

THE EFFECTS OF DESIGNER LABELED
CLOTHING ON SELF-CONCEPT, IN
SITUATIONS OF SOCIAL
COMPARISON

By

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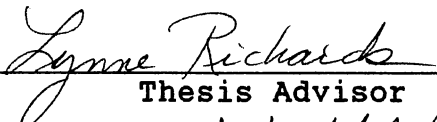
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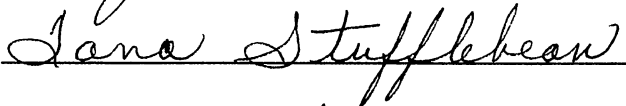
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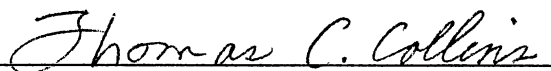
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Self-concept is a person's sense of self, the image a person holds of himself. It includes not only perceptions about one's physical features, but also perceptions of emotions, values, likes and dislikes, talents, etc. (Kaiser, 1985). Self-esteem is the evaluative aspect of the self-concept. It is a person's overall judgement of personal worth (Wells & Marwell, 1976). A self-concept is influenced by several factors (See Figure 1):

1. social responses from other people (Mead, 1934; Schlenker, 1980),
2. self-evaluation of internal cues (Kaiser, 1985), and
3. social comparison of the self with others (Festinger, 1954).

Social Responses

Social responses are reactions to the self by social others. Social responses are elicited from others on the basis of body actions, body conditions (innate physical characteristics) and body adornment (clothing and decoration). The nature of these responses from others influence the self-concept (Mead, 1934; Schlenker, 1980).

The process of forming a self-concept based upon the

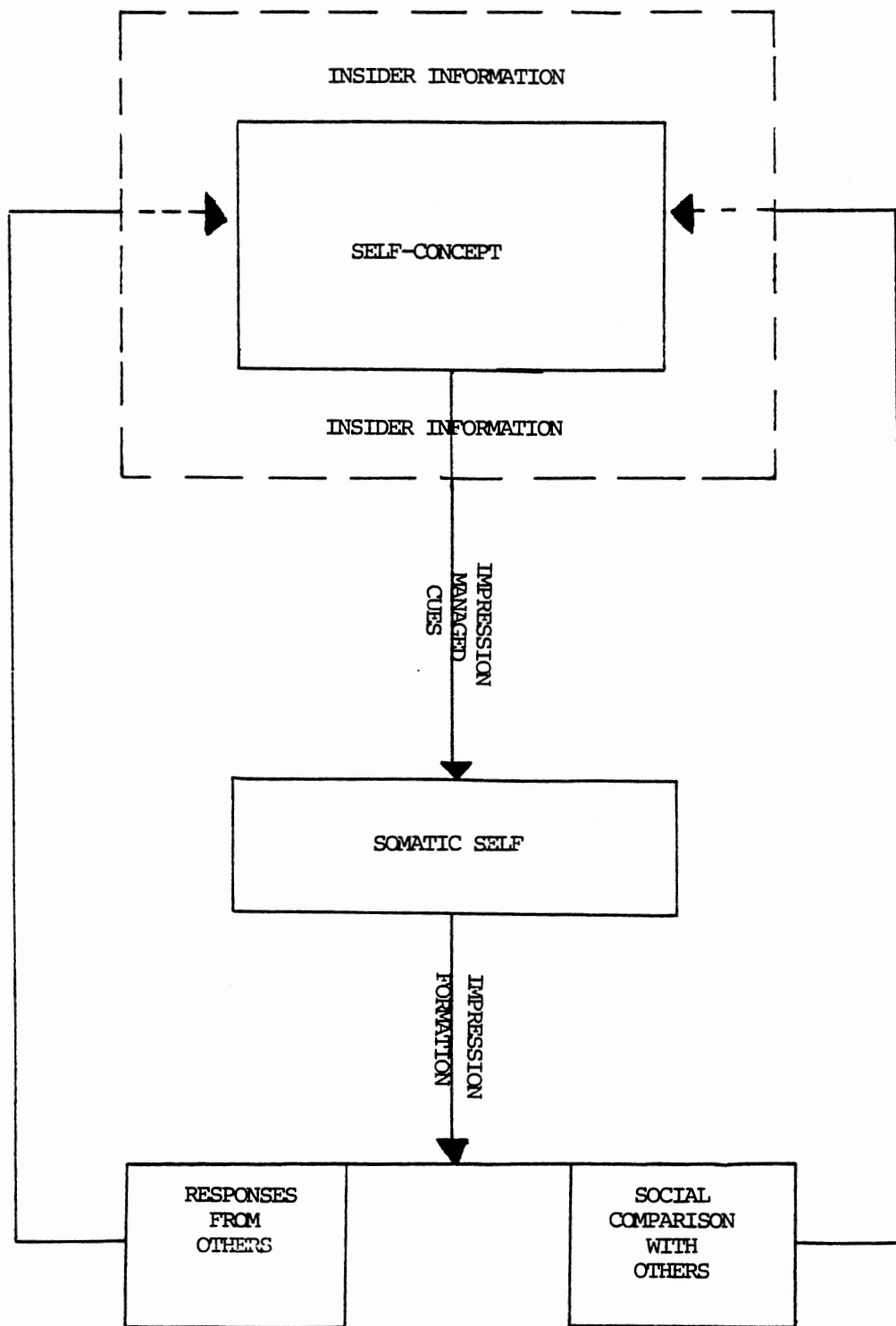


Figure 1. Influences on Self Concept

responses of others is known as self indication (Mead, 1934; Blumer, 1969). Self indication is influenced by "self-fulfilling prophesy" (Merton, 1949). The concept of "self-fulfilling prophesy" suggests that a person believes the ideas about the self which are communicated by others. Believing these ideas, a person can become what others assume him to be, and can form corresponding self-perceptions.

Evaluation of Internal Cues

This aspect of self-concept formation involves the use of insider information. Insider information is that which a person knows about himself but which others, perhaps, do not (Kaiser, 1985). This self-knowledge can protect self-esteem and self-concept from the damaging effects of negative social responses, by acting as a filter through which all social responses must pass. Insider information can be used to justify the self, in the face of criticism.

Social Comparison

Social comparison is the use of cultural ideals to evaluate one's self in relation to others, determining how the self measures up, positively or negatively (Festinger, 1954). Social comparison relies upon the nonverbal communication aspects of impression management and impression formation. Self-impressions can change from situation to situation depending on the social other in the comparison situation (Suls, 1977).

As a person matures, he begins to learn cultural ideals through the process of socialization. Socialization is the internalization of a culture's norms and the acceptance of those norms as right and good (McNeil, 1969). As a child accepts the norms of a society he begins also to evaluate himself by those same cultural standards. A person cannot begin social comparison until he has been socialized into the acceptance of a particular set of cultural standards and ideals.

One such cultural ideal, by Western standards, is monetary success. Our American society places a great amount of emphasis on wealth. One symbol of wealth has been designer labeled clothing. The widespread use of designer labeled clothing raises questions concerning the impact, positive or negative, which this clothing can have on others' self-perceptions during interaction situations.

This present study of the social comparison process contributes to our understanding of interaction situations, and the factors and ramifications of these specific interactions. By using this study's theoretical basis, we can gain knowledge of the dynamics of interaction from the standpoint of one person's actions affecting another person. Few, if any people, in Western society live a totally isolated existence. Knowledge of non-verbal communication and the social comparison process can increase a person's ability to interact successfully with others. The results of this study have potential application in all interaction

situations, including those in education, business, politics, and social work.

Objectives

The purposes of this study were to determine attitudes toward designer labeled clothing, and to test if those attitudes influenced the impact of social comparison upon self-concept in a situation of clothing manipulation. Based upon these purposes, the objectives of this study were:

1. to determine attitudes toward and recognition of designer labeled clothing,
2. to determine if designer labeled clothing, when worn by another, influenced a change in self-concept, and
3. to determine if a relationship existed between attitudes toward designer labeled clothing and changes in self-concept in situations of designer clothing being worn by another.

Hypotheses

For the purposes of this study, the following hypotheses were formed.

1. Subjects will have positive attitudes toward designer labeled clothing.
2. Subjects experiencing a confederate dressed in designer labeled clothing will experience a decrease in self-concept.
3. Positive attitudes toward designer labeled clothing will correlate with negative effects on

subjects' self-concepts when the subjects encounter a confederate wearing designer labeled clothing.

Assumptions

1. The subjects thoroughly understood the questions presented to them.
2. The subjects answered honestly, not biasing the study.
3. The subject sample was representative of a specific population.

Definition of Terms

Self-Concept/Self-Perception

The image a person holds of himself; a person's sense of self (Kaiser, 1985).

Self-Indication

Forming a self-concept based upon the responses of others (Mead, 1934; Blumer, 1969).

Socialization

Internalizing a culture's norms and accepting them as right and good; the process of becoming a social being (McNeil, 1969).

Social Comparison

Evaluating the self in relation to others on the basis of accepted norms and ideals, and determining how the self measures up, positively or negatively (Festinger, 1954).

Self-Esteem

An overall self-evaluation or judgement of personal worth (Wells & Marwell, 1976).

Communication

The sharing of messages, thoughts, or feelings between two people (The American Heritage Dictionary, 1983).

Encoding

The process of changing an idea into a symbol (Adler & Towne, 1981).

Channel

The means by which an encoded message is sent from one person to another (Alder & Towne, 1981).

Decoding

Changing the encoded (symbolized) message back into an idea (Adler & Towne, 1981).

Impression Management

Manipulating public self-presentations (Schlenker, 1980; Tedeschi & Riess, 1981).

Impression Formation

A process of selecting cues or symbols and using them in the evaluation of others (Kaiser, 1985).

Inferential Set

Selective attention to cues that are most salient to the needs of a decoder (Jones & Thibaut, 1958).

Attitude Towards Designer Labeled Clothing

The difference in responses to a garment or its wearer, upon the basis of the presence versus absence of a visible designer label.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter is organized into two major subdivisions. The first section explains, in detail, the process of non-verbal communication, its relationship to social comparison, and its resulting influence on self-concept. The second section summarizes previous research about social comparison.

Non-verbal Communication

Communication is the basic process of sharing and comparing ideas, thoughts, or feelings between two people (American Heritage Dictionary, 1983). During the process of nonverbal communication people share ideas and thoughts with others using visual, tactile or other non-auditory cues (Richards, 1991).

When a person expresses an idea, he is a communication "sender". Because ideas, thoughts, and feelings are intangible, the sender must convert an idea or mental image into symbols which the other person can experience (see, hear, feel, etc.) and understand. Words are verbal symbols while appearance aspects are visual symbols. This process of changing an idea into a symbol is known as "encoding". The encoded idea is the "message" which is sent to the other

person. The way in which the message is sent (i.e. speaking, writing, or gestures, etc.) is the "channel". There are a great number of channels which may be used. The way we stand, our touch, our gestures, our clothing, or the distance between the two people are all visual channels by which an encoded message can be sent (Adler & Towne, 1981).

After the message has been sent, the "receiver" goes through the same process, only in reverse. The receiver must "decode" the message back into an idea, thought or feeling that he can understand (Adler & Towne, 1981). During the process of person perception, the receiver attaches symbolic meanings to visual (nonverbal) cues. These symbolic meanings are used to create an image (impression) of the encoder. Therefore, impression management and impression formation are forms of encoding and decoding, respectively (Richards, 1991).

Impression Management

Impression management (encoding) is the process of manipulating public self presentations to communicate verbal and visual messages to others (Schlenker, 1980; Tedeschi & Riess, 1981). Verbal cues consist of words and sounds while visual cues are aspects of the person's visible appearance (somatic self, body actions, and adornment).

Impression Formation

During impression formation (decoding) a person experiences another's verbal and nonverbal behavior and

appearance, attaching symbolic meanings to the cues, and forming an evaluative impression about the other person (Kaiser, 1985). This impression formation process, though it takes only a few seconds, is a distinct cognitive process that encompasses four steps: 1) selection of cues, 2) interpretative inferences, 3) extended inferences, and 4) anticipatory set (Livesley & Bromley, 1973).

Selection of cues

When a person views another, the cues that he pays attention to will be subconsciously selected on the basis of either personal salience or intensity of stimulation. Noticing those stimuli which are salient while ignoring others is known as selective attention (Shaver, 1941).

All people approach interaction situations with individualistic needs: a need to support their personal views, a need to maximize positive social responses, a need for information about the environment, etc. A person's inferential set is selective attention to those cues that are most salient or relevant to the needs of that person (Jones & Thibaut, 1958). During the impression formation process the mind is tuned or "set" to receive and process information that is most relevant to the viewer's own needs. Inferential sets, like personal needs, vary from person to person.

The goals and the needs of the perceiver determine which set will be dominant at any given time, and will thereby influence cue awareness. Given the potential for

different inferential sets, when two people view an identical situation, each person can observe different cues and form a different perception (Jones and Thibaut, 1958).

Interpretative inferences

After the viewer has noticed the cues that will be used to form an impression, symbolic meanings are then assigned to the observed cues. These symbolic meanings are interpretative inferences.

Extended inferences

After interpretative inferences have been established, the viewer will project from the symbolic meanings assigned to the observed cues, to one of a number of assumed clusters of traits and characteristics. These clusters are known as implicit personality theories. Implicit personality theories help people organize their thoughts about other people, and to classify them into expected stereotypes (Wegner & Vallacher, 1977). For example, a viewer may see a man in a suit and attribute the suit to a business lifestyle (i.e. interpretative inferences). The viewer may then assume the presence of other traits which he, the viewer, idiosyncratically believes to be associated with a business lifestyle, such as hard-working or intelligent (i.e. extended inferences). Socialization and past experiences determine what traits are clustered in the mind of the viewer, and therefore are expected from his subject.

Anticipatory set

After forming both interpretative inferences and extended inferences, the viewer moves to the final step of impression formation, the anticipatory set. Based on the meanings assigned to the cues and subsequent interpretations of the situation, the viewer decides if and how he will interact with the observed person, and prepares himself accordingly.

Theoretical Relationship Between Non-Verbal Communication and Social Comparison

Non-verbal communication (the use of impression management and impression formation) is used not only when interacting with others, but is also used when shaping self-impressions. Because social comparison is the evaluation of the self in comparison to others based on a cultural ideal, the self can manipulate both verbal and nonverbal cues to conform to the cultural ideal through makeup, clothing, etc. This use of impression management can help the self create a more positive self-evaluation during social comparison, thus creating a more positive self-concept.

During social comparison, the self assigns meaning to observed cues associated with the self and others and makes comparative attributions that will subsequently influence the self-concept. The self is the impression manager of the self's appearance (encoder) and the impression evaluator of the self and others' appearances (decoder). The self

manipulates self-appearance or actions (encoding) and then the self perceives the encoded self in relation to others and evaluates the self (decoding) based on these perceptions. Finally, based on this self attribution, as well as attributions assigned to others, the self gets ready to act (anticipatory set). In this process it is important to note that both interpretative and extended inferences may play roles in social comparison. When viewing others and the self, interpretative meanings are attached to cues and those meanings may be used to draw up additional perceptions which also may be used in social comparison.

In summary, during the process of non-verbal communication the self presents impression managed cues and thus creates the potential for a corresponding impression to be formed by others and by the self. The outcomes of these formations are then communicated back to the self in terms of responses from others and responses from the self. However, insider information serves as a filter to alleviate the impact of negative responses on the self-concept (Figure 1).

Social Comparison Research

The formation of self-concept begins in infancy and continues to develop through the course of a lifetime. A strong influence on a self-concept is social comparison: evaluating the self in relation to others and determining how the self measures up, positively or negatively (Festinger, 1954). Because social comparison involves

viewing both the self and others, the opinion a person has of himself at any point in time is dependent on his simultaneous views of others in that particular situation (Gergen, 1965; Videbeck, 1960).

In 1954, Festinger developed a theory of the self-evaluation process, which included the concepts of social comparison and self-concept. Festinger believed that people have a need to evaluate their own abilities and opinions. Festinger theorized that people first attempt to evaluate their abilities and opinions using objective means. If, however, objective means are not available, people will evaluate themselves through social others. An important point of his theoretical explanation dealt with the choice of others when social comparison occurs. Festinger theorized that when a person chooses a social other for comparison it will be someone of similar abilities and opinions. He further theorized that if it is not possible to compare with someone similar, then an accurate self-evaluation will not occur. Festinger subsequently suggested that when a discrepancy occurs between an opinion of self and opinions of social others, there is a tendency to change positions to be closer to others in the group or to change others to bring them closer to oneself. Festinger never tested for each of these ideas specifically, but based these theoretical conclusions on previous research. As Singer (1966) noted, "Most of the data Festinger used to illustrate this theory were reinterpreted--plausible, but not unequivocal" (p. 104).

It should be noted that the theoretical suggestion that a person must have a similar social other to provide an accurate self-evaluation has been argued. For example, Latane (1966) believed that a beginner in a particular field might compare himself to a master in that field to see what needs to be achieved for advancement. Other researchers have addressed Festinger's idea that similar others are needed for an accurate self-evaluation to occur. Results both for and against this hypothesis were provided by the following research investigations.

In their 1954 study (published in the same issue of Human Relations as Festinger's initial study) Hoffman, Festinger, and Lawrence reported research that revealed social comparison, expressed through competition, stops when a difference is perceived with the social other. The research subjects were divided into two groups. The researchers told one group of subjects that they were all of the same intelligence. The other group of subjects were told that some group members were of superior intelligence; told in such a way that none of the subjects thought he was among those of superior intelligence. The subjects were then encouraged to participate in a bargaining task to win points. The results indicated that those subjects in the group of same intelligence continued to bargain and score points even when some in the group scored considerably higher than other subjects. However, when the subjects in the second group were told that some group members were of superior intelligence they competed less and thus scored

fewer points. These results were perceived to be consistent with Festinger's theory, which stated that comparison activities (here revealed through willingness to compete) will be avoided when there is a perceived difference with a social other.

In another study, Dreyer (1954) found some support for Festinger's hypothesis that individuals are unable to make an accurate self-evaluation when only differing social others are available for comparison. His results also showed that people are most pleased with themselves when they see themselves as similar to others. Subjects were given feedback as to their performance in a specific area. They were told if they had done better, worse, or about the same as their reference group. The subjects were then asked how satisfied they were with their performance. The results showed that the subjects were more satisfied with their performance when it was comparable to, or conformed with, that of their reference group.

Fazio, Effrein, & Falender (1981) and Riggs, Monarch, Ogburn, & Pahides (1983) tested shifts in self-perception triggered by observation of a manipulator's behavior. Both studies were executed so that either introverted or extroverted responses were elicited from the subjects by a confederate who in turn showed introverted or extroverted behavior. An example of an extroverted confederate prompting for an extroverted response would be the question "What would you do to liven up a party?" An example of an introverted confederate prompting for an introverted

response would be the question "What do you dislike about loud parties?". The results of both investigations showed that those persons manipulated into giving the extroverted responses by extroverted confederates in turn perceived themselves as more extroverted, while the opposite was true for persons prompted into giving introverted responses by introverted confederates. These results confirmed the hypothesis that manipulative behavior toward a target can influence that target's self-perception, and highlighted Festinger's theory that a person will change to become more like the social other in the comparison situation. Changes in self-perception may be caused by an introverted or extroverted personality of the social other in the interaction situation. The subjects may have conformed to the introverted or extroverted characteristics of the confederate during the interaction due to the social comparison process, and thus perceived themselves as more extroverted or introverted. These results support Dryer's suggestion that conformity is the desired outcome of social comparison.

Rogers, Smith & Coleman (1978) hypothesized that the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement is shown most clearly within the setting of specific social comparison groups or classrooms. They predicted and found that improvement in self-concept and academic achievement were positively related and that social comparison with immediate peer-groups had a strong influence upon this relationship. When the young students were placed into low,

medium, or high academic achievement groups (based on math and reading achievement) within their classroom, there was a significant positive relationship between self-concept and subsequent academic achievement. However, when students were treated as one whole class the relationship between academic achievement and self-concept was not significant. The researchers concluded that the relationship between academic achievement and self-concept depended on the students having similar others to compare with, and with whom they felt "comfortable". This conclusion, once again supports Dreyer's suggestion that conformity is a desired result of social comparison. It also lends support to Festinger's conclusions, that groups available to the individual would need to be appropriate for a relevant comparison to occur.

Kulik & Kulik (1982) summarized and compared previous research concerning the outcomes of situations in which students were grouped according to their ability level. Contrasting Rogers et al. (1978), this meta-analysis suggested the effect of grouping by ability on self-concept to be a trivial one. However, when replying to Kulik and Kulik (1982), Marsh (1984) demonstrated that ability grouping can have substantial effects on self-concept. He studied school-age children in both high and low ability groups. Their self-concepts were measured by the Self Descriptive Questionnaire which distinguishes among four areas of nonacademic self-concept and three areas of academic self-concept. It was found that academic

self-concepts depended on student's ability and ability groupings; being in a higher ability grouping resulted in a substantially less positive level of academic self-concept. On the other hand, ability groupings and academic ability had no significant relationship with nonacademic self-concept. This, again, supports Festinger's theory that comparison needs to be with a social other of similar ability in order for an accurate self-evaluation to occur, and Dryer's ideas about conformity.

Conflicting with Dreyer's ideas about conformity, Morse & Gergen (1970) found that the effects of social comparison upon self-concept can be either positive or negative depending upon the social other in the comparison situation. In this study, subjects briefly encountered either an individual who was socially desirable (Mr. Clean, wearing a dark suit, well groomed and appearing self-confident) or socially undesirable (Mr. Dirty, wearing a smelly sweatshirt, ripped trousers, and seemingly dazed throughout the encounter). The subjects met Mr. Clean or Mr. Dirty while filling out summer employment applications for the same job. It was hypothesized that those encountering the desirable person would experience a decrease in self-concept while those meeting the undesirable person would have an increase in self-concept. As part of the employment application, Morse & Gergen administered the revised edition of the Coopersmith (1959) self-esteem inventory. The results indicated that casual exposure was enough to produce a significant effect on self-concept. More specifically,

the presence of someone with desirable qualities produced a decrease in positiveness of self-perception while the opposite was true for someone with undesirable qualities. This study lent support to the suggestion that self-concepts are not stable and change with given situations. However, contrary to previously mentioned investigations, subjects' self-perceptions did not change toward greater conformity with the given stimulus.

Children internalize social ideals at a very early age and therefore can begin the social comparison process at an early age. The nature of these comparisons can influence developing self-concepts. After studying previous research on elementary school-aged children, Veroff (1969) theorized that boys and girls learn to deal with social comparison differently. Boys master autonomous strivings earlier in life but then rely on social comparison during the elementary years. This reliance on social comparison lowers their autonomy during the grade school years. Eventually, however, they achieve a balance and are able to integrate both autonomy and social comparison successfully. In contrast, Veroff believed that girls start out with less autonomy but once they reach school age they are pressured into autonomous behavior. Due to their weaker underpinnings for autonomy, they are rarely successful in achieving a balance and ultimately rely on social comparison to compensate for their achievement behaviors.

There are, however, research results concerning whether boys or girls develop greater gender interest in social

comparison and which gender is more receptive to the comparison process, which conflict with Veroff's ideas. Some research supports that boys develop a greater inclination in the social comparison process (Santrock, Smith, & Bourbeau, 1976; Spear & Armstrong, 1978). Other studies suggest girls rely more upon social comparison (Masters, 1968, 1969, 1973), and still others find no significant gender differences (Feldman & Ruble, 1977; France-Kaatrude & Smith, 1985). The discrepancies in these findings may be explained by two factors: the varying dependent measures and the situational diversity in which social comparisons were operationalized in the various studies.

In summary, previous investigations into the role of social comparison in self-concept formation have suggested that people are socialized to use social comparison at a very early age and that the type of socialized reliance upon social comparison may differ with the genders. Through social comparison, self-concepts are subject to change and thus may be dependent on the social other in a particular situation. Several studies have suggested that the individual is most motivated to compare the self to others who are perceived as similar in opinion and ability. This desire to compare with others who are similar suggests that the emotional security accruing from conformity or "fitting in" may be a possible desired outcome of social comparison. People have a need to belong (Maslow, 1943), and by conforming or being like others they are thus assured of

their acceptability. However, there is some evidence which indicates that when faced with others who are different, a person's self-concept can change either positively or negatively depending upon 1) if that person views the social other to be more positive or negative than the self, and 2) if the situation or other is relevant or significant to the individual. Therefore, the self-concept of an individual can be altered by the social other in an interaction situation, in relation to the relevancy of the evaluation criteria to the individual. Unstudied by previous research is the role of nonverbal clothing symbolism in situations of social comparison, and the potential for self-concept change upon the basis of the physical appearance of another. Only Morse and Gergen used appearance as a social comparison stimulus, in which case it was found that self-concepts are not stable and can change in a positive or negative manner depending on the social other in the comparison situation.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purposes of this study were to determine attitudes toward designer-labeled clothing and to test if those attitudes influenced the impact of social comparison upon self-concept in a situation of clothing manipulation. To achieve this goal the following three objectives were prepared:

1. to determine attitudes toward and recognition of designer labeled clothing,¹
2. to determine if designer labeled clothing, when worn by another, influenced a change in self-concept, and
3. to determine if a relationship existed between attitudes toward designer labeled clothing and changes in self-concept in situations of designer labeled clothing being worn by another.

Instrumentation

A pretest was administered to the subjects, which consisted of a cover sheet (on which the subjects wrote

¹ Attitudes and recognition were measured to determine, in part, the salience of designer-labeled clothing to the subject. As noted in previous studies, relevancy was an important component in social comparison, and is also important to cue observation in the nonverbal communication process.

their name, student number, and telephone number), a consent form, a designer label recognition scale, four pages of designer label attitudinal scales featuring one picture per page, and a Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (See Appendix A and B). Instructions were clearly typed on each page. A post-test consisted of readministration of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale.

The designer label recognition measure was used to assess the extent to which the subjects were familiar with the names of various fashion designers. The measure consisted of 15 names, three of which were pseudonyms, and the subjects rated the amount of recognition they had for each name (3 = definite recognition, 2 = vague recognition, and 1 = no recognition). This measure identified those designer labels which the subjects were most familiar with, thus enabling the use of highly recognizable designer labels during the experimental phase of the study.

To determine attitudes toward designer labeled clothing, the subjects were given semantic differential scales, 14 of which were composed by Sherwood (1975), and 6 of which were added by the researcher. (The Sherwood scale showed a reliability rating of .82 in previous tests.) Each of the twenty scales was printed below each of four pictures, featuring one picture per page (a non-labeled sport shirt, a Ralph Lauren labeled sport shirt, a non-labeled handbag, and a Dooney & Bourke labeled handbag). The subjects used these semantic differential scales to describe how they would perceive a person wearing the

clothing and how they perceived the clothing itself.

To assess the self-concept of the subjects, the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) was administered. The TSCS provided standardized scores consisting of Total Self-Concept, Self-Criticism, and 5 sub-scores (physical-self, moral/ethical-self, personal-self, family-self, social-self).

The post-test consisted of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. This instrument was re-administered to each subject after she was exposed to the stimulus of designer or non-designer labeled clothing, in order to assess if there was a change in the subject's self-concept.

Subjects

In Phase I of the study, 97 undergraduate women enrolled 8 sections of English Composition at Oklahoma State University were administered the pretest consisting of a self-concept test, designer label recognition scale, and designer label attitudinal scale. For Phase II, the experimental phase, attempts were made to contact all 97 of the respondents. However, only 63 subjects were successfully contacted for scheduling Phase II participation, due to unanswered telephones, and conflicting schedules. Of these 63 subjects, 23 had high self-concept scores (above the standardized mean of 347) and 39 had low self-concept scores (below the standardized mean of 347) and 1 subject scored exactly at the standardized mean of 347.

Procedure

The entire project was operationalized under the blind cover of research conducted in cooperation with several well known catalogue companies. Talbots, Carroll Reed, Tweeds, Eddie Bauer, The Brownstone Collection and J. Crew were asked to donate catalogues to be given to each subject. The English instructors who administered the pretest explained to the subjects that the study was being sponsored by several well known catalogue companies and these companies wanted to know the shopping habits of college aged women.

The pretest was administered by instructors in 8 sections of English Composition (Phase I). The subjects were informed that there was a possibility that they might be contacted further by the researcher for a follow up interview. After the administration of the pretest, the researcher calculated the self-concept scores of the subjects. After four days had passed, the subjects were contacted to set up interview times which occurred 10 to 20 working days after the students completed the pretest. When talking with the subjects it was stressed how interesting that particular subject's responses were, resulting in the desire to meet and further discuss their attitudes about clothes and their shopping habits. Attempts were made to contact all 97 of the female students that took the pretest, of which 63 were reached. Of these 63 only 3 refused to set up an appointment for an interview. Of the remaining 60, 23 had high self-concepts (a score above 347) 1 scored at

exactly 347, and 36 had low self-concepts (a score below 347).

To insure that the subjects did not forget their appointments, each was phoned the night before her interview to remind her of the appointment. If the subject had developed a schedule conflict, a new appointment was set up at that time. The interviews were held in an interview room in the Student Union of Oklahoma State University. This room was a very plain, small room with a desk, three chairs and a window.

Subjects were randomly allowed to select their appointment time, and then arbitrarily, the first 25 interviews were considered the control group and the second 25 were considered the experimental group, resulting in a final sample size of 50 subjects. To the control group interviews (12 subjects with high self-concepts, 13 subjects with low self-concepts) the researcher wore a plain, non-labeled dress and positioned a satchel handbag with no visible label on the desk. To the experimental group interviews (8 subjects with high self-concepts, 17 subjects with low self-concepts) the researcher wore the same dress only with a designer label (Christian Dior) professionally embroidered on the bodice of the dress. The satchel handbag was positioned on the desk so that it prominently displayed its Dooney and Bourke label in two places.

During each interview the researcher asked the subject questions listed on a questionnaire positioned in front of the researcher. These questions pertained to catalogue

shopping and other shopping habits of the subjects (See Appendix C). Next, the subject was asked to fill out a second (post-test) Tennessee Self-Concept Scale in the presence of the researcher. After the completion of this Scale the subject was thanked for her participation and she was given complimentary catalogues at that time. This process was repeated for each subject, and took about 22 minutes.

Analysis

To determine the subjects' attitudes toward designer labeled clothing, attitudinal scores were calculated individually for the labeled vs. the nonlabeled shirts and handbags. The mathematical difference between the labeled versus nonlabeled item scores was then calculated as a representation of the degree difference in attitudes stimulated by the presence of a label. This score enabled the researcher to determine the attitudinal change prompted by the presence of the designer label, in comparison to the garment or accessory without the label.

Factor Analysis was used to determine the major factors within the designer label attitudinal scale. Chi-Square Contingency Analysis was also used to determine the relationship between the stimulus pictures and person/object traits, as delineated by each of the semantic differential pairs.

The responses to the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale were hand scored according to the standardized directions. Each

of the five subscore's answers were added up, resulting in five total subscores, these five scores were then added together, resulting in a Total self-concept score. A two-group independent T-test design was used to compare control and experimental responses on the pre and post tests, to determine if observed changes in self-concept (dependent variable) could be attributed to exposure to designer labels (independent variable). A two-group independent T-test was used to compare changes in self-concept of persons initially scoring high or lo on the TSCS, to determine if the nature of self-concept impacted upon the influences of social comparison.

A Pearson-Product Moment Correlation was used to determine if a correlation existed between overall attitude toward designer labels and the degree of observed difference between pre and post self-concept scores.

CHAPTER IV

MANUSCRIPT I

The Effects of Designer Labeled
Clothing on Self-Concept, in
Situations of Social
Comparison

Abstract

In previous studies social comparison has been found to influence self-concept. The role of nonverbal symbolism (designer labeled clothing) was examined in its relationship to self-concept, in situations of social comparison. The results suggested that subjects did perceive designer labeled clothing more positively than the non-labeled counterparts. While experimental subjects did experience a change in self-concept, after an interaction situation, it could not be conclusively correlated with their attitudes toward designer labeled clothing. Findings suggest that the changes may have occurred due to favorable attention displayed to the subjects by the researcher.

The Effects of Designer Labeled Clothing on
Self-Concept, in Situations of Social Comparison

A self-concept is a person's sense of self, the image a person holds of himself at any given point in time. A self-concept is made up of perceptions of external factors, such as one's physical features, and perceptions of internal factors such as one's values, likes and dislikes, talents, etc. (Kaiser, 1985). A self-concept is influenced by social responses from others, self-evaluation of internal cues, and social comparison of the self with others (Mead, 1934; Schlenker, 1980; Kaiser, 1985; Festinger, 1954).

Social responses are reactions to the self by social others (Mead, 1934; Schlenker, 1980). The process by which a person forms a self-concept based on the responses of others is referred to as self-indication (Mead, 1934; Blumer, 1969). Evaluation of internal cues is the use of insider information as a filter for evaluating and legitimizing incoming information about the self (Kaiser, 1985).

Social comparison, the third factor in self-concept formation and the focus of this paper, is the use of cultural ideals to evaluate the self in relation to others. Social comparison contributes to the subsequent formation of a positive or negative self-evaluation (Festinger, 1954). Social comparison relies in part upon the nonverbal communication aspects of impression management and impression formation, in which the self decodes and compares

the nonverbal cues of both the self and others. Self-impressions can change from situation to situation depending on the characteristics of the social other in the comparison situation (Suls, 1977).

In 1954, Festinger developed a full-scale theory of the self-evaluation process, which included the concepts of social comparison and self-concept. He theorized that people have a basic need to evaluate their own abilities and opinions, and will do so through comparison with a social other.

A number of research investigations have addressed components of Festinger's ideas about social comparison. For example, Hoffman, Festinger, and Lawrence (1954) observed that social comparison stops when a difference is perceived with the social other. Dreyer (1954), Fazio, Effrein, & Falender (1981), and Riggs, Monarch, Ogburn, & Pahides (1983) found that individuals are unable to make accurate self-evaluations when only differing social others are available. The results of these studies suggest that people may be motivated to engage in social comparison in order to reassure themselves of acceptability to others, or to conform to the social other in the comparison situation.

On the other hand, Morse & Gergen (1970) found that social comparison can cause either positive or negative changes in the self-concept depending solely upon the social other in the comparison situation. These results contradict the idea that social comparison is only instrumental for reassurance of similarity with others and suggest that

social comparison may play a dynamic role in the shaping of self-concept.

Largely unstudied by previous research is the role of nonverbal clothing symbolism in situations of social comparison, and the potential for self-concept change. Only Morse and Gergen (1970) found the effects of social comparison to be influenced by the visual appearance of a social other in a comparison situation. It was the purpose of this study to further investigate the role of clothing upon self-concept in situations of social comparison. More specifically, the investigation was designed to: 1) determine attitudes toward and recognition of designer labeled clothing, 2) determine if designer labeled clothing, when worn by another, influenced a change in self-concept, and 3) determine if a relationship existed between attitudes toward designer labeled clothing and changes in self-concept in situations of designer labeled clothing being worn by another.

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

A convenience sample of 50 undergraduate female students participated in the study. Subjects were recruited from 97 students who participated in the pretest portion of the study. These individuals were enrolled in introductory English courses and voluntarily agreed to participate. Subject's ages ranged from 17 to 30 with a mean age of 19 years.

Instrumentation: Pretest

The pretest consisted of: 1) a designer label recognition scale, 2) two pairs of designer label attitudinal scales featuring two shirts and two handbags, and 3) a Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS).

The designer label recognition scale was used to assess the extent to which the subjects recognized the names of various fashion designers. This measure identified those designer labels with which the subjects were most familiar, thus enabling the use of highly recognizable designer labels during the experimental phase.

The designer label attitudinal scale consisted of 20 semantic differential scales, 14 of which were composed by Sherwood (1975), and the remaining 6 which were developed and added by the researcher. Previous studies have shown that cue attention focuses on relevant aspects of a situation. These scales helped determine the relevancy or salience of designer labels to the subjects.

This attitudinal instrument featured one garment picture per page with the scales listed beneath each picture. Featured on each page were one of the following: a non-labeled sport shirt, a Ralph Lauren labeled sport shirt, a non-labeled handbag, and a Dooney & Bourke labeled handbag. Using the semantic differential scales, the subjects described how they would perceive a person wearing the illustrated clothing (person perception) and how they perceived the illustrated garment itself (object

perception). The TSCS provided a standardized total self-concept score and five self-concept factor scores, plus a self-criticism score. For the purposes of this study only the five factor scores and the total self-concept score were analyzed. The self-criticism score measured a separate construct, not directly relevant to the purposes of this investigation, and therefore as not included in the analysis.

Instrumentation: Post-test

The post-test was a re-administration of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS), in the presence of the researcher, following the subjects' exposure to the stimulus of designer labeled or nonlabeled clothing.

Procedure

The entire research project was conducted under the blind cover of a study of college students' clothing shopping preferences. The subjects were informed that several well-known catalogue companies were seeking consumer information from college aged women, and the subjects voluntarily participated in the study based on that premise. The pretest was administered by instructors in 8 sections of English Composition. Four days after the completion of the pretest, the subjects were contacted to set up interview times which would occur 10 to 20 working days after the students took the pretest. The subjects were allowed to randomly select their interview dates and times. The first

50 to complete the interview (post-test portion of the study) comprised the statistical sample.

The interviews were held in an interview room in the Student Union on the campus of a large midwestern university. To the interviews with the control group subjects, the researcher wore a plain, non-labeled dress and positioned a satchel handbag with no visible label on the desk. To the experimental group interviews the researcher wore the same dress only with a Christian Dior designer label professionally embroidered on the upper left bodice of the dress. A satchel handbag was positioned on the desk so that it prominently displayed a Dooney and Bourke label in two places. During the interview the researcher asked questions pertaining to the blind cover of the catalogue research, after which each subject was asked to complete a second (post-test) TSCS in the presence of the researcher. Each individual interview took approximately 22 minutes.

Results: Objective 1

The first objective of the study was to determine recognition of and attitudes toward designer labeled clothing. The results of the designer labeled recognition scale revealed that Calvin Klein, Ralph Lauren, Christian Dior, and Oscar de la Renta were the designer names with which the subjects' were most familiar (See Table 1). Christian Dior was chosen due to its high recognition value and compatibility with the style of clothing to be worn by the researcher.

TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

By computing the mean scores for each semantic differential pair on the designer label attitudinal test (1=negative, 3=neutral, and 5=positive) and then subtracting the non-labeled score from the labeled score, attitudes as affected by the presence of a label were tabulated. (For example, if a subject scored 4 for the designer labeled scale for self-confident/lacks self-confidence, and then scored 1 for the unlabeled counterpart, the attitude difference as affected by the presence of a label would be 3.)

For Person Perception attitudes (how the subject perceived a person wearing the illustrated clothing), the results showed the total sample had a combined mean attitude of 3.61 for the designer labeled garments and 3.54 for the unlabeled garments, resulting in a mean differentiation score of .07 ($t = 1.153$, $p = .254$).

For Object Perception attitudes (how the subject perceived the illustrated garment itself), the results showed the total sample had a combined mean attitude of 4.10 for the designer labeled garments and 2.98 for the unlabeled garments, resulting in a mean differentiation score of 1.12 ($t = 10.009$ $p = .001$) See Table 2.

TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE

A Principle Components Factor Analysis with Verimax rotation was computed on the designer label attitudinal scale. This was a preliminary analysis and it was recognized that the sampling did not meet formal standards. The sample was, however, sufficient for performing the empirical factor analysis, to reveal tentative speculations. The factor analysis disclosed four factors for Person Perception: Upstanding, Assertive, Patient, and Sociable. Four factors were also revealed for Object Perception: Status, Maintenance, Worth, and Reputation (See Table 3).

TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE

The mean score per factor for the labeled garments minus the mean score per factor non-labeled garments resulted in an overall attitude per factor as effected by the presence of a designer label. The results for the overall population for the (Person Perception) factors of Upstanding and Patient showed a more negative attitudinal perception of a person wearing a designer labeled garment versus a person wearing a non-labeled garment. The factors Assertive and Sociable, both showed a more positive attitudinal perception of a wearer of designer labeled garments versus the wearer of non-labeled garments (See Table 4).

The four factor means for Object Perception were calculated in the same manner and resulted in a more

positive attitudinal perception of labeled over non-labeled garments for the factors Status, Worth, and Reputation. The factor Maintenance resulted in a more negative perception of labeled garments (See Table 4).

TABLE 4 ABOUT HERE

For the total sample, the mean scores per semantic pair were calculated for labeled vs unlabeled garments. The Person Perception results revealed the highest positive change in attitude (upon the basis of the addition of the designer label) to be for fashionable-unfashionable (+29). Other noteworthy positive changes were found for competitive-cooperative (+28%); enthusiastic-unenthusiastic (+17%); leader-follower (+16%); and self-confident-lacks self-confidence (+14%). The highest negative change in Person Perception attitude (based upon the addition of a designer label) was found for tolerant of others-critical of others (-37%). Other negative changes were observed for calm-anxious (-10%); moral-immoral (-8%); and useful-useless (-5%).

The mean results for each of the Object Perception semantic pairs showed the greatest positive change in attitude (with the addition of a designer label) expensive-inexpensive (+47%). Other notable positive changes were found for prestigious-common (+36%); fashionable-unfashionable (+32%); and high quality-low quality, (+33%).

The only negative change in attitude was found for easy to care for-hard to care for (-4%).

Chi Square Contingency analysis was employed to test the degree to which the presence of designer labels significantly influenced the responses to specific semantic pairs within the designer label attitudinal test. For the purpose of analysis, responses were grouped according to the number of subjects choosing a negative attitude score of (1 and 2), a neutral attitude (3), and a positive attitude (4 and 5), for each semantic pair. The results of the Chi Square suggested that for Person Perception, only the responses on enthusiastic-unenthusiastic, tolerant of others-critical of others, and fashionable-unfashionable were significantly associated with the presence or absence of a designer label ($p = .01$). For Object Perception, all responses except good value-poor value were significantly associated with the presence or absence of a designer label ($p = .01$).

RESULTS: Objective Two

The second objective of the study was to determine if designer labeled clothing, when worn by another, influenced a change in self-concept. An Independent T-Test compared the differences between pre-test and post-test Total self-concept scores for the two groups: control and experimental. The results of the control group showed a t-score of 2.17087 ($p < .05$) representing positive self-concept changes as evidenced by pre and post-test Total TSCS scores. A t-

score of 2.214 for the experimental group also represented a positive change in pre and post-test Total TSCS score ($p < .05$).

The average difference between the pre and post-test Total self-concept scores for the control group was 9.64. The average difference between the pre and post-test Total self-concept for the experimental group was 5.87. A T-test was calculated using these average differences. The results suggested the changes in Total self-concept scores between Control and Experimental groups were statistically different, $t = 2.011$ (significant at .01) Although both groups' Total self-concepts changed in a positive direction, the changes in the control group were significantly more positive than the changes in the experimental group. A T-test was performed to determine if this greater increase in the control group could be attributed to the differential number of subject with high and low self-concepts in the two groups. The tests showed no significant difference in self-concept change between the subjects with initially high versus low self-concept scores.

Self-concept factor t-tests results suggested that two of the five component sub-scores of the control group self-concept underwent positive changes from pre-test to post-test: personal self-concept and family self-concept ($p < .05$). No significant changes were found in the five pre-test and post-test component sub-scores for the experimental group.

RESULTS: Objective Three

The third and final objective of this study was to determine if a relationship existed between attitudes toward designer labeled clothing and changes in self-concept, in situations of designer labeled clothing being worn by another. Several Pearson Product Moment Correlations were used to test for correlation in the following: 1) overall Person Perception attitude and changes in total self-concept scores, 2) overall Object Perception attitude and changes in total self-concept scores, 3) overall Person Perception attitude and changes in component sub-scores of self-concept, 4) overall Object Perception attitude and changes in component sub-scores of self-concept, 5) Person Perception attitudinal factors and changes in total self-concept, 6) Object Perception attitudinal factors and changes in total self-concept, 7) Person Perception attitudinal factors and changes in self-concept factor scores, and 8) Object Perception attitudinal factors and changes in self-concept factor scores.

The results revealed no significant correlation between overall attitudes towards a person wearing designer vs. non-labeled garments (Person Perception) and changes in total self-concept ($r = -.115$, $p = .428$). Similarly, no significant correlation was found between overall attitude toward designer apparel (Object Perception) and changes in total self-concept ($r = .196$, $p = .172$). No significant

correlations were found between Person Perception or Object Perception and changes in self-concept factor scores.

The tests for relationship between individual attitudinal factors for Person Perception and changes in total self concept revealed no significant correlations. The results also revealed no significant correlations between changes in total self-concept and any of the four Object Perception factors.

When the tests for relationship between Person Perception attitudinal factors and changes in self-concept factor scores were calculated they revealed no significant correlations between self-concept factors and the four attitudinal factors: Upstanding, Assertive, and Sociable, and Patient.

The tests for relationship between Object Perception attitudinal factors and changes in self-concept factor scores revealed no significant correlation between changes in self-concept factors and the Object Perception factors of Status and Reputation. However, a negative correlation was found between the Object Perception factor of Maintenance and Family self-concept ($r = -.077$, $p = .007$). This negative correlation suggests that as the subjects' perception of designer garments being "easy to care for" became more positive, the subjects' perception of their Family self concept became less positive. Significant positive correlations were found between the Object Perception factor of Worth and Personal self-concept ($r = .402$, $p = .004$), Family self-concept ($r = .328$, $p = .020$), and Social self-

concept ($r = .469$, $p = .001$). These results suggest that as the subjects' perceptions of the designer garments as being of "good value" increased, their perceptions of their Personal self-concept, Family self-concept, and Social self-concept became more positive.

Discussion

The first hypothesis of this study suggested that the subjects would have positive attitudes toward designer labeled clothing. The results of the designer label attitudinal test revealed that overall, the subjects did not differentiate in their perception of a wearer of designer labeled garments versus nonlabeled garments. However, a large differentiation was present for the perception of the garments themselves. The subjects perceived the designer labeled garments themselves more positively than their nonlabeled counterparts.

The second hypothesis stated that subjects experiencing a confederate wearing designer labeled clothing would evidence a decrease in self-concept. The results concerning this hypothesis revealed the opposite. Both groups, control and experimental, experienced an increase in total self-concept. These positive changes in self-concept do lend support to Suls (1977) study which revealed that self-concepts are not stable. The observed positive changes may have been due to the fact that subjects had a positive reaction to attention from the researcher, both with and without the designer labels, thus perceiving themselves in a

more positive manner and experiencing a positive increase in self-concept. The simple fact that the researcher had shown positive interest in the subjects, by inviting them to an interview to discuss their "interesting results" from their pretest, may have served as an intervening influence on self-concept. If the subjects used these positive cues given by the researcher to evaluate themselves, it is only natural that they would see themselves as "interesting", thereby enhancing their self-concept.

On the other hand, the changes in self-concept were not equal between the control and experimental groups. The positive change in self-concept was greater in the control group. This could be attributed to partial influence from the presence or absence of designer clothing worn by the experimenter, in combination with influences from the positive reinforcement being sent from the researcher. When the experimental subjects were confronted with a situation where they perceived themselves as "interesting", yet comparatively lacking the positive attributes associated with designer labeled apparel, their self-concepts rose, but not as much as control subjects, who were in a positive situation without the potentially negative stimuli stemming from the possible absence of traits associated with designer labeled clothing. In other words, the presence of designer labeled clothing may have mediated, slightly, the positive impact of the social attention given to subjects by the researcher, but represented a weaker cue than the said attention.

The effects expected in hypothesis three were offset by the results of little or no correlation between attitudes toward designer labeled clothing and changes in self-concept. This lack of correlation revealed that most of the subjects' attitudinal perceptions and self-concept scores were independent and had little effect or relationship on each other. One exception to this was the inverse relationship between the perception of caring for the garments and the subjects' Family self-concepts. As the garment itself was perceived as easier to care for, the subjects' Family self-concepts became more negative. The other exceptions to this were the positive relationships noted between perceptions of designer labeled garments as good values and Personal self-concept, Family self-concept and Social self-concept scores. Although the results of this study did not support the original hypotheses, they suggest as well as reinforce several ideas. These results supported the suggestion that modern society does have an appreciation for symbols of monetary success, such as designer labeled clothing. Although the subjects in this study did not perceive persons wearing designer labeled clothing as statistically different than those wearing non-labeled clothing, they did perceive the designer garments themselves more positively than their nonlabeled counterparts. Also supported was the theoretical concept that a self-concept is an aspect of a person which may change in varying social situations.

One influencing factor upon self-concept is feedback

from a social other. The subjects in this study received positive feedback from the researcher in terms of their "interesting results" and in turn, their self-concepts became more positive. However, this change was mediated somewhat when the researcher wore high status clothing. By using social comparison, the subjects evaluated themselves in terms of the communication cues presented by the researcher. Only part of this communication was designer labeled clothing, and the symbolic messages conveyed via that visual channel.

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TABLE 1

RESULTS OF DESIGNER LABEL RECOGNITION SCALE

DESIGNER	AVERAGE RECOGNITION SCORE
Calvin Klein	3.92
Ralph Lauren	3.84
Christian Dior	3.76
Oscar de la Renta	3.32
Bill Blass	3.28
Yves Saint Laurent	3.04
Perry Ellis	2.56
Geoffrey Beene	1.32
Guy Laroche	1.16
Donna Karen	.98
Karl Lagerfeld	.84
Emanuel Ungaro	.48

0 was assigned to Definitely Not Recognizing; 2 was assigned to Vaguely Recognizing; and 4 was assigned to Definitely Recognizing. The scores were then added for each designer for the total sample and the mean was taken, producing the Average Recognition Score.

TABLE 2

SAMPLE MEAN SCORES PER ITEM OBJECT PERCEPTION

ITEM	MEAN LABELED	MEAN UNLABELED	DIFFERENCE	% INCREASE DECREASE
Expensive/ Inexpensive	4.63	2.47	2.16	47% increase
Prestigious/ Common	4.07	2.40	1.67	36% increase
Fashionable/ Unfashionable	4.44	3.01	1.43	32% increase
High Quality/ Low Quality	4.46	2.83	1.45	33% increase
Good Value/ Poor Value	3.86	3.19	.67	17% increase
Easy Care/ Hard Care	3.56	3.71	-.15	4% decrease

TABLE 2 (CONT)

OBJECT PERCEPTION	FACTORS			
	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>
ITEM	STATUS	MAINTENANCE	WORTH	REPUTATION
Expensive	.88			
High Quality	.85			
Fashionable	.80			
Easy To Care For		.99		
Good Value			.94	
Prestige				.84
% Variance Explained	41.16	17.09	18.55	16.1
Factor loadings set at .60				

TABLE 3

FACTOR LOADINGS FOR PERSON PERCEPTION AND OBJECT PERCEPTION,
DESIGNER LABEL ATTITUDINAL TEST

PERSON PERCEPTION ITEM	FACTORS			
	1 UPSTANDING	2 ASSERTIVE	3 PATIENT	4 SOCIABLE
Honest	.81			
Intelligent	.80			
Moral	.77			
Useful	.74			
Able to do most things	.73			
Leader		.86		
Self-Confident		.79		
Satisfied		.73		
Competitive		.73		
Fashionable		.65		
Tolerant of others			.84	
Calm			.72	
Likeable				.76
Enthusiastic				.70
% Variance Explained	24.40	23.22	12.24	11.13
Factor loadings set at .60				

TABLE 4

SAMPLE MEAN SCORES PER FACTOR
AS EFFECTED BY THE PRESENCE OF DESIGNER LABELS

PERSON PERCEPTION

FACTOR	MEAN LABELED N = 50	MEAN UNLABELED N = 50	DIFFERENCE	% INCREASE/ DECREASE
Productive	3.50	3.57	-.07	2% decrease
Assertive	4.11	3.33	.78	19% increase
Patient	2.91	3.56	-.65	22% decrease
Sociable	3.85	3.54	.31	8% increase

OBJECT PERCEPTION

FACTOR	MEAN LABELED N = 50	MEAN UNLABELED N = 50	DIFFERENCE	% INCREASE/ DECREASE
Expensive	4.51	2.77	1.74	39% increase
Maintenance	3.56	3.71	-.15	4% decrease
Worth	3.86	3.19	.67	17% increase
Reputation	4.07	2.40	1.67	41% increase

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND RESEARCH

IMPLICATIONS

Summary of Findings

A self-concept is a person's sense of self; the image a person holds of himself at any given point in time. This self-concept or image is influenced by responses from others, insider information, and the measurement of the self in relation to others (using a cultural ideal), otherwise known as social comparison. In a social comparison situation, the self-impression may change from situation to situation, based upon characteristics of the social other. The present study examined the role of nonverbal clothing symbolism (designer labeled clothing) in situations of social comparison and its relation to changes in self-concept.

The first objective of the study was to determine recognition of and attitudes toward designer labeled clothing. The study found no significant difference in the perception of a person wearing labeled vs unlabeled clothing. However, the subjects did perceive designer labeled garments, themselves, more positively than their unlabeled counterparts.

The second objective of the study was to determine if

designer labeled clothing, when worn by another, influenced a change in self-concept. The results showed that both the control and the experimental groups experienced an increase in self-concept. Although both groups' self-concepts changed in a positive direction, the changes in the control group were significantly more positive than the changes in the experimental group. This finding is not related to the differential number of persons in control and experimental groups having initially high vs low self-concepts.

The third and final objective of this study was to determine if a relationship existed between attitudes toward designer labeled clothing and changes in self-concept. While subjects did experience a change in self-concept, it could not be conclusively correlated with their attitudes toward designer labeled clothing. It is more likely, that the changes occurred due to favorable attention displayed to the subjects by the researcher.

The self-concept is a complex, diverse, and ever changing aspect of a person. Although it has been studied extensively over many years there are still unknowns and uncertainties in the research. When researching a single aspect of a person's psyche, it is extremely difficult to narrow a result down to that specific aspect. So many subtle enhancing or conflicting stimuli are present within a single person, let alone an entire subject population, that it makes such research an inexact science.

Discussion

It is interesting to note that the results of this study confirm that one person's actions do indeed have significant effects on others. Self-concepts are ever changing, and positive attention by a social other can result in a positive change in self-concept. In the present study, however, it was found that the subjects did have positive attitudes toward designer labeled clothing, and it was therefore considered salient to the subjects. When the subjects were faced with a situation where they perceived themselves as possibly lacking the positive attributes associated with designer labeled clothing, they did not experience as positive an increase in their self-concepts, as those subjects experiencing only the positive attention. When the symbolic messages (associated with designer apparel) were conveyed via a visual channel they may have lessened the impact of the positive attention from the researcher. This mediation could have resulted in the less positive change in self-concept evidenced by experimental subjects.

Recommendations for Further Study

The self-concept is influenced by three major factors: responses from others, insider information, and social comparison (see Figure 1). Social comparison uses cultural ideals to evaluate one's self in relation to others and can result in a positive or negative self-impression. In this

study, subjects evaluated themselves in terms of the communication cues presented by the researcher. Only part of this communication was designer labeled clothing, and the symbolic messages conveyed via that visual channel.

In order to determine the impact that apparel alone has on self-concept, personal effects would have to be minimized in a study. It would be difficult to delete them entirely, due to the fact that just asking someone to participate in a study would require some form of personal contact. The effects could be minimized, however, by not singling out specific people to participate in a study. By using an entire group, such as an organizational membership, subjects would possibly feel less "special" and more part of a whole. Another option would be to make the subjects feel they were chosen entirely at random. By going to a busy building and choosing every third person, the effect of that person being singled out as special would possibly be minimized.

In terms of displaying the apparel items of research for the subjects' reactions, clothing could be displayed on mannequins, or photographs could be used to show garments to the subjects. However, these methods would require subjects to think about how they would react to a person wearing such clothing instead of measuring how they did react when a person actually wore the clothing, reducing reliability.

Studies such as the present one can be timely measures of the zeitgeist of a particular culture, in relation to popular beliefs and attitudes. Clothing and clothing attitudes often mirror the social values and concerns of a

specific time. It would be interesting to conduct a similar study in two years to see if the attitudes toward the designer labeled clothing have changed in relation to a changing social and political climate. Interesting, too, would be a study that compared the attitudes of various socio-economic groups or sub-cultures within our society.

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APPENDIX A

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD FORM

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
FOR HUMAN SUBJECTS RESEARCH

Proposal Title: Designer Label's Influence on Self-Concept

Principal Investigator: Lynn Richards/Eileen Kenney

Date: March 27, 1990 IRB # HE-90-025

This application has been reviewed by the IRB and

Processed as: Exempt Expedite Full Board Review

Renewal or Continuation

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s):

Approved

Deferred for Revision

Approved with Provision

Disapproved

Approval status subject to review by full Institutional Review Board at next meeting, 2nd and 4th Thursday of each month.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Reason for Deferral or Disapproval:

Signature:  Date: March 27, 1990
Chair of Institutional Review Board

APPENDIX B

RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Oklahoma State University
Individual's Consent for Participation in a Research Project

I understand that I have been randomly selected from students enrolled at OSU to be a subject in this study. I voluntarily agree to participate in this study sponsored by Eileen Kenney, a graduate student in CTM and Dr. Lynne Richards, a professor in CTM. I understand that this study involves an analysis of clothing attitudes and opinions and that the results will be presented in a graduate thesis. I understand that I am being asked only to complete paper and pencil questionnaires pertaining to clothing preferences, attitudes, opinions which will take approximately 13 minutes and an interview concerning catalogue usage which will last approximately 30 minutes. This interview and the filling out of the questionnaires will not cause any discomfort or put me at any risk. Although there are no benefits to me directly, I understand that the results of the interview will be sent to various companies and will possibly help in the improvement of fashion catalogues in the future. I understand that for voluntarily completing this study I will receive fashion catalogues from various fashion companies. I understand that completion of this test will be made confidential by the use of a code number and that no attempt will be made to identify or contact me following completion of the interview.

By signing this consent form, I acknowledge that my participation in this study is voluntary. I also acknowledge that I have not waived any legal rights, and that I may revoke my consent and withdraw from this study at any time without penalty.

If I have questions about rights as a research subject, I may take them to Eileen Kenney 372-8264, Dr. Lynne Richards 744-5036, or Terry Macula, Office of University Research Services, Oklahoma State University 744-5700. I have read this informed consent document. I understand its contents and I freely consent to participate in this study under the conditions described in this document.

Signature of research subject _____

Date _____

DESIGNER LABEL RECOGNITION SCALE

Please rate the following fashion designers on the basis of recognition.

- 1 Do not recognize this name at all
- 2 This fashion designer sounds vaguely familiar to me
- 3 Yes, I definitely recognize this name as that of a fashion designer

Example:

Coco Chanel __3__ (This would indicate that you definitely recognized this name as that of a fashion designer.)

Donna Karan ____

Oscar de la Renta ____

Geoffrey Beene ____

Christian Dior ____

Bill Blass ____

Emanuel Ungaro ____

Claude Pere' ____

Karl Lagerfeld ____

Ralph Lauren ____

Calvin Klein ____

Yves Saint Laurent ____

Catherine Rice ____

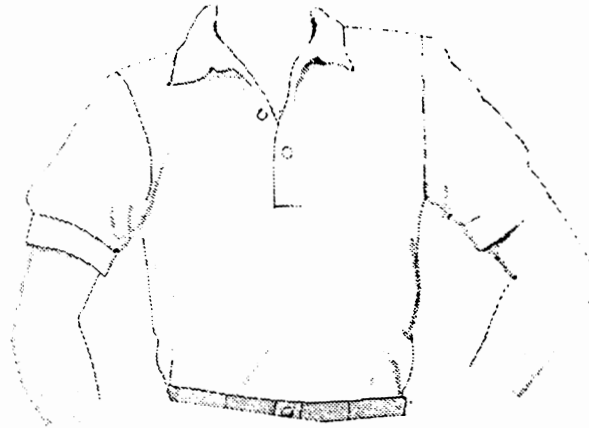
Guy Laroche ____

Perry Ellis ____

Michael Dunn ____

DESIGNER LABEL ATTITUDINAL SCALE

If you viewed a person wearing the garment pictured below how would you perceive that person? Please mark your answer with an X on the appropriate line.



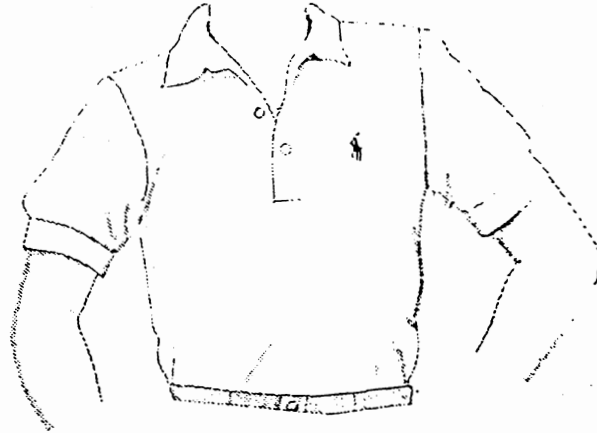
Self-confident	___	___	___	___	___	Lacks self-confidence
Tolerant of other	___	___	___	___	___	Critical of others
Able to do most things	___	___	___	___	___	Unable to do most things
Honest	___	___	___	___	___	Dishonest
Enthusiastic	___	___	___	___	___	Unenthusiastic
Likable	___	___	___	___	___	Not likable
Competitive	___	___	___	___	___	Cooperative
Leader	___	___	___	___	___	Follower
Moral	___	___	___	___	___	Immoral
Satisfied	___	___	___	___	___	Frustrated
Intelligent	___	___	___	___	___	Unintelligent
Calm	___	___	___	___	___	Anxious
Useful	___	___	___	___	___	Useless
Fashionable	___	___	___	___	___	Unfashionable

How would you perceive the garment? Please mark your response on the appropriate blank.

Expensive	—	—	—	—	—	Inexpensive
Prestigious	—	—	—	—	—	Common
Fashionable	—	—	—	—	—	Unfashionable
High quality	—	—	—	—	—	Low quality
Good value	—	—	—	—	—	Poor value
Easy to care for	—	—	—	—	—	Hard to care for

DESIGNER LABEL ATTITUDINAL SCALE

If you viewed a person wearing the garment pictured below how would you perceive that person? Please mark your answer with an X on the appropriate line.



Self-confident	—	—	—	—	—	Lacks self-confidence
Tolerant of others	—	—	—	—	—	Critical of others
Able to do most things	—	—	—	—	—	Unable to do most things
Honest	—	—	—	—	—	Dishonest
Enthusiastic	—	—	—	—	—	Unenthusiastic
Likable	—	—	—	—	—	Not likable
Competitive	—	—	—	—	—	Cooperative
Leader	—	—	—	—	—	Follower
Moral	—	—	—	—	—	Immoral
Satisfied	—	—	—	—	—	Frustrated
Intelligent	—	—	—	—	—	Unintelligent
Calm	—	—	—	—	—	Anxious
Useful	—	—	—	—	—	Useless
Fashionable	—	—	—	—	—	Unfashionable

How would you perceive the garment? Please mark your response on the appropriate blank.

Expensive	—	—	—	—	—	Inexpensive
Prestigious	—	—	—	—	—	Common
Fashionable	—	—	—	—	—	Unfashionable
High quality	—	—	—	—	—	Low quality
Good value	—	—	—	—	—	Poor value
Easy to care for	—	—	—	—	—	Hard to care for

DESIGNER LABEL ATTITUDINAL SCALE

If you viewed a person wearing the garment pictured below how would you perceive that person? Please mark your answer with an X on the appropriate line.



Self-confident	—	—	—	—	—	Lacks self-confidence
Tolerant of others	—	—	—	—	—	Critical of others
Able to do most things	—	—	—	—	—	Unable to do most things
Honest	—	—	—	—	—	Dishonest
Enthusiastic	—	—	—	—	—	Unenthusiastic
Likable	—	—	—	—	—	Not likable
Competitive	—	—	—	—	—	Cooperative
Leader	—	—	—	—	—	Follower
Moral	—	—	—	—	—	Immoral
Satisfied	—	—	—	—	—	Frustrated
Intelligent	—	—	—	—	—	Unintelligent
Calm	—	—	—	—	—	Anxious
Useful	—	—	—	—	—	Useless
Fashionable	—	—	—	—	—	Unfashionable

How would you perceive the garment? Please mark your response on the appropriate blank.

Expensive	—	—	—	—	—	Inexpensive
Prestigious	—	—	—	—	—	Common
Fashionable	—	—	—	—	—	Unfashionable
High quality	—	—	—	—	—	Low quality
Good value	—	—	—	—	—	Poor value
Easy to care for	—	—	—	—	—	Hard to care for

DESIGNER LABEL ATTITUDINAL SCALE

If you viewed a person wearing the garment pictured below how would you perceive that person? Please mark your answer with an X on the appropriate line.



Self-confident	—	—	—	—	—	Lacks self-confidence
Tolerant of others	—	—	—	—	—	Critical of others
Able to do most things	—	—	—	—	—	Unable to do most things
Honest	—	—	—	—	—	Dishonest
Enthusiastic	—	—	—	—	—	Unenthusiastic
Likable	—	—	—	—	—	Not likable
Competitive	—	—	—	—	—	Cooperative
Leader	—	—	—	—	—	Follower
Moral	—	—	—	—	—	Immoral
Satisfied	—	—	—	—	—	Frustrated
Intelligent	—	—	—	—	—	Unintelligent
Calm	—	—	—	—	—	Anxious
Useful	—	—	—	—	—	Useless
Fashionable	—	—	—	—	—	Unfashionable

How would you perceive the garment? Please mark your response on the appropriate blank.

Expensive	—	—	—	—	—	Inexpensive
Prestigious	—	—	—	—	—	Common
Fashionable	—	—	—	—	—	Unfashionable
High quality	—	—	—	—	—	Low quality
Good value	—	—	—	—	—	Poor value
Easy to care for	—	—	—	—	—	Hard to care for

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale

William H. Fitts, Ph.D.

Published by



INSTRUCTIONS

On the top line of the separate answer sheet, fill in your name and the other information except for the time information in the last three boxes. You will fill in these boxes later. Write only on the answer sheet. Do not put any marks in this booklet.

The statements in this booklet are to help you describe yourself as you see yourself. Please respond to them as if you were describing yourself *to yourself*. Do not omit any item. Read each statement carefully, then select one of the five responses listed below. On your answer sheet, put a *circle* around the response you chose. If you want to change an answer after you have circled it, do not erase it but put an X mark through the response and then circle the response you want.

When you are ready to start, find the box on your answer sheet marked *time started* and record the time. When you are finished, record the time finished in the box on your answer sheet marked *time finished*.

As you start, be sure that your answer sheet and this booklet are lined up evenly so that the item numbers match each other.

Remember, put a *circle* around the response number you have chosen for each statement.

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

You will find these response numbers repeated at the top of each page to help you remember them.

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Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

	Item No.
1. I have a healthy body	1
3. I am an attractive person	3
5. I consider myself a sloppy person	5
19. I am a decent sort of person	19
21. I am an honest person	21
23. I am a bad person	23
37. I am a cheerful person	37
39. I am a calm and easygoing person	39
41. I am a nobody	41
55. I have a family that would always help me in any kind of trouble	55
57. I am a member of a happy family	57
59. My friends have no confidence in me	59
73. I am a friendly person	73
75. I am popular with men	75
77. I am not interested in what other people do	77
91. I do not always tell the truth	91
93. I get angry sometimes	93

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

	Item No.
2. I like to look nice and neat all the time	2
4. I am full of aches and pains	4
6. I am a sick person	6
20. I am a religious person	20
22. I am a moral failure	22
24. I am a morally weak person	24
38. I have a lot of self-control	38
40. I am a hateful person	40
42. I am losing my mind	42
56. I am an important person to my friends and family	56
58. I am not loved by my family	58
60. I feel that my family doesn't trust me	60
74. I am popular with women	74
76. I am mad at the whole world	76
78. I am hard to be friendly with	78
92. Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about	92
94. Sometimes, when I am not feeling well, I am cross	94

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

	Item No.
7. I am neither too fat nor too thin	7
9. I like my looks just the way they are	9
11. I would like to change some parts of my body	11
25. I am satisfied with my moral behavior	25
27. I am satisfied with my relationship to God	27
29. I ought to go to church more	29
43. I am satisfied to be just what I am	43
45. I am just as nice as I should be	45
47. I despise myself	47
61. I am satisfied with my family relationships	61
63. I understand my family as well as I should	63
65. I should trust my family more	65
79. I am as sociable as I want to be	79
81. I try to please others, but don't overdo it	81
83. I am no good at all from a social standpoint	83
95. I do not like everyone I know	95
97. Once in a while, I laugh at a dirty joke	97

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

	Item No.
8. I am neither too tall nor too short	8
10. I don't feel as well as I should	10
12. I should have more sex appeal	12
26. I am as religious as I want to be	26
28. I wish I could be more trustworthy	28
30. I shouldn't tell so many lies	30
44. I am as smart as I want to be.....	44
46. I am not the person I would like to be.....	46
48. I wish I didn't give up as easily as I do	48
62. I treat my parents as well as I should (Use past tense if parents are not living)	62
64. I am too sensitive to things my family says	64
66. I should love my family more	66
80. I am satisfied with the way I treat other people	80
82. I should be more polite to others	82
84. I ought to get along better with other people	84
96. I gossip a little at times	96
98. At times I feel like swearing	98

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

	Item No.
13. I take good care of myself physically	13
15. I try to be careful about my appearance	15
17. I often act like I am "all thumbs"	17
31. I am true to my religion in my everyday life	31
33. I try to change when I know I'm doing things that are wrong	33
35. I sometimes do very bad things	35
49. I can always take care of myself in any situation	49
51. I take the blame for things without getting mad	51
53. I do things without thinking about them first	53
67. I try to play fair with my friends and family	67
69. I take a real interest in my family	69
71. I give in to my parents (Use past tense if parents are not living)	71
85. I try to understand the other fellow's point of view	85
87. I get along well with other people	87
89. I do not forgive others easily	89
99. I would rather win than lose in a game	99

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

	Item No.
14. I feel good most of the time	14
16. I do poorly in sports and games	16
18. I am a poor sleeper	18
32. I do what is right most of the time	32
34. I sometimes use unfair means to get ahead	34
36. I have trouble doing the things that are right	36
50. I solve my problems quite easily	50
52. I change my mind a lot	52
54. I try to run away from my problems	54
68. I do my share of work at home	68
70. I quarrel with my family	70
72. I do not act like my family thinks I should	72
86. I see good points in all the people I meet	86
88. I do not feel at ease with other people	88
90. I find it hard to talk with strangers	90
100. Once in a while I put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today	100

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale
 Answer Sheet

Form C

ITEM	RESPONSE	ITEM	RESPONSE	ITEM	RESPONSE
13	1 2 3 4 5	7	1 2 3 4 5	1	1 2 3 4 5
14	1 2 3 4 5	8	1 2 3 4 5	2	1 2 3 4 5
15	1 2 3 4 5	9	1 2 3 4 5	3	1 2 3 4 5
16	1 2 3 4 5	10	1 2 3 4 5	4	1 2 3 4 5
17	1 2 3 4 5	11	1 2 3 4 5	5	1 2 3 4 5
18	1 2 3 4 5	12	1 2 3 4 5	6	1 2 3 4 5
31	1 2 3 4 5	25	1 2 3 4 5	19	1 2 3 4 5
32	1 2 3 4 5	26	1 2 3 4 5	20	1 2 3 4 5
33	1 2 3 4 5	27	1 2 3 4 5	21	1 2 3 4 5
34	1 2 3 4 5	28	1 2 3 4 5	22	1 2 3 4 5
35	1 2 3 4 5	29	1 2 3 4 5	23	1 2 3 4 5
36	1 2 3 4 5	30	1 2 3 4 5	24	1 2 3 4 5
49	1 2 3 4 5	43	1 2 3 4 5	37	1 2 3 4 5
50	1 2 3 4 5	44	1 2 3 4 5	38	1 2 3 4 5
51	1 2 3 4 5	45	1 2 3 4 5	39	1 2 3 4 5
52	1 2 3 4 5	46	1 2 3 4 5	40	1 2 3 4 5
53	1 2 3 4 5	47	1 2 3 4 5	41	1 2 3 4 5
54	1 2 3 4 5	48	1 2 3 4 5	42	1 2 3 4 5
67	1 2 3 4 5	61	1 2 3 4 5	55	1 2 3 4 5
68	1 2 3 4 5	62	1 2 3 4 5	56	1 2 3 4 5
69	1 2 3 4 5	63	1 2 3 4 5	57	1 2 3 4 5
70	1 2 3 4 5	64	1 2 3 4 5	58	1 2 3 4 5
71	1 2 3 4 5	65	1 2 3 4 5	59	1 2 3 4 5
72	1 2 3 4 5	66	1 2 3 4 5	60	1 2 3 4 5
85	1 2 3 4 5	79	1 2 3 4 5	73	1 2 3 4 5
86	1 2 3 4 5	80	1 2 3 4 5	74	1 2 3 4 5
87	1 2 3 4 5	81	1 2 3 4 5	75	1 2 3 4 5
88	1 2 3 4 5	82	1 2 3 4 5	76	1 2 3 4 5
89	1 2 3 4 5	83	1 2 3 4 5	77	1 2 3 4 5
90	1 2 3 4 5	84	1 2 3 4 5	78	1 2 3 4 5
99	1 2 3 4 5	95	1 2 3 4 5	91	1 2 3 4 5
100	1 2 3 4 5	96	1 2 3 4 5	92	1 2 3 4 5
		97	1 2 3 4 5	93	1 2 3 4 5
		98	1 2 3 4 5	94	1 2 3 4 5

NAME	MARITAL STATUS	AGE	SEX (Circle One)	EDUCATION (Number of Years)	TIME STARTED	ETHNIC BACKGROUND (Optional)
			M F			
USUAL OCCUPATION	DATE	TOTAL TIME				

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APPENDIX C

CATALOGUE SHOPPING HABITS INSTRUMENT

CATALOGUE SHOPPING HABITS OF COLLEGE AGE WOMEN

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS:

1. Age _____
2. Years of education past high school: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8 more
3. Level of family income: less than 10,000
10,000 to 20,000
20,000 to 30,000
30,000 to 40,000
40,000 to 50,000
50,000 to 60,000
60,000 to 70,000
70,000 plus
4. Number of family members supported by this income:
1 2 3 4 5 6+
5. Where do you live: Dormitory Sorority House Apartment
House Mobile Home other_____
5. Major in college: A and S Business Agriculture
Home Ec. Education Engineering
Graduate
6. Upon Graduation where do you plan to live:
Region_____
- State_____
- City_____
- Undecided
7. What is the approximate size of your home town:
less than 1,000
1,000 to 5,000
5,000 to 10,000
10,000 to 50,000
50,000 to 100,000
over 100,000
8. Do you feel your exposure to catalogs has been:
minimal
average
above average

SHOPPING BEHAVIOR QUESTIONS:

1. Do you like to shop from catalogues? Yes No
2. If yes, why do you shop catalogues? Please rank in importance
 - convenience_____
 - cheaper price_____
 - good quality_____
 - variety of products_____
 - unique products_____
3. If no, are there any special circumstances which prevent you from shopping from these catalogues?
 - ___Lack of money _____
 - ___Special size requirements _____
 - ___Bad Experience with catalogues_____
 - if so which ones? _____
 - if so what kind of bad experience_____

 - ___Do not receive the catalogue_____
 - ___Lack of product information_____

4. Please rank the circumstances above in order of importance.

5. Have you ever heard of the following catalogues?

	yes	no	maybe
--	-----	----	-------

Speigel	___	___	___
L. L. Bean	___	___	___
J. Crew	___	___	___
J.C. Penny	___	___	___
Talbots	___	___	___
Tweeds	___	___	___
Carroll Reed	___	___	___
Lands End	___	___	___
Neiman Marcus	___	___	___

6. What is your perception of these catalogs mentioned above in terms of price of product?

	inexpen	aver	expen
Speigel	___	___	___
L. L. Bean	___	___	___
J. Crew	___	___	___
J. C. Penny	___	___	___
Talbots	___	___	___
Tweeds	___	___	___
Carroll Reed	___	___	___
Lands End	___	___	___
Neiman Marcus	___	___	___

7. What is your perception of these catalogues mentioned above in terms of types of product?

	poor prod.	aver prod.	quality prod.
Speigel	_____	_____	_____
L. L. Bean	_____	_____	_____
J. Crew	_____	_____	_____
J. C. Penny	_____	_____	_____
Talbots	_____	_____	_____
Tweeds	_____	_____	_____
Carroll Reed	_____	_____	_____
Lands End	_____	_____	_____
Neiman Marcus	_____	_____	_____

8. How frequently do you shop from these catalogues?

	very		not at all		
Speigel	—	—	—	—	—
L. L. Bean	—	—	—	—	—
J. Crew	—	—	—	—	—
J.C. Penny	—	—	—	—	—
Talbots	—	—	—	—	—
Tweeds	—	—	—	—	—
Carroll Reed	—	—	—	—	—
Lands End	—	—	—	—	—
Neiman Marcus	—	—	—	—	—

9. When was your last catalogue purchase?

- within the week
- within the month
- 2-4 months ago
- 4-8 months ago
- over a year ago

10. What categories of items do you (or would you) purchase from catalogues? Please rank in order of preference

- Clothes___
- Toys___
- Home Furnishings___
- Other___

11. If you purchase clothes from catalogues, what kinds do you purchase? Please rank

- ___Coats
- ___Shoes
- ___Athletic Clothes
- ___Casual Clothes
- ___Formal Clothes
- ___Accessories
- ___Professional Dress
- ___Lingerie

12. Based on your number one ranking above how much do you usually spend on your catalogue purchase?
less than \$10 \$10 to \$20 \$20 to \$30 \$30 to \$40
\$40 to \$50 \$50 to \$60 \$60 to \$70 \$70 to \$80
\$80 to \$90 \$90 to \$100 Over \$100

13. Assuming good design and quality material, what is the maximum price you would pay for:
winter coat _____
business suit _____
casual shorts _____
2-piece sweats outfit _____
casual summer skirt _____
after-5 dinner dress _____
watch _____
leather purse _____
leather dress shoes _____
leather casual shoes _____

14. In clothes, which best describes your style preference?
High Fashion (Haute Couture)
Classic
Trendy
Casual
Faddish

15. Is there any item you would never buy through a catalogue? _____

16. What fabrics do you look for when shopping for coats by catalogue?
cotton
wool
silk
rayon
polyester
combinations of the above _____
other _____

When shopping for casual clothes by catalogue:
cotton
wool
silk
rayon
polyester
combination of the above _____
other _____

When shopping for formal clothes by catalogue:

cotton
wool
silk
rayon
polyester
combination of the above _____
other _____

When shopping for professional dress by catalogue:

cotton
wool
silk
rayon
polyester
combination of the above _____
other _____

17. What fabric care instructions do you look for the most:
machine wash hand wash dry clean only
18. Do you use telephone or mail order when purchasing from
a catalogue? _____
19. Have you ever used special customer services (such as
detailed description of product, measurements of
product, gift wrap, special delivery services) offered
by a company?
Yes No
If yes which ones? _____
20. What size catalogue do you prefer?
5 x 8 8 x 11 11 x 17 larger than 11 x 17
21. What do you do with a catalogue after you receive it?
Throw it away immediately _____
Save it for awhile and then throw it away _____
if so how long before you throw it away _____
Collect them, never throw them away _____
22. Do you compare prices and products among the various
catalogues, before making a purchase decision?
Yes No

23. What is your overall opinion of catalogue shopping and products?

	Very High/Good		Very Low/Poor	
Quality	—	—	—	—
Selection	—	—	—	—
Price	—	—	—	—
Speed of delivery	—	—	—	—
Items in stock	—	—	—	—
Ease of return	—	—	—	—

24. Do you own a VCR? Yes No

25. Would you prefer an "action" VCR catalogue, showing styles on live models?
Yes No

26. Would you pay a nominal fee for a VCR catalogue, rather than a paper copy?
Yes No

27. Do you have a personal computer? Yes No

28. If given the choice, would you prefer a catalogue on a computer diskette, rather than printed on paper?
Yes No

APPENDIX D

SAMPLE MEAN SCORES PER ITEM
FOR PERSON PERCEPTION

SAMPLE MEAN SCORES PER ITEM FOR PERSON PERCEPTION

ITEM	MEAN LABELED	MEAN UNLABELED	DIFFERENCE	% INCREASE
DECREASE				
Self-confident/ Lacks self- confidence	4.12	3.55	.57	14% increase
Tolerant of others/ Critical of others	2.64	3.61	-.97	37% decrease
Able to do most things/ Unable to do most things	3.60	3.46	.14	4% increase
Honest/ Dishonest	3.42	3.54	-.12	4% decrease
Enthusiastic/ Unenthusiastic	4.00	3.33	.67	17% increase
Likable/ Not Likable	3.69	3.74	-.05	1% decrease
Competitive/ Cooperative	4.14	2.99	1.15	28% increase
Leader/ Follower	3.92	3.31	.61	16% increase
Moral/ Immoral	3.33	3.58	-.25	8% decrease
Satisfied/ Frustrate	3.85	3.57	.28	8% increase
Intelligent/ Unintelligent	3.60	3.58	.02	.5% increase
Calm/ Anxious	3.18	3.50	-.32	10% decrease
Useful/ Useless	3.52	3.71	-.19	5% decrease
Fashionable/ Unfashionable	4.52	3.23	1.29	29% increase

APPENDIX E

CHI SQUARE RESULTS

CHI-SQUARE RESULTS

SHIRT: PERSON PERCEPTION

ITEM PAIR	CHI-SQUARE	DF	PROBABILITY	NOTE
enthusiastic/ unenthusiastic	10.605	2	.005	**
fashionable/ unfashionable	30.266	2	.000	**
tolerant of others/critical of others	28.804	2	.000	--
self-confident/ lacks self confidence	2.459	2	.292	ns
able to do most things/unable to do most things	0.000	2	1.00	ns
honest/ dishonest	2.569	2	2.569	ns
likeable/ not likeable	.043	2	.979	ns
moral/ immoral	1.792	2	.408	ns
satisfied/ dissatisfied	2.062	2	.357	ns
intelligent/ unintelligent	1.212	2	.546	ns
calm/ anxious	2.736	2	.255	ns
useful/ useless	1.399	2	.497	ns

** significant at .01
 * significant at .05
 ns not significant
 -- non-label significant at .01

SHIRT:OBJECT PERCEPTION

	CHI SQUARE	DF	PROBABILITY	NOTE
expensive/ inexpensive	69.008	2	.000	**
prestigious/ common	35.917	2	.000	**
fashionable/ unfashionable	45.751	2	.000	**
high quality/ low quality	50.410	2	.000	**
good value/ poor value	6.896	2	.032	*
easy to care for/ hard to care for	10.123	2	.006	--

** significant at .01

* significant at .05

ns not significant

- non-label significant at .01

HANDBAG: PERSON PERCEPTION

VARIABLE	CHI SQUARE	DF	PROBABILITY	NOTE
enthusiastic/ unenthusiastic	14.252	2	.001	**
fashionable/ unfashionable	20.952	2	.000	**
tolerant of others/critical of others	29.893	2	.000	--
self-confident/ lacks self- confidence	12.288	2	.002	**
able to do most things/ unable to do most things	6.119	2	.047	*
honest/ dishonest	3.400	2	.183	ns
likeable/ not likeable	1.716	2	.424	ns
moral/ immoral	3.797	2	.150	ns
satisfied/ dissatisfied	4.857	2	.088	*
intelligent/ unintelligent	1.414	2	.493	ns
calm/ anxious	3.241	2	.198	ns
useful/ useless	1.105	2	.575	ns

** significant at .01

* significant at .05

ns not significant

-- non-label significant at .01

HANDBAG: OBJECT PERCEPTION

ITEM PAIR	CHI SQUARE	DF	PROBABILITY	NOTE
expensive/ inexpensive	62.446	2	.000	**
prestigious/ common	49.686	2	.000	**
fashionable/ unfashionable	40.514	2	.000	**
high quality/ low quality	48.489	2	.000	**
good value/ poor value	11.717	2	.003	**
easy to care for/ hard to care for	3.920	2	.141	ns

** significant at .01

* significant at .05

ns not significant

-- non-label significant at .01

COMMONALITY IN CHI-SQUARE RESULTS FOR DESIGNER LABELS

Person Perception

VARIABLE	SIGNIFICANCE
tolerant of others/ critical of others	--
honest/ dishonest	ns
enthusiastic/ unenthusiastic	**
likeable/ unlikable	ns
moral/ immoral	ns
intelligent/ unintelligent	ns
calm/ anxious	ns
useful/ useless	ns
fashionable/ unfashionable	**

** significant at .01
 * significant at .05
 ns not significant
 -- non-label significant at .01

OBJECT PERCEPTION

expensive/ inexpensive	**
prestigious/ common	**
fashionable/ unfashionable	**
high quality/ low quality	**
good value/ poor value	*

** significant at .01
* significant at .05
ns not significant

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