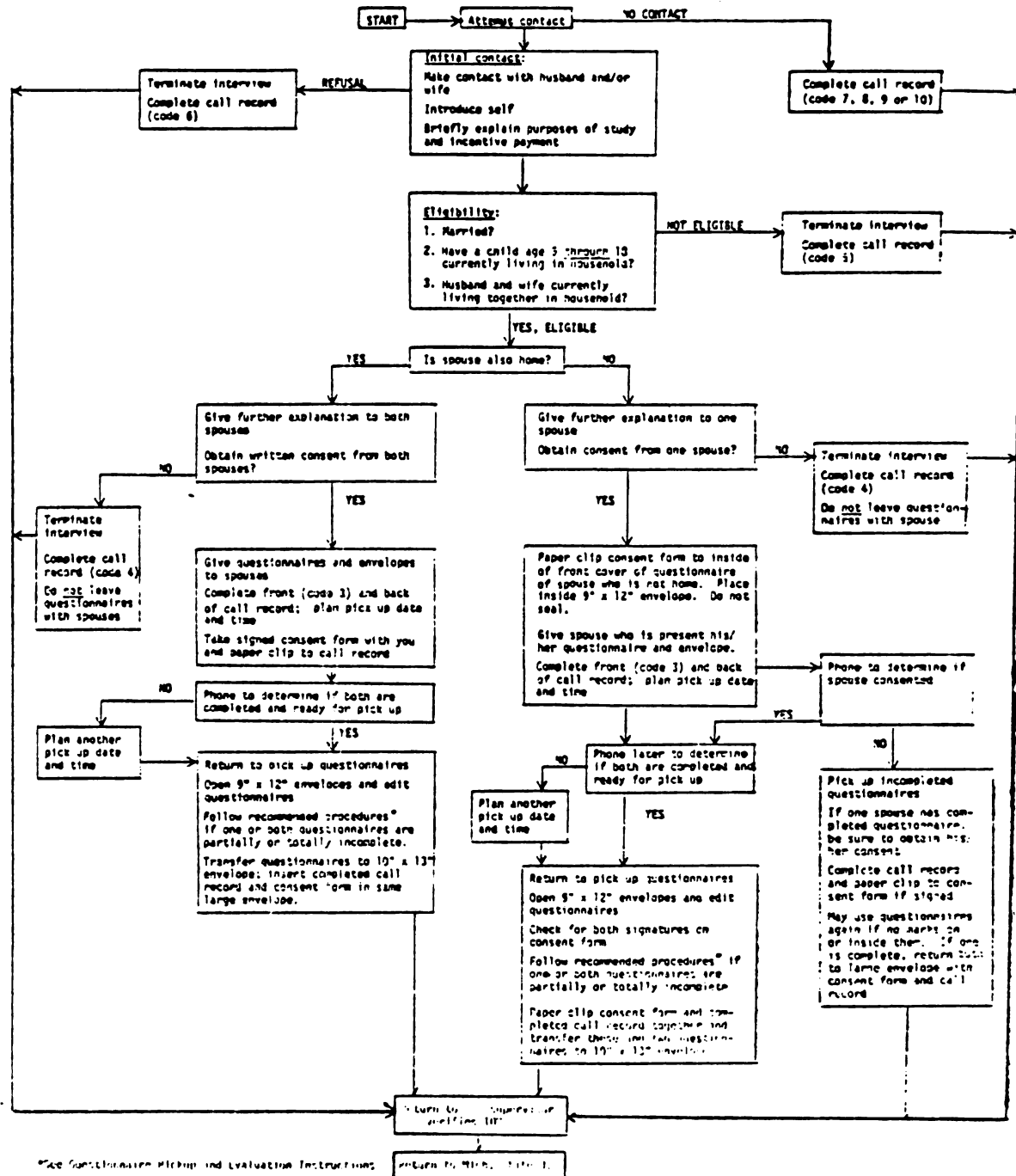
INTERVIEWING HINTS

- * Make sure that at least one (either husband or wife) has signed the consent form and is certain that the other spouse will do so before leaving the questionnaires.
- * Stress confidentiality.
- * Remind respondents that the \$10.00 and the summary report will only be sent to households who successfully complete both questionnaires and sign the consent form.
- * State a specific date and time for pick-up of questionnaires and arrange for both spouses to be present if possible.
- * Call your respondents before you return to your area to pick-up the questionnaires.

QUALITY OF LIFE PROJECT, FALL 1977
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

INTERVIEWER FLOW CHART

HES/11-5-77





MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF HUMAN ECOLOGY

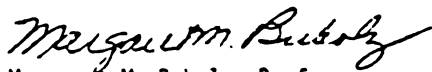
EAST LANSING · MICHIGAN · 48824

November 15, 1977


This is to introduce an interviewer from (name of market research agency). interviewer is asking your participation in a study of the quality of life of families in Oakland County, Michigan. The research project and questionnaire have been developed by the Departments of Family and Child Sciences and Human Environment and Design, College of Human Ecology at Michigan State University. The project has been funded by the Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station.

You and your spouse's cooperation in granting a short interview and in completing self-administered questionnaires will be sincerely appreciated, and your names will in no way be linked to your responses.

Sincerely,



Margaret M. Bubolz, Professor
Family and Child Sciences



Ann C. Slocum, Assistant Professor
Human Environment and Design

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Fall 1977

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CONSENT FORM

We, the undersigned, willingly consent to participate in a study about the quality of life of Michigan families. We do so with the understanding that our responses will contribute to the goals of the research project being conducted by the College of Human Ecology at Michigan State University and the Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station. The purposes of the study have been explained to us, and they are repeated in the letter attached to the questionnaire. Thus, we have knowledge of the aspects of the study.

We agree to complete the questionnaires as accurately and completely as we are able. We further understand that our names will in no way be linked to the answers we have given, and we reserve the right to withdraw from the study at any time. We desire to participate in this research and consent and agree.

PLEASE SIGN YOUR FIRST AND LAST NAMES.

_____	_____	_____	_____
Wife's Signature	Date	Husband's Signature	Date
_____	_____	_____	_____
Street Address	City/Town, State	Zip Code	

We, the undersigned, guarantee complete anonymity to the persons whose signatures are above. Their names will in no way be linked to the responses given. We further agree to pay the abovesigned family an amount of \$10.00 upon receipt of the two completed questionnaires. We will be happy to answer any questions they might have about completing the questionnaires. Please call 517-353-5389 or 517-355-1895.

Margaret M. Bubolz
Dr. Margaret M. Bubolz, Professor
Family and Child Sciences

Ann C. Slocum
Dr. Ann C. Slocum, Assistant Professor
Human Environment and Design

APPENDIX C

SELECTED RESPONSES TO OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS



Construction Worker Story-Situation

1. HOW WOULD YOU HAVE FELT IF YOU WERE CAROL?

"Disappointed, because she had the experience."

"Discriminated against, but it's my opinion that women don't belong on construction crews."

"I wouldn't have been surprised being a woman."

"Being a man, I feel that a woman is out of place on such a job. If women would do the duty of women, there wouldn't be unemployment in the country."

2. WHY DO YOU THINK THAT SHE WAS NOT HIRED?

"Personnel probably feared a single female in a group of males as a probable source of disruption."

"Because she was a woman and out of place."

"The employer felt that he needed men, as this is heavy work and not suitable for women."

"Women are not usually suitable for construction work, possible disruptive influence."

"The obvious is that the employer was biased in his assessment of Carol, as her appearance was feminine."

"God may not have wanted her to work with a construction crew."

"Because she was dressed in a skirt and blouse."

"Women can't handle hard work and dirt of construction crews."

"She didn't have any place on a construction crew as she wouldn't be able to do her share of the work."



"I would suspect, it would require physical work and Carol appearing in a shirt and blouse didn't come across as filling that need."

3. OTHER COMMENTS.

"Carol did not wear clothes appropriate for this job. As a woman, she has to compete with men generally physically stronger, why dress to accent the physical difference?"

"Equal pay and opportunities for equally qualified people."

"This bias is not proper, but is still dominant, especially in the industry named."

"Carol may be able to do the work, but try to think of some guy who won't mind callouses on her hands."

"I don't believe in the direction of our society toward one sex, no matter what the situation."

"The only chance she would have in such a situation, would be to fill their legal quota or have a skill that a male applicant could not approximate."

"A woman's place is in the home, cooking and having children and doing other such jobs as nursing and restaurant work. Because the Bible says that a woman should be a man's helper, stay home, have children and make a home for her mate."

Lawyer Story-Situation

1. WHAT DO YOU THINK OF THE LAWYER?

"She must not have very many cases."

"I would have expected to see a person in his position be well dressed."



"She was just being herself and that's no crime."

"You can't judge a lawyer by the way he dresses."

"Not enough information to form an opinion."

"Have doubt of competence."

"Ms. Drake needs to get up earlier in the morning."

2. WHY?

"If sloppy in clothes, then she is in law."

"Appearances are deceiving."

"A girl should be a sharp dresser."

"Past history, first impressions are extremely important, however the record speaks for itself."

"Success should also be worn and shown in competence and appearance."

"She may have been painting her office or playing football with her child."

3. IF YOU WERE TOM, WHAT WOULD YOU HAVE DONE?

"I probably would have had second thoughts about this funny dressed lawyer."

"Tell her my problem, I want someone who is competent not necessarily neat."

"I would have got up and left."

"Hired him."

"Reserved judgement until I heard what she had to say."



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