

AN ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
CLOTHING CONFORMITY AND PERSONALITY
TYPE IN A SELECTED GROUP
OF ADULT MALES

by

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(ABSTRACT)

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between clothing conformity and personality type, according to the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), of a selected group of adult males. Past research indicated that the MBTI had been used in relation to many characteristics such as creativity, management style, and conformity. Clothing conformity had been investigated in relation to group membership and self-esteem. The researcher was unable to find any research done prior to this study in which clothing conformity and the MBTI had been used to study the relationship between personality type and clothing conformity.

The sample consisted of 83 fraternity men from four Greek organizations at Georgia State University. Each respondent filled out the MBTI questionnaire, a clothing conformity scale, and a demographic form.

A two to the fourth factorial ANOVA was used to analyze the relationships between clothing conformity scores and various personality types. The results indicated a significant difference in clothing conformity between

extraverted and introverted personality types, with extraverts being more conforming than introverts. It also indicated a tendency for judging types to be more conforming than perceiving types. Although not statistically significant, the analysis showed some interaction effect between the extraversion-introversion and the thinking-feeling dimensions on clothing conformity. The conclusions from this research are that the extraverts are more conforming in their clothing behavior than introverts, that judging personality types tend to be more conforming than perceiving types, and that the interaction between extraversion-introversion and thinking-feeling shows a tendency for the dependency of one dimension on the other.

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

People have struggled to understand the behavior and motives of others for thousands of years and for many reasons. Aristotle and Plato observed human behavior in order to understand people and the differences which occur among individuals. After studying demeanor and motivation it was then possible to predict some human behavior, and various theories of behavior and motivation were developed (Jung, 1923).

In trying to understand human tendencies and motivation Jung conducted analytical research. He theorized that people were pulled into various behaviors due to their dominant psychological attitude. This attitude drew individuals toward some decisions and away from others (Jung, 1923).

Around the same time other psychologists were writing about clothing as a possible variable related to behavior. In these attempts to relate personality traits to clothing, clothing variables were broadly defined and labeled "clothing behavior" (Simmel, 1904; Flacus, 1906). However, between the early 1900's and the late 1950's interest in

relationships between clothing behavior and personality was sporadic.

Then in the 1960's researchers began to break down the broadly defined term of "clothing behavior" into more narrowly defined concepts. Creekmore's 1968 "Importance of Clothing" questionnaire is an example of this. She divided "clothing behavior" into eight more narrowly defined areas. These are: aesthetic, approval, attention, comfort, dependence, interest, management, and modesty (Fetterman, 1968). In 1974 Gurel used factor analysis to demonstrate the construct validity of the Creekmore questionnaire. When she renamed the factors she called the "approval" subscale "conformity". These items, revised by Bosari in 1978, will be the conformity measure used in this study.

Since the sixties several researchers have shown that individuals differ in the importance they place on clothing and their reasons for choosing the styles of clothing that they wear (Charron, 1977; Drake, 1978; Gurel, 1970; Toerien, 1987). In the two decades following the sixties even a casual observer would have noticed the rapid changes in norms of dress and the swing from non-conformity to conformity. The "do-your-own-thing" and "anything goes" attitudes of the sixties and seventies, have been replaced with the eighties' more conventional norms and customs of adornment.

Dress of college men in the eighties their dress seems to be quite conforming to the norms of their reference group. However, when asked if they perceive the clothing they wear as conforming they frequently answered no. This observation was made and investigated earlier by Swanson (1971). She found that men perceive women as more conforming but in actuality are more conforming to dress norms than women. Some researchers have also found that people conform to the norms of their reference group (Gurel, 1970; Takahashi & Newton, 1967; Williams & Eicher, 1966), while others have viewed clothing conformity as a part of clothing interest (Bosari, 1978; Creekmore, 1971; Gurel, 1974). To the knowledge of this researcher no one has ever examined the relationship between personality type and clothing conformity to determine whether or not individual personality dimensions have an effect on clothing conformity.

The questions which might be answered by studying these changing clothing behaviors are important in setting standards for curriculum in the clothing and textile discipline, as well as, the marketing and psychology disciplines. By understanding the personality dimensions which are related to conformity clothing and textiles professors can help students feel better about themselves if they do not conform to the dress norms of the other students. They can do this by explaining to the students

that they are not mistaken because they do not conform but that they simply have different personalities. The psychology professional in a counselling situation could profit from this information by being able to relate personality dimensions of their clients according to their overt clothing behaviors.

In using the results from this study a marketing professional will be able to produce and sell a garment that is truly in line with its target customers' demands. This is possible through the use of psychographics. Although, psychographics has been given many different operational definitions, in its simplest form it is the use of lifestyle and personality characteristics to determine marketing segments. Mitchell (1983) stated, "We now have powerful evidence that the classification of an individual on the basis of a few dozen attitudes and demographics tells us a good deal about what to expect of that person in hundreds of other domains" (p. vii).

By understanding the relationship between personality type and conformity a marketer who wished to sell a product that met the demands of a conforming market segment may be able to produce a more effective commercial. For example, if there is a significant relationship between sensing and conformity, and the target market tends to conform to

dress norms, then a media campaign should emphasize facts and not mood or environment. The sensing person, because of his or her natural tendency to make decisions based on objective factors, will be more inclined to perceive this objective form of advertising with a more positive attitude due to personality type.

When using psychographics on a specific product, such as an item or line of clothing, the researcher can focus on a limited set of relevant, product related dimensions (Wells, 1975). Thus, an apparel retailer or manufacturer who was targeting a high fashion market could possibly use this information to market to non-conformists who may accept these new ideas and modes of dress more rapidly. By understanding the personality type of this group the marketer can more effectively plan media campaigns and store images. This will also help teachers and psychologists, acting in a counselling role, to help students and clients better understand their differences and their need to conform or not to conform due to personality type.

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) measures the dimensions of personality and categorizes each person into one of 16 personality types, as defined by Jung. Clothing conformity is thought to be an overt manifestation of personality, which may be related to one or more of the dimensions on the MBTI. Psychographics uses personality

characteristics to segment large markets. Therefore, if there is a relationship between clothing conformity and any one or more of the dimensions of personality type, marketers who are trying to sell garments which are conforming in style will have a better profile of their target market.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

To facilitate an understanding of the basic concepts and recent findings that are pertinent to this research a review of related literature was conducted and is presented here. This literature will be reviewed in the following order: Jungian theory and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI); research using the MBTI; research on clothing conformity; and research in psychographics.

Jungian Theory and the MBTI

The MBTI was developed from Carl Jung's theory of personality types. He identified dimension continua of the personality that combine to create 16 different types. These were categorized as attitudes and functions. An attitude is a person's orientation to the world, and a function is the way in which a person perceives and evaluates that world. He identified only one attitude directly, that of extraversion-introversion (E-I). Jung (1923) labeled the functions : sensation-intuition (S-N); and thinking-feeling (T-F). In developing the MBTI another attitude was added from inferences in Jung's writings, that of judging-perceiving (J-P) (McCaulley & Myers, 1986).

The extraversion-introversion dimension was the

first to be investigated by Jung. He characterized the extravert as one whose psychic energy flows out toward the world. Other researchers used his theory and further defined these types as having an interest in and dependence on events, people, and things (Matoon, 1981). Because of their dependent relation with people and things, sensing types seem to be energized by people and experience loneliness when not in contact with others (Keirse & Bates, 1984).

On the other side of the continuum, an introverted type is characterized by a flow of psychic energy inward (Jung, 1923). These types are interested in subjective factors and inner responses. Due to their inward flow they prefer their own thoughts to conversations with others and enjoy being alone (Matoon, 1981). The introverts, too, experiences loneliness but this frequently occurs for them when they are in crowds (Keirse & Bates, 1984).

After forming the extraversion-introversion typology Jung realized it was insufficient. He said, "I had tried to explain too much in too simple a way, as often happens in the first joy of discovery" (p. 2). Jung then went back to work and by 1921 had established the functional dimensions of personality (Matoon, 1981).

The first function is that of sensation-intuition.

Jung described sensation and intuition as the function by which one ascertains that something exists. Sensing people are usually interested in facts and things which can be determined objectively to exist (Mattoon, 1981).

At the opposite end of this dimension continuum is intuition. Intuitives are those who define things as possibilities that exist. Intuitives see around corners and produce hunches (Mattoon, 1981). According to Wheelwright (1973) intuition works when there are only possibilities, without facts or social supports. Therefore, intuitives are very uncomfortable living in the present (Mattoon, 1981).

The second function is that of thinking-feeling. Jung described the thinking-feeling function as that which categorizes and assigns meaning to perceived elements. Thinking people are good at analyzing cause and effect, ascertaining truths and falsehoods, and reasoning objectively (Mattoon, 1981).

Conversely, at the other end of this dimension continuum are the feeling type people. Feeling types are described as those who evaluate an object for desirability and importance (Mattoon, 1981).

The final dimension, that of judging-perceiving, was not well defined by Jung but is implied in his writing (Keirse & Bates, 1984). This dimension was associated with the way one thinks by use of a "split-brain" (Goodman, 1978).

Judging-perceiving is defined in the MBTI as the way of life one prefers to live (Keirsey & Bates, 1984). A judging person prefers a lifestyle which is decisive and orderly. This person prefers to regulate and control the world around him or her (McCaulley & Myers, 1986).

On the other hand, perceiving is defined by the MBTI as the opposite lifestyle. A perceiving person prefers to live with great flexibility and spontaneity. This type attempts to understand life and adapt to it (McCaulley, & Myers, 1986).

To some, Jung's theory may sound unacceptable because each person is assigned to an unchangeable niche. However, this is not so; each attitude or function is a continuum that a person may move across. Each person has a preferred end of each continuum but uses all of the functions and attitudes. Thus, people whose preference lies as an extravert in their conscious personality also have the introverted tendency which often remains in the unconscious unless an effort is made to develop it (McCaulley & Myers, 1976).

The MBTI, based on Jung's personality types was developed by Katherine C. Briggs and her daughter Isabel Briggs-Myers. They empirically studied the responses of persons who appeared to be of a determined type, and selected the statements on the questionnaire which

differentiated among them (McCaulley & Myers, 1976). Since 1942 the MBTI has been revised many times. Currently, the two forms that are most commonly used are the G-form with 94 items and the AV-form with 60 items.

Research using the MBTI

Since its inception the MBTI has been used frequently. Today there are over 1300 references to research using the MBTI (CAPT, 1987). Some major areas of study have been career and marriage counselling, education, managerial style, and personal characteristics that relate to specific Jungian types as measured by the MBTI.

Career and Marriage Counselling with the MBTI

The MBTI is widely used in career counselling at universities to assist in occupational choices. Students who have taken the MBTI work with trained professionals to determine which types of occupations best suit their personality (Murphy, 1987). This is done through the use of the MBTI data bank collected by the Center for the Application of Psychological Type. The data bank consists of over 250,000 MBTI records as well as the career choice of the respondents and whether or not they enjoy their work. This data bank helps group certain types into careers that are attractive or unattractive to each personality type (McCaulley & Myers, 1986).

The MBTI is also used in marriage counselling. In fact it has been used to establish construct validity for the MBTI. The rationale for this is that if personality type does exist, it should be recognizable not only by the individuals themselves, but also by close friends and relatives (Cohen, Cohen, & Cross, 1981).

In a study with 31 married couples each pair was asked to complete the MBTI three times. Subjects were asked to answer about 1)themselves, 2)their ideal selves, 3)and their mates. The results of the study showed statistically significant relationships between the way in which respondents rated themselves and the way in which their mate rated them on three dimensions, extraversion-introversion, sensation-intuition, and thinking-feeling. The results for the judging-perceiving dimension, however, were not significant (Cohen, Cohen, & Cross, 1981).

However, nonsignificant correlations were found between self rated scores and the ideal-self rated scores. These results support the construct validity of the MBTI in that there should not be a correlation between self typing and ideal self typing. They also support construct validity through the positive correlation between self rated scores and mate rated scores on the MBTI, indicating that a person who is close to another person can significantly predict the other's type (Cohen, Cohen, & Cross, 1981).

Researchers have also looked at the compatibility of couples according to Jung's type theory. Gray and Wheelwright (1944) stated that opposite types should be expected in married couples, thus showing complementary personalities.

However, Myers and Myers (1980) suggested that some aspects of type are more important than others. They said that type similarity is conducive to marriage especially in the sensation-intuition and thinking-feeling dimensions. A study done by Carlson and Williams (1984) with relatively successfully married couples showed that these couples tended to be more similar than different, according to the MBTI. This study supported the Myers' suggestion that couples were more often alike in the sensation-intuition and the thinking-feeling dimensions.

Furthermore, a study conducted by Sherman (1981) using married couples and their MBTI personality types suggested that complementarity in marital types may be the source of problems. The results showed that couples who were opposites on the extraversion-introversion dimension tended to be less happy with their marriages than couples that were similar on this dimension.

Educational Research using the MBTI

The main thrust of the research in the area of education and the MBTI is in educational quality. Bown and Richek (1970) questioned whether extraverts made better teachers than introverts. Their research indicated that extraverted and introverted future teachers did not differ in the positiveness of their attitude toward children but did differ in attitudes toward themselves, parents, others, authority, and hope. This similarity in attitude may mean that one type may not necessarily be better than the other in working with children, but their differences may make them better suited for some teaching roles.

Another study conducted by Fish and McKeen (1985) examined teaching methods in Economics and the impact on students of various personality types. The results indicated that current teaching style in college level economics classes was highly related to the intuitive process. For example, asking students to understand complex ideas and relationships with many implications was better suited to an intuitive person who looks at overall thoughts much more easily than a sensitive person. This places students who are not intuitive at a disadvantage. Thus to improve the scores of sensing students a new method of teaching Economics may be needed (Fish & McKeen, 1985).

Using the MBTI to measure students' potential was the objective of a research study conducted by Kean, Mehlhoff, and Sorenson (1988). Students from the Clothing, Textiles, and Design (CTD) Program and the Agronomy Program completed the MBTI. The results showed that the majority of the CTD students were intuitive-feeling types, while the majority of the Agronomy students were sensing-thinking types. This implied that CTD students already possessed strong interpersonal and communication skills, but needed help in developing the ability to approach problem solving analytically. This ability is more useful at top level management positions. Thus, if CTD students do not learn analytical problem solving techniques they may become stagnant at the middle management level without the proper skills to move upward. Kean's (1985) research supported this finding. He found that computer interaction skills, which have a quantitative analytical base, are becoming increasingly more important to management decision making.

Managerial Style and the MBTI

Researchers in management style have used the MBTI to determine management aptitude, to form a typology of management decision making style, and to evaluate the education of future managers.

Using the MBTI, Hai (1983) studied management personality to determine whether hospital administrators were more humanitarian than their business counterparts. The results of this study indicated that there were more feeling types in hospital administration than in business, that 70% of the sample population were sensing, and that 62.5% of the top ranking managers were introverts. These results would seem to indicate that top management positions in hospitals differed mostly in the area of the feeling-thinking dimension. This difference can be nearly all explained by the sex difference in top administrators, however. Women tend to be more feeling than their male counterparts, therefore, the higher number of women in hospital administration than in other business, explains the higher incidence of feeling types in hospitals (Hai, 1983).

The sensation-intuition and thinking-feeling dimensions of the MBTI were used by Hellreigel and Slocum (1975) to make a typology of top management style. They found that managers with different personality types preferred various company structures and decision making processes. Thus by knowing the personality type of a manager, specific characteristics may be determined. A sensing-feeling manager will be concerned with facts about people, not about things, and an intuitive-feeling manager would concentrate on new

projects and possible events. The concerns of these managers, therefore, make them better suited to distinct positions and companies.

The association between psychological type, as measured by the MBTI, and achievement levels of retail managers was examined by Gaster (1982). In the sample of retail managers who participated in this study there was a distinct preference for the sensing, thinking, and judging functions. The researcher concluded that there was a compatible relationship between the retail organization framework and sensing, thinking, and judging preferences.

Agor (1983) took a different approach to management decision making and investigated training of management skills. He took this approach because decision making at the top level should integrate both sensing and intuitive brain skills due to the complexity of the issues which are being decided. He found that top managers used intuitive skills more than lower level managers. Also, he found that an intuitive, integrated, decision making process was the method most frequently used. Thus, organizations and educators need to expand their teaching of intuitive skills. Furthermore, an organization could use this idea to build its human resources by requiring the administration of an MBTI to applicants, and then hiring people with personality types which fit the desired positions (Agor, 1983).

Personal Characteristics and the MBTI

The dimensions on the MBTI have been related to many personal characteristics, such as creativity, aesthetic sensitivity, and conformity. Carne and Kirton (1982) investigated the relationship between the dimensions of the MBTI and the Kirton Adaption-Innovation Inventory (KAI). The KAI measures originality, efficiency, and rule conformity. The results showed that originality was positively correlated with intuitive, perceptive, and extraverted personality types. Furthermore, both efficiency and conformity were positively correlated with intuitive and perceiving types.

The personality type of some of the United States' most creative architects was investigated by Hall and MacKinnon (1969). The investigators asked a group of architects to nominate the most creative group among their colleagues. This group was then asked to take the MBTI. The results of the study indicated that creativity in architects was positively correlated with the intuitive and perceiving personality types, but negatively correlated with the sensing and judging personality types.

Aesthetic sensitivity was investigated by Carlson and Parker (1969). Their subjects were given the MBTI and the Allport-Vernon Lindsey "Study of Values." The results of

this research showed that high aesthetic sensitivity was positively correlated with the perceiving and intuitive type personalities.

Cooper and Scalise (1974) studied the relationships between conformity, dissonance, and extraversion-introversion. The researchers assumed that an extravert would be more likely to conform to social issues, while the introvert would be more likely not to conform. Subjects were placed in a situation where they were told that they either did or did not conform to a social issue. The results indicated that introverts who thought they conformed to the social issue experienced dissonance, and those who were told they did not conform did not experience dissonance. The opposite was true for extraverts. Thus, when placed in a situation that differs from one's personality preference, a subject will experience dissonance.

Conforming behavior as a function of psychological type, according to the MBTI, was investigated by Matthews et al. (1981). The results of the study showed that extraverts were significantly more conforming than introverts. There was only a marginal relationship between overall personality type and conformity however.

Ginsburg (1972) investigated the relationship between extraversion-introversion and conformity, but did not use the MBTI. He reported that extraverts were more likely than introverts to conform to a group opinion.

In the past researchers have used various methods to study conformity. Asch (1951) had subjects rate objects on a relative scale. The subjects were then put into a group setting in which the members tried to persuade the subjects that their answer was not right. The degree to which the subjects changed their responses after talking with the group was measured as the degree of conformity.

Clothing Conformity

Davis and Franklin (1983) used Asch's method to measure conformity and judgments of fashionability. Subjects were asked to arrange a group of fashion plates in order from most fashionable to least fashionable, for the present as well as for the future. Then the subjects were told that another group had rated these fashion plates and had found that the least fashionable dress in their arrangement was rated the highest by the others. The subjects were asked to organize their fashion plates once again. The number of places that the least rated fashion plate was moved up in his of her regrouping was the subject's degree of conformity. The researchers found that conformity was a function of social influence, and that conformity was not as strong for the ambiguous stimuli of future fashionability.

Williams and Eicher (1966) hypothesized that members of a group have similar opinions about clothing which contribute to the group's cohesion. A sociogram of high school girls that placed the subjects into social groups was constructed. They found that clothing was the first attribute considered in describing the most popular girl, and clothing was the second most important characteristic when trying to get into a group. Furthermore, most groups considered themselves better dressed than others. These findings showed a great deal of conformity among social groups but not among the sample as a whole.

In 1968 Hendricks, Kelley, and Eicher, using the data from the continuing longitudinal study of Williams and Eicher (1966), again formed a sociogram of the subjects. The results showed that most groups perceived that they dressed similarly to the overall norms but that others did dress differently, thus confirming the findings of the previous work. Further research with the same sample showed that although clothing conformity was important to group membership it was insufficient alone for group acceptance or exclusion (Kelley & Eicher, 1970).

In a similar study Crowley (1971) investigated the differences in clothing conformity among groups that differed in number of reciprocated friendships. Using data collected

from 202 eleventh grade girls, she found that the number of reciprocated friendship choices did not seem to affect clothing conformity.

In analyzing the relationship between belongingness and clothing conformity, of 10 and 11 year old girls, Tilghman (1971) found that a feeling of belongingness was not significantly related to clothing conformity, but that the freedom to conform provided by money was the best predictor of clothing conformity.

Takahashi and Newton (1967) investigated individuals' self-concepts and perceptions of clothing conformity. Clothing conformity, nonconformity, clothing indifference, clothing norms, and self-concept were measured. The results indicated a significant relationship between the self-concept of an individual and the reference groups' concepts of clothing conformity, nonconformity, or indifference. Once again the research indicated a strong tendency to conform to reference group clothing norms.

In 1968 Taylor and Compton found that conformity in dress was highly correlated with interaction-oriented personalities. Maintaining harmonious relationships with others was also important. Therefore, they may conform to keep harmony in their group.

The relationship between clothing conformity, self-esteem, and security was investigated by four researchers between 1971 and 1973. Benson (1971), Hussey (1971), and Laubach (1972) used a sample of high school students, and Brousil (1973) used both junior high and college students. Both Hussey and Benson found that a low self-esteem was related to a high level of conformity. Laubach reported that conformity in dress gave some of the students in her study a feeling of security. While Brousil's research showed a positive relationship between ideal body image and age, only low correlations were established between clothing conformity and other variables.

During the early seventies other researchers were also investigating the relationships between clothing conformity and demographic variables such as grade level, age, grade point average, and the population of a hometown or a school district. Three researchers in this area were Heidle (1970), Frye (1971), and Warren (1971). Frye and Warren used a sample of high school students, whereas Heidle used a college age sample. Heidle and Frye found an inverse relationship between clothing conformity and age and grade level. Although not reported by the other two researchers, Warren reported a significant relationship between grade point average and clothing conformity, but only for boys.

Charron (1977) reported results that were very similar to those of Frye and Heidle. She used a sample of college age males in her study and she found that they are more likely to conform in their first few years at school, but become less conforming during their last year. Furthermore, newly graduated men were more conforming than the seniors. These results seem to suggest that conformity is higher in a new situation and begins to decline as that situation becomes more familiar.

Gurel and Gurel (1972) used another method to measure conformity. She administered the California F-scale of authoritarianism and the Rokeach Dogmatism scale to 302 subjects. The respondents were then categorized by the researcher and an assistant according to their style of dress. The results showed that the group of students whose clothing was most conforming to adult society, did not score highest on the measure of conformity used. In fact, the group whose clothing was most homogeneous within but the least conforming to societal standards scored highest on the measure of conformity.

Male and female differences in clothing conformity and perceptions of clothing conformity were analyzed by Swanson (1971). Her subjects, 210 university men and women, agreed on the perception that women were more conforming in their dress than men. The men's behavior was actually more conforming than the women's, however.

Beasley (1978) investigated the relationship between birth order, area of college study, and clothing conformity. No significant relationship was found between birth order and clothing conformity. On the other hand, there was a relationship between area of study and clothing conformity. The results showed that students in the college of Home Economics were more likely to conform than students in Business or Arts and Sciences.

Clothing attractiveness, personal attractiveness, awareness of clothing modes, peer acceptance, social acceptance, participation, and leadership potential of randomly selected high school students were measured by Creekmore in 1980. She found significant correlations which indicating that attractive students generally wore attractive clothing that conformed to the clothing modes. Moreover, she found that attractive boys were more aware of the clothing modes and conformed more to them than the girls.

Using the same data Morganosky and Creekmore (1981) investigated leadership and the interrelationships between clothing mode awareness, mode conformity, clothing attractiveness, and prestige clothing. Clothing attractiveness and mode awareness were significant in explaining leadership, but clothing conformity was not. These results are consistent with those found by Kelley and Eicher (1970).

Toerien (1987) used the revised Gurel-Creekmore Clothing Interest Scale in a cross-cultural investigation. Using students from Virginia Tech and the University of Pretoria, South Africa. She was particularly interested in clothing conformity because it appeared through observation that the American students were much less conforming than the South African students who appeared to be very conforming. The difference on the clothing conformity measure was not significant. One reason for this may be that the South African students conformed because they felt that it was right, and the conformity scale in the research measured the students' need to conform for group approval.

Research in Psychographics

Although a great deal of research has been done using psychographics, two reasons stand out for the lack of published reports in the apparel industry. The first and foremost reason is that the majority of psychographic research has been done in the area of packaged goods. Secondly, the majority of this research is market research conducted by business organizations who do not share results, because they use these results to be more competitive than other marketing firms.

Since the late 1970's apparel manufacturers and retailers have begun to use psychographics to predict consumer demands. In 1977 Richards and Sturmann conducted a psychographic market study for Warner's, an apparel manufacturer that specializes in brassieres. The battery of 92 attitude/need statements that covered areas such as personal relationships, clothing importance, value, and brand preferences, was given to over 1,000 women. The data were factor analyzed and resulted in the determination of five market segments. Out of the five segments Warner's chose to market a new product to three of them and found great success in the "Starkers" sheer stretch bra for the "outgoing" market segment.

Most research on shopping centers assumes that they are all pretty much the same but a study by Quarles (1982) showed that this is not so. Customer patronage to one mall or the other may depend on fashion lifestyle or store fashion image. The researcher found that in a group of three malls, all within 30 minutes of each other, each mall presented an image and thus drew customers whose fashion lifestyle reflected that mall image. An example of this might be a consumer who is interested in bargain prices attracted to a discount outlet mall.

In the past 10 years it has become increasingly important for retailers to differentiate themselves to

retain a competitive edge. One way of doing this is through the use of psychographics. Using psychographics Thorpe and Avery (1983) determined the characteristics that discriminated between a specific specialty store's customers and non-customers. They found that 24 variables successfully classified 85% of the 459 respondents. The variables ranged from personality characteristics to objective factors such as whether or not the subject had a line of credit at the store.

Summary

The review of literature was divided into four sections, (1) Jungian theory and the MBTI, (2) research using the MBTI, (3) research on clothing conformity, and (4) research in psychographics.

The first section was provided to help the reader in understanding the theory behind the MBTI. Then research using the MBTI, in the second section, showed that this measurement is useful in career and marriage counselling, educational research to improve curriculum, identifying management style, and understanding various personality characteristics.

Furthermore, the research in clothing conformity indicated that people tend to dress in a conforming manner which is in line with the norms of their chosen reference

group, and that conforming clothing behavior is observed as an overt behavior or personal characteristic.

In psychographic studies the researchers attempt to create a lifestyle profile of the target market. They do this by examining personality characteristics as well as overt behaviors that differentiate lifestyles. By understanding the personality and mannerisms of the target market, the psychographic researchers can help to adjust media and product specifications that will attract the targeted consumers more readily.

To the knowledge of the researcher no investigation between clothing conformity and the MBTI personality scale has been conducted before. Therefore, this research is designed to analyze the relationship between clothing conformity scores and the personality types of a selected group of adult males.

Chapter III

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Purpose

The purpose of this research was to analyze the relationship between clothing conformity and the personality type of a selected group of adult males.

Objectives

1. To assess the degree of clothing conformity of each adult male within the sample.
2. To determine the personality type of each adult male.
3. To analyze the relationship between clothing conformity and personality type of each adult male.

Operational Definitions

Clothing Conformity is an adherence to the clothing norms of a specific reference group in order to attain a feeling of belonging or approval. For this research it will be measured by the conformity subscale of the Gurel-Creekmore Clothing Interest Scale.

Personality Type is one of 16 combinations of two attitude preferences (extraversion-introversion and judging-perceiving) and two function preferences (sensation-intuition and thinking-feeling); as measured by the MBTI.

Introverted attitude preference is a bias of interests toward an individual's personal thoughts and feelings rather than external objects.

Extraverted attitude preference is a bias of interests towards the environment and other people rather than personal thoughts.

Intuitive function preference is a bias of interests to perceive the possibilities, relationships, and meanings of experiences.

Sensing function preference is a bias of interests to perceive the immediate, real, and practical facts of experiences.

Feeling function preference is a bias of interests to make decisions based on subjective and personal values and how they matter to others.

Thinking function preference is a bias of interests to make decisions based on objective and impersonal facts, considering causes and implications of events.

Perceiving attitude preference is a bias of interests to live mostly in a spontaneous, flexible manner, intending to understand life and adapt to its changes.

Judging attitude preference is a bias of interests to live mostly in a distinct, planned, and orderly fashion, intending to regulate and control the events incurred in life.

Hypotheses

The following designations were used in the null hypotheses for this research:

AT1 = The continuum between extraversion and introversion.

FN1 = The continuum between sensation and intuition.

FN2 = The continuum between thinking and feeling.

AT2 = The continuum between judging and perceiving.

- 1) Clothing conformity mean scores do not differ between extroverted and introverted personality types.
- 2) Clothing conformity mean scores do not differ between sensing and intuitive personality types.
- 3) Clothing conformity mean scores do not differ between thinking and feeling personality types.
- 4) Clothing conformity mean scores do not differ between judging and perceiving personality types.
- 5) There is no two way effect between AT1 and AT2 on clothing conformity.
- 6) There is no two way effect between AT1 and FN1 on clothing conformity.

- 7) There is no two way effect between AT1 and FN2 on clothing conformity.
- 8) There is no two way effect between AT2 and FN1 on clothing conformity
- 9) There is no two way effect between AT2 and FN2 on clothing conformity.
- 10) There is no two way effect between FN1 and FN2 on clothing conformity.
- 11) There is no three way effect between AT1, AT2, and FN1 on clothing conformity.
- 12) There is no three way effect between AT1, AT2, and FN2 on clothing conformity.
- 13) There is no three way effect between AT1, FN1, and FN2 on clothing conformity.
- 14) There is no three way effect between AT2, FN1, and FN2 on clothing conformity.
- 15) There is no four way effect between AT1, AT2, FN1, and FN2 on clothing conformity.

Limitation

The sample was drawn from a population with a higher than average education level. Therefore, the results may not be generalized to the general population.

Assumption

Psychological type and clothing conformity are measurable.

CHAPTER IV

PROCEDURE

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between clothing conformity and the personality type of a selected group of adult males. The procedure that was followed in this study is discussed in the following order: selection of the instruments used; selection of the sample; collection of the data; and analysis of the data.

Selection of the Instruments

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

A review of instruments purporting to measure personality types according to Jungian theory indicated that the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) was most feasible for this study. This instrument can be used in its present form without adjustments and has been shown to be best suited for an adult population (McCaulley & Myers, 1986). Furthermore, the MBTI is the most frequently used in its original form as well as in its revised form. Due to the widespread use of the MBTI there is a great deal of information to support its reliability and validity (McCaulley & Myers, 1986).

Internal consistency reliability estimates for the MBTI were calculated using split half reliabilities in a

product moment correlation with Spearman-Brown prophecy formula correction. With a sample size of 15,791 males the internal consistency estimates were .82 for the extraversion-introversion scale, .84 for the sensing-intuitive scale, .82 for the thinking-feeling scale, and .86 for the judging-perceiving scale (McCaulley & Myers, 1986, p.166).

Test-retest reliability on agreement of type categories was calculated with a five week test interval. The 67 male respondent's test-retest reliability was; .76 for the extraversion-introversion scale, .84 for the sensing-intuitive scale, .79 for the thinking-feeling scale, and .82 for the judging-perceiving scale.

Bradway (1964) assumed that personality types do exist, and that they are recognizable to the individual as well as to close friends and relatives. In his study he compared the self-typing and MBTI scores of Jungian analysts, familiar with type theory. The results showed 100% agreement on the extraversion-introversion dimension, 68% agreement on the sensation-intuition dimension, and 61% agreement on the thinking-feeling dimension. Results on the judging-perceiving dimension were not reported because the respondents did not type themselves on this dimension.

Strickler and Ross (1962) studied peer evaluation of high school students using the MBTI. The results indicated a statistically significant agreement between self and peer

evaluations but at a modest magnitude. Furthermore, the results of the previously reported Cohen, Cohen, and Cross study (1981) also supported construct validity of the MBTI.

The MBTI was developed by Katherine C. Briggs and her daughter Isabel Briggs-Myers (Mattoon, 1981). The items were empirically selected by using the responses of persons whose type was presumed to be known. The statements that discriminated between these persons were then chosen for use in the MBTI. In its current form the MBTI measures the personality dimensions described by Jung: extraversion-introversion; sensation-intuition; and thinking-feeling. The MBTI also adds a fourth dimension which was inferred in Jung's writings, that of judgment-perception (Mattoon, 1981).

Participants in the current study were given a forced choice questionnaire where in they had to choose between two polar ideas, both of which are valuable but one of which is preferable to each subject. This forced choice format avoids the bias which may occur due to social desirability response tendencies (McCaulley & Myers, 1986). These questionnaires were then computer scored to determine personality type.

Clothing Conformity Subscale

A review of methods to measure conformity revealed many ways to evaluate the use of clothing to comply with group norms. The scale used in this research was the clothing conformity subscale in the Gurel-Creekmore Clothing Interest Scale, as revised by Bosari (1978) for the removal of sex and age bias questions. This instrument is the revised Importance of Clothing Questionnaire developed by Creekmore and four graduate students in 1968 (Fetterman, 1968). The Importance of Clothing Questionnaire was tested for construct validity by Gurel in 1974. At this time Gurel changed the name of the "approval" scale to "conformity". The subscale renamed by Gurel (1974) and revised by Bosari (1978) is feasible for this study because it may be removed from the body of the questionnaire. This is possible due to the fact that each subscale was designed to measure separate and different aspects of clothing interest. Also it is the only measure of clothing conformity found in the questionnaire form that is compatible with the MBTI, as well as having no gender or age bias. The subscale has been used alone once by Beasley (1978). The results of a correlation between it and another conformity test used showed that the validity of the subscale was significant at 0.05.

The Sample

The questionnaire was given to all members of four fraternities who attended the March 8, 1988 regularly scheduled meeting of each group. Ninety-three fraternity brothers were surveyed and 83 responses were usable. The other ten were not used due to improper completion or incompleteness. In exchange for these groups' time and effort the researcher presented the results of this study to them at a later meeting.

Data Collection

The researcher obtained permission to contact and complete the data collection at Georgia State University. The presidents of the fraternities were then contacted to obtain consent to gather data at a regular meeting. Four fraternities agreed to participate in the research, Sigma Nu, Pi Kappa Alpha, Tau Kappa Epsilon, and Lambda Chi. The researcher and two helpers attended the March 8, 1988 meetings and administered the test.

Each subject received an envelope containing the MBTI test booklet and answer sheet, the clothing conformity subscale, and a brief questionnaire requesting information on age,

sex, and occupation. Each respondent completed the questionnaire and then returned it, in the envelope, to the researcher. At one meeting eight respondents left before finishing the test due to time constraints. The MBTI test question booklets and scoring sheets were donated to the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University Career Counselling Service, and the Family and Child Development department, after use in this study.

Statistical Analysis

Each respondents answers were placed on an optical scan sheet, processed, and transferred directly to the mainframe computer.

Because the purpose of this research was to analyze the relationships between clothing conformity and personality type according to the MBTI a two to the fourth factorial ANOVA was used. The two to the fourth factorial ANOVA analyzed the four main effects of personality functions and attitudes on conformity, as well as, the two and three way interaction effects between continuum and conformity.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this research was to analyze the relationships between clothing conformity and the dimensions of personality type, as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), of a selected group of young adult males. The MBTI and a clothing conformity scale were administered to 93 male members of fraternities at Georgia State University. Of the 93 forms administered, complete usable data was obtained for 83 respondents. An ANOVA was used to determine if the respondent's mean clothing conformity score was affected by the four dimensions of personality (extraversion-introversion; sensation-intuition; thinking-feeling; and judging-perceiving), as well as determining any two or three way interactions.

Description of the sample

The population for this research consisted of all of the male members of four fraternities at Georgia State University who attended the regularly scheduled meetings on March 8, 1988. The average age of the respondents was 21 with a range from 18 to 27.

Living Arrangements

The majority of the respondents, 74.7%, lived with parents or relatives. The second largest group (18.1%) lived with friends. Only 7.2% lived alone. The large majority of respondents still living at home may be explained by the rising cost of living in metropolitan areas such as Atlanta. (Table 1)

Income

Seventy out of the 83 men sampled worked part-time and 13 worked full-time. The average income was between \$10,000 and \$14,999 per year, with the most frequent salary between \$5,000 to \$9,999. The respondents reporting \$30,000 per year or more may have been reporting a household income rather than a personal income, thus explaining why they were separated from the majority of the sample's response (Table 1).

Marital Status

Of the 83 men sampled, 81 (97.6%) listed their marital status as single-never married. One man reported his marital status as widowed and one did not respond to the question. Because the man reporting his marital status as widowed also reported that his wife made his clothing

TABLE 1
DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Living Arrangements of Respondents

<u>Living Arrangement</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
parent or relative	62	74.7
friends	15	18.1
alone	6	7.2
total	83	100.0

Income of Respondents

<u>Income per year</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
\$ 000 - 4,999	22	26.5
5,000 - 9,999	28	33.7
10,000 - 14,999	14	16.9
15,000 - 19,999	2	2.4
20,000 - 24,999	0	0.0
25,000 - 29,999	1	1.2
30,000 or more	16	19.3
Total	83	100.0

Persons Making Clothing Choices for Respondents

<u>Person Making Choice</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
respondent	74	89.2
parent	4	4.8
wife	1	1.2
girlfriend	4	4.8
Total	83	100.0

choices it is possible that his wife is either recently deceased or that he made an error when filling out the opscan sheet.

Clothing Choice

The respondents were asked to indicate who made most of their clothing choices. Eighty-nine percent said that they choose their own clothing. Five percent of the respondents said their parents made the choice. One man reported that his wife made his clothing choices, and five percent listed a girl friend (Table 1).

MBTI Response Categories

The MBTI defines four personality dimension continua. The interaction of these four continua creates 16 possible personality types. All but one, the ISFP (introverted, sensing, feeling, perceiving type), was found in the sample. Since the ISFP occurs relatively infrequently, this is not surprising (Keirsey & Bates, 1984). The four most frequently found personality types were the ESTJs (extraverted, sensing, thinking, judging types) and the ESTPs (extraverted, sensing, thinking, perceiving types), each with 15.7% of the sample, the INFPs (introverted, intuitive, feeling, perceiving types), with 14.5% of the sample, and

the ENFPs (extraverted, intuitive, feeling, perceiving types), with 12% of the sample. Table 2 shows the distribution, frequency, and percent of types, as well as a normative distribution of average age male college students (Normative sample found in McCaulley & Myers, 1986, p. 46). The high and low percentages in these data correspond fairly well with the normative sample except in three of the most highly represented types (INTP, ESTJ, and ENFP) where the percentage is much higher in the sample data than in the normative data. This may be explained by the use of homogeneous groups, such as fraternities, instead of a random sample.

Differences in Clothing Conformity Along Personality Dimension Continuum

In this study there were: more extraverted than introverted respondents (50 and 33 respectively), more sensing than intuitive (47 and 36), more thinking than feeling (62 and 21), and more perceiving than judging (50 and 33). The larger number of extraverts than introverts may be explained by the sample being members of fraternities. Members of fraternities may tend to be more extraverted because the sociability and multiplicity of relationships that fraternities offer are desired by extraverts (Keirse & Bates, 1984).

TABLE 2
PERSONALITY DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE

Personality Type	Sample Frequency	Sample Percentage	Normative Sample Percentage
ISTJ	8	9.6	10.6
ISFJ	4	4.8	6.2
INFJ	1	1.2	2.9
INFP	0	0.0	5.1
INTJ	2	2.4	4.3
ISTP	5	6.0	6.7
INFP	1	1.2	5.8
INTP	12	14.5	5.8
ESTP	13	15.7	6.5
ESFP	3	3.6	5.4
ENFP	10	12.0	7.5
ENTP	6	7.2	6.2
ESTJ	13	15.7	11.2
ESFJ	1	1.2	6.6
ENFJ	1	1.2	3.7
ENTJ	3	3.6	5.4
Total	83	100.0	----

Normative sample from Myers & McCaulley, 1986, p 46.

-E = extravert

-I = introvert

-S = sensing

-N = intuitive

-T = thinking

-F = feeling

-J = judging

-P = perceiving

The higher number of sensing and thinking types over the intuitive and feeling types may be explained by gender. This is supported by Hai (1983) who found that men tend to be more sensing and thinking than intuitive and feeling.

The data presented in Table 3 illustrates the four personality dimension continuum as the main effects on the clothing conformity mean score, and the two and three way interactions as secondary effects. The information presented indicates that there is a significant difference, $F = 7.0$, $p = 0.0101$, between the clothing conformity of extraverts and introverts. It also shows that the difference between the clothing conformity of judging and perceiving personality types tend to differ. Although not significant, an interaction between the extraversion-introversion dimension and the thinking-feeling dimension showed a tendency for clothing conformity scores of the thinking-feeling dimension to be dependent upon the extraversion-introversion dimension.

The mean values in Table 3 show that extraverts conform significantly more than introverts in their clothing norms. These results are consistent with those of Matthews et al. (1981), Norman & Watson (1976), Cooper & Scalise (1974), and Ginsburg (1972). Theoretically, extraverts take their cues on social desirability from the people around them, thus adapting their actions to the actions of others,

TABLE 3

PERSONALITY EFFECTS ON CLOTHING CONFORMTIY

	N	Mean Clothing Conformity Score	F value	P value
MAIN EFFECTS				
Extraversion(E)	50	2.71	7.00	0.0101
Introversion(I)	33	1.93		

Sensing(S)	47	2.38	0.31	0.5783
Intuitive(I)	36	2.25		

Thinking(T)	62	2.28	0.06	0.8031
Feeling(F)	21	2.36		

Judging(J)	50	2.60	2.96	0.0902
Perceiving(P)	33	2.04		

INTERACTIONS				
EI*SN			0.18	0.6731
EI*TF			3.22	0.0773
EI*JP			0.00	0.9751
SN*TF			0.01	0.9225
SN*JP			0.73	0.3943
TF*JP			1.49	0.2262
EI*SN*TF			1.44	0.2346
EI*SN*JP			0.03	0.8528
EI*TF*JP			0.47	0.4965
SN*TF*JP			0.54	0.4640

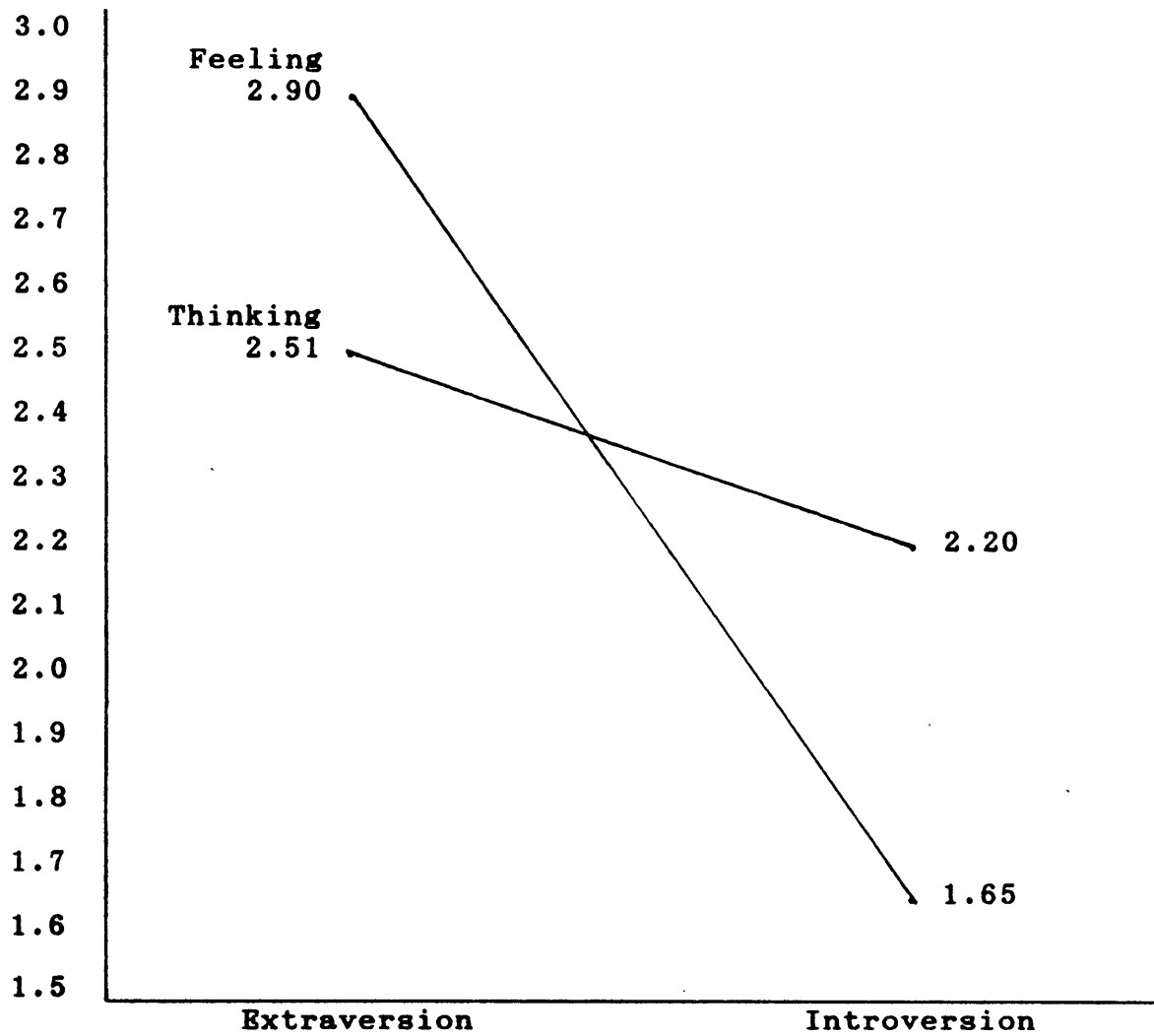
* Indicates interaction between

while introverts take their cues on social desirability from internal sources, thus they do not adapt their behavior because outward cues warrant it.

The mean values in Table 3 also show that, although not significant, judging personality types tend to conform more than perceiving types in their clothing norms. These results are consistent with those of Carlson and Levy (1973). They found that judging personality types emphasize concreteness and closure, while perceiving types were more open to change and new possibilities. The concreteness of the judging personalities may explain their tendency to conform, while the perceiving types' openness to change may explain their trend toward lower conformity scores, because they are more approving of things outside of the norm. This is also supported by Hall and McKinnon (1969) who found a strong positive relationship between creativity and perceiving types.

Although not significant, there was a trend toward an interaction between the extraversion- introversion dimension and the thinking - feeling dimension. This indicated that the mean score for clothing conformity and thinking or feeling personality types tend to be dependent upon whether the individual is extraverted or introverted. Thus, an extravert who is also a feeling type is likely to have a higher clothing conformity score than an extraverted,

TABLE 4
INTERACTION BETWEEN EXTRAVERSION-INTROVERSION
AND THINKING-FEELING DIMENSIONS



sensing type. On the other hand, an introverted, feeling type is likely to have a lower clothing conformity score than an introverted, sensing type (Table 4).

There were no other statistically significant differences in mean clothing conformity scores due to the other main effects or other two and three way interactions.

Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to analyze the relationships between clothing conformity and the dimensions of personality type, as measured by the MBTI, of a selected group of young adult males. These will be discussed in the following order: 1) the main effects of the four personality dimensions, (2) two way interactions between main effects, and (3) three way interactions between main effects. The four way interaction will not be discussed because the lack of one personality type did not allow for a balanced statistical model.

Personality Dimensions and Clothing Conformity

Hypothesis 1: Clothing conformity mean scores do not differ between extraverts and introverts.

Extraverts had significantly higher clothing conformity mean scores than introverts, at the $p = 0.0101$ level. Therefore, null Hypothesis 1 was not accepted.

Hypothesis 2: Clothing conformity mean scores do not differ between sensing and intuitive personality types.

The analysis of variance showed no significant differences between clothing conformity mean scores for sensing and intuitive personality types. Therefore, null Hypothesis 2 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 3: Clothing conformity mean scores do not differ between thinking and feeling personality types.

Analysis of variance showed no significant differences between clothing conformity mean scores for thinking and feeling personality types. Therefore, null Hypothesis 3 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 4: Clothing conformity mean scores do not differ between judging and perceiving personality types.

Judging types tended to have higher clothing conformity mean scores than perceiving types, however, they did not reach significance. Therefore, null Hypothesis 4 was not rejected.

Two Way Interactions Between Main Effects

The following designations were used in the null hypothesis for this research:

AT1 = The continuum between extraversion and introversion.

FN1 = The continuum between sensation and intuition.

FN2 = The continuum between thinking and feeling.

AT2 = The continuum between judging and perceiving.

Hypothesis 5: There is no two way effect between AT1 and AT2 on clothing conformity.

Analysis of variance showed no two way effect on clothing conformity mean scores between AT1 and AT2. Therefore, null Hypothesis 5 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 6: There is no two way effect between AT1 and FN1 on clothing conformity.

Analysis of variance showed no two way effect on clothing conformity mean scores between AT1 and FN1. Therefore, null Hypothesis 6 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 7: There is no two way effect between AT1 and FN2 on clothing conformity.

Analysis of variance showed a tendency toward interaction between AT1 and FN2. However, it did not reach significance. Therefore, null Hypothesis 7 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 8: There is no two way effect between AT2 and FN1 on clothing conformity.

Analysis of variance showed no two way effect on clothing conformity mean scores between AT2 and FN1. Therefore, null Hypothesis 8 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 9: There is no two way effect between AT2 and FN2 on clothing conformity.

Analysis of variance showed no two way effect on clothing conformity mean scores between AT2 and FN2. Therefore, null Hypothesis 9 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 10: There is no two way effect between FN1 and FN2 on clothing conformity.

Analysis of variance showed no two way effect on clothing conformity mean scores between FN1 and FN2. Therefore, null Hypothesis 10 was not rejected.

Three Way Interactions Between Main Effects

Hypothesis 11: There is no three way effect between AT1, AT2 and FN1 on clothing conformity.

Analysis of variance showed no three way effect on clothing conformity mean scores between AT1, AT2, and FN1. Therefore, null Hypothesis 11 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 12: There is no three way effect between AT1, AT2 and FN2 on clothing conformity.

Analysis of variance showed no three way effect on clothing conformity mean scores between AT1, AT2, and FN2. Therefore, null Hypothesis 12 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 13: There is no three way effect between AT1, FN1 and FN2 on clothing conformity.

Analysis of variance showed no three way effect on clothing conformity mean scores between AT1, FN1, and FN2. Therefore, null Hypothesis 13 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 14: There is no three way effect between AT2, FN1 and FN2 on clothing conformity.

Analysis of variance showed no three way effect on clothing conformity mean scores between AT2, FN1, and FN2. Therefore, null Hypothesis 14 was not rejected.

Conclusions

The results of this study show that extraverted personality types were more conforming in clothing behavior than introverted types. These results were somewhat expected due to previous research done by Matthews et al. (1981), and the base of Jungian theory. Theoretically extraverts take their cues on social desirability from the world around them, while introverts use internal sources. Therefore, extraverts should be expected to be more conforming because they adapt their behavior to other's outward cues. Because the respondents all came from a sample with a higher than average educational level, however these results may not be generalized to the population as a whole.

Although not significant, we may speculate that the concreteness of judging types and the flexibility of perceiving types helps to explain why judging personality types may see a clothing norm as being right and follow it strictly. On the other hand, the flexible perceiving type may view the clothing norm as an adaptable mode of dress which may be changed and varied.

The interaction between extraversion-introversion and thinking-feeling, although not significant, was unexpected but interesting. It showed that the clothing conformity scores of the thinking-feeling dimension tend to be dependent on the extraversion-introversion dimension. An extravert who is also a feeling type may then tend to have a higher clothing conformity score than an extroverted sensing type. On the other hand, an introverted, feeling type is likely to have a lower clothing conformity score than an introverted, sensing type.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY

For thousands of years people have tried to understand the behaviors of others. At the end of the 19th century and beginning of the 20th, several psychologists wrote of the relationship between personality and clothing behavior. In the 1920's Carl Jung developed a theory of personality type which explained people's behaviors by categorizing the personality into four dimension continua. Clothing conformity, as one type of clothing behavior, is thought to be an overt manifestation of personality which may be related to personality type. The purpose of this research was to analyze the relationship between clothing conformity and personality type.

The instruments used in this study were the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the clothing conformity subscale of the Gurel-Creekmore Clothing Interest Scale. The MBTI was developed by Katherine C. Briggs and her daughter Isabel Briggs-Myers and is based on Jung's theory of personality type. It measures four personality dimension continua, which combine to create a possibility of 16 personality types. Conformity was measured with a subscale from the Gurel-Creekmore Clothing Interest Questionnaire.

The sample consisted of 83 male members of four fraternities at Georgia State University. This nonrandom convenience sample was chosen because of their accessibility to the researcher and willingness to participate.

A two to the fourth factorial ANOVA was used to analyze the differences in clothing conformity scores along the personality dimensions. The two and three way interactions were also analyzed through the use of this statistical model.

There was a significant difference between the clothing conformity scores of extraverts and introverts, $F = 7.0$, $p = 0.0101$. There was also a tendency toward higher scores for judging types than perceiving types. Furthermore, there was a trend toward interaction between the extraversion-introversion and the thinking-feeling dimension, however it did not reach significance.

Since the difference in clothing conformity scores was significant and extraverts' scores were higher the conclusion was made that extraverts were significantly more conforming than introverts. The difference between judging and perceiving personality types was not significant, although there was a tendency for judging types to score higher on clothing conformity than perceiving types. The

two way interaction between the extraversion-introversion and thinking-feeling dimensions showed a trend toward dependence, however, it did not reach significance.

CHAPTER VII

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

1. Past research indicates that personality type does not change significantly over the life span, but that a person may move along the dimension continua of personality types. Therefore, a future research study could look at the longitudinal changes in personality type and clothing conformity, to determine if the patterns are similar.
2. The variable of gender could be added to the same research model used here to determine whether women and men differ in their personality and clothing conformity.
3. Similar research could be done adding the variable of urban or rural to determine whether the larger clothing selection in a metropolitan area has an effect on clothing conformity.
4. Research could be done in a similar manner to determine whether perception of conformity and actual conformity differences are related to personality types.
5. Other variables such as age, area of the country, and occupation could be added to the model to determine if they have any effect on the relationship between clothing conformity and personality type.

6. The variables that were not significant but tended toward significance in this study could be researched further to determine whether the relationships are significant with other populations.

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APPENDIX

Read the following statements and indicate your answer on the blue opscan sheet with a #2 pencil.

1. Do you live with: 1 parents. 4 a spouse.
 2 relatives. 5 friend(s).
 3 alone.
2. Annual gross income: 1 \$00 - 4,999.
 2 \$5,000 - 9,999.
 3 \$10,000 - 14,999.
 4 \$15,000 - 19,999.
 5 \$20,000 - 24,999.
 6 \$25,000 - 29,999.
 7 \$30,000 or more.
3. Do you work: 1 full - time. or 2 part - time.
4. Marital status: 1 single, never married.
 2 married.
 3 seperated or divorced
 4 widowed
5. Who chooses most of your clothes: 1 you.
 2 your parents.
 3 your wife.
 4 if other specify _____

CLOTHING CONFORMITY SCALE

Read the following statements and rate each according to the scale given below.

Scale: Almost always, very few exceptions = 5
 Usually, majority of the time = 4
 Sometimes = 3
 Seldom, not very often = 2
 Almost never, very few exceptions = 1

6. I wear what I like even though some of my friends do not approve.
7. I ask my friends what they are wearing to an event before I decide what to wear.

8. I wear different clothes to impress people.
9. When I buy a new article of clothing I try to buy something similar to what my friends are wearing.
10. I get clothes for a special occasion if the clothes I have are not the type my friends will be wearing.
11. I try to dress like my friends so that others will know I am part of the group.
12. I am uncomfortable when my clothes are different from all others at a party.
13. I feel a part of the group if I am dressed like my friends.
14. I would rather miss something than wear clothes that are not appropriate.

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