

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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Title: FASHION LEADERSHIP AS RELATED TO ATTITUDES TOWARD CHANGE

AND SOCIOECONOMIC LEVEL AMONG KOREAN COLLEGE WOMEN

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The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between fashion innovativeness, fashion opinion leadership, attitudes toward change and socioeconomic level; and to identify the characteristics of fashion innovators and fashion opinion leaders among Korean college women living in a transitional society.

Measures selected for this study consisted of the Schrank Fashion Innovation Inventory (1977), the Schrank Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory (1973), the Schrank and Sugawara Attitudes Toward Change Inventory (1977), and socioeconomic questions.

The questionnaires translated into Korean were completed by 94 Home Economics female students of Seoul National University in Seoul, Korea in November 1977.

For statistical analysis, the Pearson r correlation coefficients, analysis of variance, and t-tests were used; and level of significance was established at .05.

The results indicated that high fashion innovativeness was significantly related to high fashion opinion leadership.

($r = .3493$ $P < .01$ $df = 92$) No significant correlation was found between fashion innovativeness and socioeconomic level. ($r = .1533$ $df = 92$) There was a significant relationship found between fashion innovativeness and attitudes-toward-change. ($r = .2092$ $P < .05$ $df = 92$) No significant relationship was found between fashion opinion leadership and socioeconomic level. ($r = .1138$ $df = 92$) High fashion opinion leadership scores were accompanied by positive attitude toward change scores. ($r = .3337$ $P < .01$ $df = 92$)

No significant differences were found in socioeconomic level of four sub-sample groups; fashion innovators, fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovative communicators (who exhibit high scores on both fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership), and non-fashion innovative communicators. ($F = .8104$ $df = 93$) These results seemed to indicate that fashion leadership was relatively evenly distributed throughout the socioeconomic strata. Significant differences were found in attitude-toward-change scores of the four sub-sample groups. ($F = 5.237$ $P < .01$ $df = 93$) Fashion innovative communicators held significantly more positive attitudes toward change than did fashion opinion leaders. ($t = 2.754$ $P < .01$ $df = 45$)

The overlap of fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership (29%) among the Korean sample was very similar to that (33%) of American college women researched by Schrank (1970).

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Among Korean College Women

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FASHION LEADERSHIP AS RELATED TO ATTITUDES
TOWARD CHANGE AND SOCIOECONOMIC LEVEL
AMONG KOREAN COLLEGE WOMEN

CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

Man is a creature of habit, yet at the same time, the nature of an individual in a society can be characterized as changeable and unstable. With these characteristics, some individuals maintain social norms, values, and customs or tradition. And, others are more concerned about the creation of new ideas and practices in human behavior. In order to understand this two-fold nature of human behavior, it is important to explore the meanings and motivation for fashion diffusion behavior as one aspect of an individual's actions which are shaped within society, culture, and social interaction.

According to Schrank and Gilmore (1973:534), fashion can be defined "as a socially derived valuation of an idea, practice or product, or as a form of collective behavior, and therefore has implication for many facets of human group living." Blumer (1969:290) believed that fashion acts "as a very adept mechanism for enabling people to adjust in an orderly and unified way to a moving and changing world which is potentially full of anarchic possibilities." As an ongoing process of change, fashion works on man's present, and shapes his future. The study of fashion diffusion in clothing may contribute to the understanding of human behavior and the ongoing process of change in society. Further, new clothing styles act as a nonverbal means of communication for the self as well as for others, and a status symbol that is easily exhibited and measured.

Therefore, study of the influence of fashion diffusion behavior

in clothing will contribute to the study of social change, group living, and individual behavior.

Need for the Study

Korean women live in a society which is now undergoing not only dramatic and rapid socioeconomic change but also a transformation in psychological spheres due to the influx of Western culture and education. These rapid changes permeate every facet of life, and produce social problems in contemporary Korean society. Different attitudes and values in group living, norm-conflicts, and personal disorientation have resulted from the process of change from tradition.

Korean women have long worn traditional dress but have recently adopted Western dress. Moreover, Western fashion appears to have been diffused extravagantly and rapidly among young, educated Korean women. Western dress now has become a part of daily life among Korean young women except for ceremonial days and leisure time. The new fashion, as a generally accepted style in their daily lives, may function as a means to enable Korean college students to adjust to changing society, if as Blumer suggested, fashion is a mechanism for socializing individuals to change.

Korean college women living in a transitional society can be grouped into not only different socioeconomic levels on the basis of their parents' occupation, education and opportunity for social mobility, but also different personality characteristics. Some groups may venerate the old and traditional while others may respect the creation of new styles of clothing. Accordingly, some individuals

may be more tradition-oriented while others may be more present- and future-oriented, rather than bound to tradition. These differing values may affect the characteristics of adopters of new fashion in the realm of clothing.

According to Simmel (1904:130-155), and Barber (1957:146-150), fashion has been recognized as a form of class differentiation. Fashion innovators have traditionally been characterized as the elite or the upper socioeconomic levels. In contrast, King (1963:108-125), Blumer (1969:275-291), and Schrank and Gilmore (1973:534-543) argued that fashion is no longer a product of class differentiation in today's rapidly moving society. Blumer believed that fashion is a process of collective selection, and is followed by the people in all classes because it is the fashion, and not because of the separate prestige of the elite group. Based on their research, Schrank and Gilmore indicated that "innovativeness was not related to socioeconomic level, but instead, was fairly evenly distributed throughout the social strata (1973:588)."

Schrank and Gilmore pointed out that one of the shortcomings of current diffusion theory is that there is an emphasis on the diffusion of fashion on a national scale without adequate consideration of the roles of individuals in the process of fashion diffusion behavior (1973:540). Klapp (1969:80-84) suggested that fashion is no longer a product of class differentiation, but serves as a means of ego differentiation. Clothing may act as a nonverbal means of communication to achieve a desire for self-identity and to protect the fragile individual from the power of social changes in a mass society. If

fashion functions as a means of ego-expression in contemporary society, then personality characteristics, such as attitude toward change, may be related to fashion leadership. According to Rogers (1962:208-211), innovators or early adopters as well as opinion leaders play key roles in the process of diffusion and adoption of new ideas, and act as change agents. Rogers also pointed out that innovators, as change agents, have high prestige in a social system oriented toward change, but have low prestige in a traditional social system (1962:194-195). In terms of the innovativeness of opinion leaders related to social system norms, he suggested that opinion leadership in a modern social system with norms oriented toward change is frequently found among innovators and early adopters, but in the traditional social system opinion leadership is greatest among early majority adopters (Rogers 1962:244-247). In a mass society, the elites and a huge number of people cannot be integrated into any broad groups or classes. The elites are vulnerable to the influence of the masses, just as the masses are vulnerable to mobilization by the elites (Light and Keller 1975:551-552). As Rogers pointed out, ongoing change-oriented leaders may have high prestige in a mass society oriented toward ceaseless and rapid change. Individuals may emphasize the search for their own identity in order to protect themselves from the normlessness of social change. Thus, as Klapp pointed out, fashion may work as a tool of ego-differentiation, and an individual's attitude toward change may affect his or her fashion leadership in a mass society.

Relatively little empirical research on human behavior related to fashion has been done in Korea. Therefore, in order to better

understand human behavior, a study of fashion diffusion behavior is needed to see if in fact a relationship exists between fashion innovativeness, fashion opinion leadership, attitude toward change, and socioeconomic level among Korean college women.

Purpose of the Study

The general purpose of this study is to investigate the relationships between fashion innovativeness, fashion opinion leadership, attitude toward change, and socioeconomic level among Korean college women; and to identify the characteristics of adopters of new fashion in the realm of clothing.

Objectives

Objectives to be used for the purpose of this study are:

1. To identify the characteristics of fashion innovators and fashion opinion leaders with relation to socioeconomic level and attitude toward change among Korean college women.
2. To see if the Fashion Innovation Inventory used recently in American culture can be applied to Korean culture.
3. To contribute to the understanding of human behavior and social change in Korea.
4. To contribute to the study of clothing and human behavior cross-culturally.

CHAPTER II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A review of literature pertinent to the study was made in order to determine the significance of the problem studied and assist in the interpretation of the results. In order to understand the nature of fashion change and identify potential characteristics of fashion leadership among Korean college women living in a changing society, the review included the following topics: 1) the theory of fashion, 2) the theory of the characteristics of the adopter of new ideas, 3) empirical studies of fashion leadership, 4) the adoption of Western dress in transitional Korean society.

The Theory of Fashion

The following section includes literature regarding the interpretation of fashion theory related to class differentiation, and the ideas of collective selection and ego differentiation in the process of fashion diffusion behavior.

Lauer (1973:168-175) viewed the elite as occupational groups which have high status in modern society. He discussed the relationship between elitism and change. Lauer pointed out that social roles and position of the elite on the problem of tradition vs. modernity should be considered in the process of change, and the elite and the changes vary, from modern social systems oriented toward change to traditional social systems. Elites may inhibit as well as impel, and adapt to as well as lead, in change. Therefore, Lauer's perspectives on change and elitism may imply that change-oriented leadership exists to some extent in all classes. C. Wright Mills (1956:296-297),

however, used the term "power elite" to describe military-industrial and political bureaucrats. These three elite groups sit at the top of pyramids of power and make decisions that trickle down through the bureaucratic system. Likewise, many fashion theorists have focused on the fashion leaders from the elite and the upper socioeconomic levels. The elite introduce new fashion, and the lower classes imitate the dress of the elite. This trickle down theory has been recognized by economists and sociologists.

In his theory of the leisure class, economist Veblen (1912:118-131) set forth the classic view of the diffusion of fashion. According to Veblen, a fashion innovation is first adopted by members of the leisure class who have money. The rich householder consumes conspicuously in order to display his wealth and position, and his wife consumes in order to display her husband's wealth and position.

Like Veblen, Simmel (1904:130-155) viewed fashion as a product of class differentiation. The upper class adopts distinctive forms of dress or insignia as a form of class differentiation; in contrast, lower classes imitate these insignia as a means of identification with the upper class. The distinguishing emblems of the elite trickle down through the class pyramid. As a consequence, the elite class again attempts to introduce new insignia, but then is ultimately copied by the lower classes. The fashion cycle thus repeats, producing an ongoing process of innovation and emulation.

Barber (1957) also emphasized the trickle down process of the fashion system:

"The upper classes get the new 'fashions' first, and then the 'fashions' trickle down through the class structure. By the time they have seeped to the bottom, a new 'fashion' has been adopted at the top, symbolizing its superior social class position (Barber 1957:151)."

In addition, Sapir (1931:139-144) and Robinson (1961:376-398) noted that the vertical flow of fashion adoption is a symbol of status differentiation.

King (1963:108-125) argued that the trickle down theory does not reflect fashion adoption behavior in contemporary society. According to him, "The modern social environment, mass communications, and the fashion industry's manufacturing and merchandising strategies, however, almost impede any systematic vertical flow process (1963: 111)." He voiced a rebuttal to the trickle down theory and suggested that each group has its own leaders of fashion in modern society.

In 1969, Blumer provided additional insights into modern fashion theory. He saw fashion as a process of collective selection instead of class differentiation:

"The fashion mechanism appears not in response to a need of class differentiation and class emulation but in response to a wish to be in fashion, to be abreast of what has good standing, to express new tastes which are emerging in a changing world (Blumer 1969:282)."

Fashion, as an ongoing process of change, is followed by the people of all classes in order to be in fashion, rather than to emulate the prestige group. Blumer regarded fashion as an adept mechanism which allows people to adjust to a changing and shifting society. He suggested three social functions of fashion: 1) a means of controlling social forms by introducing uniformity of selection; 2) serves as a means to detach people from the hold of the past, and also

3) to shape the immediate future by presenting new innovations (1969:289-290). Fashion disregards the past, works on the present and shapes the future. As Nystrom (1928:iii) earlier pointed out, fashion is a significant force in human life: being out of fashion is being out of life. Fashion change is "a mirror of social change" (Boden 1967:154-156) and a barometer of individual change in human daily life.

Klapp (1969) has written about the fashion phenomena in a mass society. He also pointed out that fashion is no longer a product of class differentiation, but believed it is a means of ego differentiation:

"We live in an era of ever freer identity experimentation and revision. The tendency to extremes in fad and fashion is one expression of a growing liberty to decide what one will be. This is generated by identity problems, prevalent in a mass society which frustrates the ego and makes it scream for attention (Klapp 1969:84)."

Fashion does not filter down from the top, but acts as nonverbal communication related to ego expression to protect the fragile normlessness of social change in modern society. According to Klapp, the freedom of new fashion symbolizes wholeness of self in a rapidly changing society. And, as Sapir (1931:143) earlier said: "Fashion concerns itself closely and intimately with the ego....people differ in their sensitiveness to changing fashion in these more remote forms of human expressiveness." Furthermore, Klapp warned of the danger of stylelessness in a mass society:

"A changing society wants either a leader to move forward to or one to go back to. A mass society, with its confusion of styles, especially needs symbolic leaders - hankers for them, sometimes screams when it sees them....to cure the style problem

whose roots go deep in the violation of symbols with processes like acculturation, mobility, secularization, and indiscriminate modernization (Klapp 1969:115)."

In contemporary society, fashion works not only as an adept mechanism for socializing people to change but as a means of ego expression resulting in stylelessness of clothing (which does not include either an integrity of style or a standard style regarded as typical for a specific group). Fashion leadership ceaselessly desires change to keep abreast with a rapidly moving society. According to Klapp, fashion is neither a product of elitism, nor a form of collective selection.

In his recent study of the social psychology of fashion (1973), König said:

"Fashion is not merely a superficial-decorative or disfiguring-feature of life but is an important regulator and means of expression within the community of men....not only man's status in his community but also the way he expresses himself - and even his very self-image has depended from the very beginning of his existence as a species to a truly astonishing extent on that mysterious force we simply call fashion (König 1973:17)."

Fashion is a mysterious force in human life and works as a way of ego expression. In a mass society, the elite cannot form one group, and a huge number of people cannot form any broad social groupings (Light and Keller 1975:558). The elite is easily vulnerable to the influence of the masses; on the other hand, the masses are responsible for the great mobility in contemporary society. As a result, individuals may emphasize the search for their own identity, and may result in a lack of norm of style in fashion in a mass society.

In sum, fashion theorists have supported not only class differentiation but the idea of collective selection. As Klapp pointed out,

however, fashion may not be either a product of elitism or a form of collective selection, but instead, may be a means of ego differentiation in today's rapidly changing and shifting society. Therefore, fashion may require ceaselessly ongoing change-oriented leadership, in turn, an individual who has great change-oriented leadership may introduce the new fashion as a tool of ego expression. Further, as Klapp warned, the search for an individual identity through fashion may result in the danger of the normlessness of style in fashion in today's rapidly changing society.

Theory of the Characteristics of the Adopters of New Ideas

Rogers (1962), a rural sociologist, formulated a theory of the characteristics of the adopters in the diffusion of farm innovations on the basis of more than six hundred research studies conducted by rural sociologists. Rogers' theory has been applied by many researchers in the study of fashion diffusion behavior (Schrack 1970, Myers 1971, e.g.) He developed a paradigm of the adoption of innovations containing three major components: antecedent, process, and results. He described "antecedent" as the actor's identity which affects the adoption of new ideas (1962:305).

Six aspects of identity of adopters of innovations were suggested: security, values, mental ability and conceptual skill, social status, cosmopolitanism and opinion leadership. In addition, Rogers identified categories of adopters of innovations on the basis of time of adoption: innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, and laggards. He attempted to analyze the characteristics of these adopter categories

in relation to the six aspects of the actor's identity suggested above (1962:303-307).

According to Rogers, innovators, as change agents, play an important role in the adoption of new ideas. Innovators tend to be adventurous deviants from the system's norms and to introduce new ideas. Innovators are frequently of young age and a higher social class, tend to be socially active, and to use cosmopolite information sources. However, innovators may not be respected leaders of change, nor greatly influential in their social system.

A second category of adopters is the early adopter. The general profile of these people is characterized by younger age, and higher level of education and social class than those of later adopters. They tend to use mass media as a source of information, but less frequently than innovators. Early adopters tend to be more socially active and more respected and influential than later adopters and innovators. Hence, early adopters, as change agents, have the greatest opinion leadership of any category in their social system.

The early majority, as the third adopter group, are of high medium socioeconomic status and of average age. They tend to read an average number of newspapers and magazines. The early majority do not adopt a new idea until an innovation accepted by the early adopters has been proved successful.

The fourth adopter group, the late majority are of a lower social class, tend to be older, have less education, and employ mass media in making-decisions less frequently than the previously mentioned group. They tend to trust the peer group's personal exchange.

Roger's fifth category, laggards or non-adopters, are also regarded as deviant and oriented toward the past with a history of slow change. Laggards tend to have a lower level of education and income, and to be less socially active than other adopters. Their main information source is personal exchange, instead of mass media. Of all groups, laggards have the lowest frequency of opinion leadership (Rogers 1962:168-185, 303-307).

In summary, according to Rogers, innovators and opinion leaders differ from non-leaders or their followers in information source, cosmopolitanism (which is the extent to which the person orients toward the whole world), social status, social participation, and innovativeness. Innovators, as change agents, tend to have a higher social status and a higher opinion leadership, to be more socially active and younger, and to employ mass media in making-decisions more frequently than non-innovators. Likewise, opinion leaders, as change agents, tend to have a higher social status, to be more innovative and socially active, to use impersonal and cosmopolite sources of information more frequently than their followers.

According to Rogers (1962:304), some opinion leaders are innovators while others are not: "Not all opinion leaders are early adopters. To some extent, each adopter category may have its own opinion leaders." Although opinion leaders are not usually innovators, Rogers implied that overlap of innovativeness and opinion leadership in the same individual was possible. He used the term "active adopters" in order to describe those who are both innovators and opinion leaders. "Active rejectors" are those who reject the innovation but influence

others, while "passive adopters" adopt the innovation but do not attempt to influence others, and "passive rejectors" neither adopt innovations nor influence others (Rogers 1962:208-211).

In a study of informal leaders and innovators in farm practices, Wilkening (1952:272-275), like Rogers, noted that the initial introduction of new ideas into a community is made by those of relatively high socioeconomic status who tend to have contacts and communications outside the community. Those people are active in farm organizations and often read magazines as a source of information. Wilkening, however, suggested that "those persons whose advice is sought on farm matters have not been far ahead of the average farmer in the community in the adoption of improved farm practices (1952:272)." Beal and Bohlen (1962:5) indicated that "innovators are not often named by other farmers as 'neighbors and friends' to whom they go for information." Hence, the overlap of innovativeness and opinion leadership in the same individual appears to be minimal.

According to Wilkening, the acceptance of new ideas requires adjustment in the norms of the social system as well as in the way of thinking and acting of the members of group. The local leaders, therefore, are not likely to accept a new idea unless it supports the norms of the social system, or unless it is approved successfully by the members of group (1952:272).

Rogers (1962:245) suggested that "social system norms on innovativeness seem to determine, at least in part, the innovativeness of opinion leaders." Opinion leadership in modern social systems with norms oriented toward change is frequently found among innovators

and early adopters, but in the traditional system opinion leadership is greatest among early majority adopters (Rogers 1962:245-247).

Thus, the overlap of innovativeness and opinion leadership in the same individual may be influenced by the type of society, and its values for tradition and modernity.

Summers (1971:313-316) noted that although both innovators and opinion leaders have been referred to as change agents they are separate constructs. Yet he also pointed out that innovators can be opinion leaders. Although he defined those who are both innovators and opinion leaders as "generalized change agents," he did not report the extent of the overlap of opinion leadership and innovativeness or the general characteristics of these change agents. Others, such as Schrank (1970:37), and Baumgarten (1975:12-18) utilized terms such as "dual leader" or "innovative communicator" in order to describe those who are both innovators and opinion leaders in the process of fashion diffusion. In view of the minimal overlap of opinion leadership and innovativeness in farm innovations, it is interesting to note the overlap in fashion innovations. The great overlap of innovativeness and opinion leadership in the process of fashion diffusion may be interpreted to mean that the feature of fashion is characterized as modernity oriented toward ongoing change. This seems to indicate that the overlap of fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership could be found even in a traditional social system. Further, Schrank, and Baumgarten found that the dual-rolled change agents are more active adopters in the process of fashion diffusion than opinion leaders and innovators.

Innovators, opinion leaders, and innovative communicators play key roles in the process of diffusion and innovation of new ideas, new products, and new practices. These three types of change agent differ from non-leaders in information source, cosmopolitanness, social status, age, and social participation.

Empirical Studies of Fashion Leadership

Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955:247-270) identified the characteristics of fashion leaders with regard to interest in fashion, gregariousness, position in the life cycle and social status. Fashion leaders were defined as those persons whose advice is asked on fashion as well as those who perceive themselves as persons more likely than others to be asked for fashion information or advice. Interviews were conducted with a stratified sample of women to insure heterogeneous characteristics.

Katz and Lazarsfeld found that fashion leaders were frequently gregarious and socially active. Fashion leaders tended to be young unmarried women. A woman's life-cycle position was highly related to her attitude toward the importance of being in fashion and the degree of fashion leadership. Fashion leadership also varied according to social strata. The lower socioeconomic group had fewer leaders than the middle and the upper socioeconomic groups. However, the highest status level did not show more leadership than the middle level. Further, Katz and Lazarsfeld found that among the most gregarious women of the high status group, a drop in fashion leadership took place. This fact was interpreted to mean that the upper status women

had a tendency to talk more about other topics than fashion. These results indicate that fashion leadership may be evenly distributed within social strata, even though fewer leaders existed among the lower socioeconomic groups.

King (1963:108-125) studied fashion leadership as related to socioeconomic level among 303 adopters of fashion millinery and proposed a rebuttal to the trickle down theory. King viewed the first 35% of the respondents who purchased hats in the Fall season as early adopters or innovators. He found that early buyers were of higher socioeconomic status than late buyers, but were not "the upper socioeconomic levels." It was found that influentials in the adoption process tended more frequently to be late adopters than early adopters, but to be fairly evenly distributed within social strata. King suggested that the innovators and the influentials played key roles in the process of fashion adoption, but the roles of the innovators and the influentials appeared to differ: "The innovator is the earliest visual communicator of the season's styles for the mass of fashion consumers. The influential appears to define and endorse appropriate standards (1963:124)." According to King, two types of fashion leaders were suggested, but the relationship of innovativeness and opinion leadership was not explored. The contribution of King's study is the empirical evidence of trickling across of an innovation within the social strata of adopters.

Grindereng (1967:191-194) attempted to identify the characteristics of fashion leaders within a social-class framework. The 816 women respondents were classified as early and late adopters on the

basis of time adoption and silhouette of suit they had purchased and self-identification of adopter category to which they felt they belonged. Grindereing investigated the difference between the early adopters and late adopters in fashion interest, source of fashion information, and normative and fashion reference group. Grindereing found that the same basic silhouettes and design details were selling at all price levels during the same time period. Purchase of new fashion innovations was fairly evenly distributed within all classes. No relationship between silhouette adopter categories and self-identified adopter categories was found. The self-identified early adopters tended to have a high degree of fashion interest, and to use national and international mass media instead of interpersonal exchange as a source of fashion information. Grindereing concluded on the basis of her research that fashion leadership may be a horizontal flow within socioeconomic level rather than a vertical flow from one socioeconomic level to another.

Mass media, daily newspapers, and friend's opinions were found to be the most important sources of fashion awareness among 370 girls studied by Bullock (1970). Distance between urban areas and rural areas did not affect shopping practices for this sample since most of the clothing was purchased in the metropolitan areas. In terms of socioeconomic level, 47% of the respondents were "very aware" or "aware" of fashion: eight percent of those respondents were in the upper socioeconomic group; 25% in the middle group; and 14% in the lower. In view of the degree of fashion leadership and the interest in fashion suggested by Grindereing, and Katz and Lazarsfeld, these

results seem to support the idea that fashion leaders were not limited to the upper socioeconomic group.

Pasnak and Ayres (1969:698-701) investigated the characteristics of fashion innovators with relation to personality characteristics, tolerance of ambiguity, and clothing attitudes. Two groups of 25 college women were identified as fashion innovators or non-innovators by their self-judgment that they adopt new styles earlier or later than other people, and by the investigator's evaluation of the fashionability of the respondent's favorite coat and dress. Pasnak and Ayres found that fashion innovators scored higher than non-innovators on dressing for self, experimentation, and tolerance of ambiguity. With regard to the dimensions of self-actualization tested by use of the Shostrom Personal Orientation Inventory, they found that innovators had a tendency to be oriented toward the present rather than the past or the future. However, no difference in the degree of self-actualization of innovators and non-innovators was found. According to Pasnak and Ayres' study, people may enjoy wearing clothing just for themselves as one aspect of human nature.

Schrank and Gilmore (1973:534-543) analyzed the characteristics of fashion leaders as related to insecurity, attitudes toward conformity in dress, interest in clothing, and socioeconomic level. One-hundred forty-five college women were identified as fashion innovators on the basis of time of adoption of a number of new fashion items. Fashion opinion leadership was measured by a Likert type scale.

Schrank and Gilmore found that fashion innovativeness was related to high security, high clothing interest, and high opinion

leadership. No relationship was found among fashion innovativeness, socioeconomic level, and attitudes toward conformity in dress. Fashion opinion leadership, on the other hand, was related to positive attitudes toward conformity in dress. This result is consistent with Rogers' diffusion theory that former opinion leaders conformed more closely to the community norm than did their followers (Rogers 1962: 233-236). This finding might imply that opinion leaders are likely to have more favorable attitude toward change, if the norms of the social system are oriented toward change. Fashion opinion leadership, however, was not related to socioeconomic level. According to Schrank and Gilmore (1973:538), fashion leadership "was not related to socioeconomic level, but instead, was fairly evenly distributed throughout social strata." These findings are contradictory to Rogers' diffusion-adoption theory, but are consistent with the previous research by Katz and Lazarsfeld, King, and Grindereing. In addition, Schrank and Gilmore's research indicated the evidence of positive relationship between fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership. These findings are contradictory to Wilkening's and Beal and Bohlen's study. Robertson and Myers (1969:164-168) noted that the overlap of opinion leadership and innovativeness existed in consumer behavior, but the degree of overlap was not great enough to equate innovators with opinion leaders.

Schrank (1970:68-72) identified sub-sample groups of innovators, opinion leaders, dual leaders who are both innovators and opinion leaders, and non-leaders. She investigated the extent of overlap of fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership occurring within

the same individuals. Forty-eight respondents among the 145 university women Schrank studied were dual leaders. Innovators and dual leaders tended to have a higher socioeconomic level than opinion leaders and non-leaders. In the analysis of time of adoption, it was found that dual leaders adopted significantly earlier among the sub-sample groups than did innovators. Therefore, Schrank (1970: 77) concluded that "the combination of innovativeness and opinion leadership makes for a more active innovator."

Summers (1970:178-185) identified the characteristics of women's clothing fashion opinion leaders. The random sample of 1000 homemakers was interviewed using a modification of the six question self-designating method for opinion leadership used by Rogers and Cartano (1962:435-444) and individual variable sets including demographic, sociological, attitudinal, communication, and fashion involvement measures. Twenty-eight percent of the respondents were defined as opinion leaders.

Summers found that opinion leaders tended to be younger and more socially active, and to have higher social class and education level than non-leaders. In addition, tendencies toward being progressive, outgoing (versus shy), and susceptible to change were frequently found among fashion opinion leaders. Opinion leaders tended to use not only mass media but interpersonal exchange as a source of information concerning fashion. This result is somewhat different from Rogers' diffusion-adoption theory that opinion leaders tend to use mass media instead of personal exchange as a source of information. Summers reported on the basis of his results that women's clothing fashion

opinion leaders in the diffusion process are not only a significant market segment but also change agents who perceive themselves to be more innovative than do non-leaders.

Myers (1971) attempted to compare prestigious fashion leaders and fashion non-leaders and to determine which leaders were more emulative of group dress norms than others. She identified prestigious fashion leaders (innovators, opinion leaders, and dual leaders) and fashion non-leaders on the basis of their scores on the Schrank Fashion Opinion Leadership measure and a modification of the Schrank Fashion Innovativeness measure.

Myers found that socioeconomic level was not related to fashion opinion leadership and fashion innovativeness, but there existed highly significant positive relationships between fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership. These findings are consistent with the previous research by Schrank. Neither fashion opinion leadership nor fashion adoption was significantly related to social participation. These findings are contradictory to Rogers' diffusion-adoption theory and Katz and Lazarsfeld's findings. Prestigious fashion leaders and fashion non-leaders differed significantly on favorableness toward new styles, but not on social participation. Fashion dual leaders and fashion opinion leaders were significantly different from fashion non-leaders on favorableness toward new styles. And, opinion leaders and innovators were not significantly different from the rest of the subjects in favorableness toward new styles. Therefore, Myers concluded on the basis of her research that opinion leaders and innovators tended to be more emulative of group dress norms

than fashion dual or fashion non-leaders.

Baumgarten (1975:12-18) investigated the characteristics of "innovative communicators" (who were similar to the "dual leaders" in Schrank's research), in demographic characteristics, media exposure, socio-psychological attitudes, and fashion attitudes, interests, opinion and behavior. An "early adoption index" was developed in order to identify early adopters, by determining which respondent already owned those styles which a large number of people expect to grow in popularity during the next six months. On the basis of the "early adoption index," 26.3% of the 389 unmarried male college students were identified as early adopters or innovators. High opinion leaders represented 27.7 percent of the sample by using Rogers' self-designating method (Rogers and Cartano 1962:435-441). Statistically, 7.3% ($26.3\% \times 27.7\%$) of the sample could be expected to be innovative communicators, but 12.1 percent of the total sample (N=47), respondents were innovative communicators. Baumgarten found that compared to others, innovative communicators perceived themselves as being from a high social status family and were more likely to be younger, more socially active. These findings are consistent with those expressed by Katz and Lazarsfeld. In addition, it was found that innovative communicators tended to use cosmopolite sources of information and to be highly involved with fashion.

In sum, several researchers (Katz and Lazarsfeld, King, Grindereng, and Schrank and Gilmore) reported that fashion leadership was not significantly related to socioeconomic level, but was fairly evenly distributed within socioeconomic level. The general profile of

fashion leaders is characterized as young, gregarious, socially active and well-integrated into a single group. Beal and Bohlen, and Wilkening noted that farmer opinion leaders are not usually innovators, but Schrank, Myers, and Baumgarten found that fashion innovativeness was significantly related to fashion opinion leadership. Further, innovative communicators who have both high innovativeness and high opinion leadership tended to be more active fashion leaders. This seems to indicate that the overlap of innovativeness and opinion leadership in the same individual could be found in the modern social system with a norm oriented toward change, but not in a social system based on strong tradition. On the other hand, this may be interpreted to mean that the nature of farm innovations is characterized as tradition, but the nature of fashion innovation is modernity oriented toward ongoing change. The overlap of innovativeness and opinion leadership in the process of fashion diffusion could be found even in traditional social system.

The Adoption of Western Dress in Transitional Korean Society

This section of the review of literature deals with studies of social changes in Korea and the adoption of Western dress.

According to Light and Keller (1975:534-558), social changes occur in every facet of human life over a period of time and are sometimes due to the contact with and adoption of another culture's new products, and new ideas or practices. In order to investigate social changes in a given society, most authors discuss the process of modernization, which refers not only to a change toward the type

of societies found in the advanced industrial countries, but also to a transformation of economic, political, social and psychological spheres.

Most studies of social change in Korea have pointed out that Korea is a society in transition from a pre-modern state into a modern nation, from a traditional agrarian society into an industrial society.

Lim (1975:38-43) attempted to analyze the development in Korea from a historical viewpoint. Enlightenment (1850-1910), independence (1910-1945) from Japan, democratization (1945-1960), economic growth (1961-1970), and social development (1971-present) have been suggested as major developmental periods. Lim stated that in the process of modernization, concepts of development have been changed, but there still exists continuity of these five developmental concepts in Korea. Further, he pointed out that social development, as the most important developmental aspect of the present, has resulted in such social problems as an equal distribution, the gap between urban and rural area, social security and welfare, the labor problem, and environmental pollution.

Sociologist Paik (1968) discussed social structure in Korea and pointed out the dual characteristic of Korean society, which results in the lack of social integration:

- 1) The co-existence of and conflict between past feudal authoritarianism and democratic ideals which have not yet become naturalized in Korea;
- 2) The co-existence of a pre-modern agrarian economy and a modern industrial administrative and productive structure;

- 3) The economic and cultural discrepancies between urban and rural areas; and
- 4) The co-existence of and conflict between new and old culture (Paik 1968:11).

Barringer (1969:203-227) investigated this dual structure of Korean society with relation to social values and attitudes (primary-secondary orientation), general outlook (theoretical-aesthetic), and socioeconomic level. Barringer found that urbanites tended to have more abstract and theoretical norms and secondary interaction frequently found in the advanced industrial countries than did farmers and lower socioeconomic groups. It was interpreted to mean that "Westernization" or "modernization" is taking place in contemporary Korean society, but is limited to urban areas or the upper and middle socioeconomic groups of those areas. It was also found that urban college students, like American students, showed theoretical orientation, but appeared to retain strong primary orientation. He believed that this theoretical orientation among the higher educated people was influenced by Western education. According to Barringer, a wide gap exists between social categories; and a transformation of social and psychological spheres is now taking place among different parts of the population, especially among more educated people, due to the influx of Western education in transitional Korean society. As Rogers pointed out, this seems to indicate that those who have a higher social status and a higher level of education play key roles in the adoption and diffusion of Western culture's new ideas.

Hong (1969:165-180) studied attitude toward social change by analyzing eight basic values related to traditionalism and modernism

among Korean farmers, businessmen, and professors. He investigated the family system, the concept of desirable employment, and attitudes toward success in the future. The results indicated that there were variations among the three populations, but the subjects still tended to be oriented toward traditional values. After comparison of the farmers' values to the better educated businessmen's and professors' values, Hong concluded that Korean values are moving away from traditional values.

In sum, Korea is now undergoing a social change from traditional to modern. However, changes in traditional attitudes, values, and norms are taking place at different rates among different segments of Korean society. The more highly educated people may play an important role in the process of modernization; in contrast, farmers and other lower socioeconomic groups seem to contribute to the maintenance of tradition. As Paik pointed out, contemporary Korean society can be characterized as a dual social structure of traditional as well as modern ideas, values, and practices.

In the world-wide struggle to safeguard basic human rights, historian Lee (1977:4-11) suggested the necessity for women's liberation in Korea. Historically, under the large patriarchal family system based strong Confucianism, the position of women was subservient to that of men during the Yi dynasty (1392-1910). According to Kim (1969:12-26), the most fundamental feature of Confucian morals is filial duty resulting in a relation between a superior and an inferior and an attitude of looking backward. Therefore, husbands required their wives to be submissive. Women were denied their human rights

in society and at home.

In the second half of the nineteenth century, the legitimate position of Korean women was first recognized through the contact with the West, particularly Christianity. The protestant missionaries began the first concrete feminist movement to improve the position of Korean women by opening mission schools for girls.

In 1948, with the establishment of the Republic of Korea, the principle of equality between the sexes was legally established and the women of Korea obtained the first political franchise. Although the concept of equality was written into the constitution, Lee asserted that the notion of inequality between the sexes still exists in Korea with highly conventionalized role differentiation (Lee 1977: 4-11).

Sociologists Lee and Cho (1977:12-34) analyzed the evidence of changing values concerning women's roles within the Korean family and within society. Lee and Cho investigated the relationship between labor force participation and fertility behavior. Data were utilized from the 1970 census.

Lee and Cho found that there appeared an inverse relationship between the levels of women's educational attainment and fertility. It seems to indicate that more educated women's values differ from less educated women's in their family system, birth control and contraception; further, women with high level of education have more opportunity to participate in modern economic activities requiring training and education. The low level of fertility among women with high level of education may reveal a strong influence of Western ways

of life. Women in urban areas showed lower fertility levels than rural women. A positive relationship between labor participation and women's fertility was found in rural or agricultural areas. In contrast, a negative relation between fertility and labor force participation was found among the women employed in such occupations as service, clerical, and production field in urban areas.

Lee and Cho, however, found that a large proportion of single female workers left their jobs upon marriage even before childbirth. This fact was interpreted to mean that for Korean women, economic activity is only of secondary importance to the role of housewife and mother, which is the traditional concept of women's position.

Lee and Cho concluded that there appeared evidence of changing values concerning women's role within the family and within society: women workers in industrial and urban sectors showed lower fertility than other women. In order to enhance the position of women in the process of modernization in Korea, they stated the necessity of fundamental changes in the family system and the cultural definition of women's role and position, improvement of the quality of women's education, and women's active participation in more modern economic activities.

The dual characteristics of women's roles including traditional and modern concepts still exist in the dual structure of Korean society. Korean women have an equal opportunity to get a Western style of education and to participate in society, but they are still submissive to their husbands and leave their jobs upon marriage because of the traditional family system based on strong Confucianism.

Barringer (1969) viewed Korea as a society in transition and pointed out changing social phenomena reflected in Korean daily life:

"Young boys and girls walking hand-in-hand through a Seoul public park, respectable grandmothers dressed in clothing attributed only to prostitutes ten years ago, rising skyscrapers, abstract art, the fashion parade of Myung-dong... If Korean high-school students still wear Japanese-style uniforms and close-cropped hair, they nevertheless date and swing to the latest of rock-and-roll music (Barringer 1969: 203)."

In today's rapidly changing and shifting Korean society, Western dress now has become a part of daily life among the old as well as the young. The wearing of Western dress has begun among the government officers in the bureaucratic society since the influx of Western culture in the late 19th century. Korean young women no longer wear their native dress on campus, at work or on the street. As Barringer noted, even older Korean women have adopted Western dress in their daily life. As Kim (1963:58-71) pointed out, however, two opposing phenomenon still exist. Korean native dress is still worn on such occasions as the memorial service days for ancestors, ceremonial days, and in leisure time. Elderly Korean women in rural areas still wear Korean native dress. Some women in the family system based upon strong Confucianism still wear traditional dress in their daily life.

Anspach and Kwon (1972:235-242) investigated Western dress styles adopted by Korean women according to three age-culture groups and educational level, noting that "a greater awareness of Western ideas could initiate a desire for Western dress (1972:236)." They found that younger, more highly educated women studied showed a higher level of adoption of Western dress. It is interesting to note that these findings are consistent with Rogers' study which the early

adopters tend to have a higher level of education and to be younger than late adopters.

Kahng (1971:61-71) researched clothing interests and clothing aspirations related to social-psychological factors among 109 Korean college women. In terms of attitude toward Western and Korean clothing, she found that 86% of the subjects always wore Western dress. The results indicated that those who had a more traditional attitude toward women's roles viewed Western dress as more suitable for activities but thought Korean dress to be more beautiful, traditional, modest and less diverse in style.

The dual system of Korean dress seems to reflect the dual structure of Korean society characterized by the co-existence of traditional agrarian society and industrial nation. Further, the dual system of Korean dress may well reflect the dual characteristics of women's roles including traditional and modern concepts in contemporary Korean society. As Kahng's study revealed, the suitability for activities of Western dress contributes to the enhancement of woman's position by enabling women to participate in the modern economic activities. Korean women have adopted Western dress along with social change from traditional to modern.

CHAPTER III. PROCEDURE

The study was designed to identify the characteristics of fashion innovators and fashion opinion leaders with relation to attitudes toward change and socioeconomic level among Korean college women. The objectives to be used for the purpose of this study are to see if the Fashion Innovation Inventory and the Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory developed recently in American culture could be applied to Korean culture; to contribute to the understanding of human behavior and social change in Korea; and to contribute to the study of clothing and human behavior cross-culturally. The procedure developed for this purpose is divided into 1) Statement of Hypotheses, 2) Definition of Terms, 3) Limitations of the Study, 4) Assumptions of the Study, 5) Selection and Development of Measures, 6) Selection of Subjects, 7) Administration of Measures and 8) Statistical Treatment and Analysis of Data.

Statement of Hypotheses

The null hypotheses tested for this study are as follows:

Hypothesis 1. There is no correlation between fashion innovativeness scores and fashion opinion leadership scores of Korean college women.

Hypothesis 2. There is no correlation between fashion innovativeness scores and socioeconomic level of Korean college women.

Hypothesis 3. There is no correlation between fashion innovativeness scores and attitude toward change scores of Korean college women.

Hypothesis 4. There is no correlation between fashion opinion leadership scores and socioeconomic level of Korean college women.

Hypothesis 5. There is no correlation between fashion opinion leadership scores and attitude toward change scores of Korean college women.

Hypothesis 6. There is no significant difference in socioeconomic level of four sub-sample groups; fashion innovators, fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovative communicators, and non-fashion innovative communicators.

Hypothesis 7. There is no significant difference in attitude toward change scores of four sub-sample groups; fashion innovators, fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovative communicators, and non-fashion innovative communicators.

Definition of Terms

Fashion innovator: a person "who adopts and wears a new fashion early in the fashion cycle (Schrank 1970:36)." The fashion innovator owns and wears a greater number of new fashion items relatively earlier than others and purchases earlier than others do (Schrank 1970:36).

Fashion opinion leader: a person who reports that she or he is a source of fashion advice and information for others she or he knows (Schrank 1970:36).

Fashion innovative communicator: a person who is both a fashion innovator and a fashion opinion leader. The fashion innovative communicator exhibits high scores on both fashion innovativeness

and fashion opinion leadership. The non-fashion innovative communicator exhibits low scores on both fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership (Schrank 1970:37). (See p. 45)

Socioeconomic level: a participant's social position on a status continuum in terms of the family head's occupational prestige and educational level (Hollingshead and Redlich 1958:398-407).

Attitude toward change: The degree to which an individual feels favorable or unfavorable toward change from present circumstances. Positive attitudes toward change indicate a person who desires change, favors it, and may actually seek or create it (Schrank and Sugawara 1977).

Limitations of the Study

This study is limited to the students of the School of Home Economics at Seoul National University in Korea. Hence, interpretation of findings will be confined to the deliberately selected sample. In addition, the language translation from English to Korean may result in the limitation of this study because exact equivalent meanings for certain words do not exist in the two languages.

Assumptions of the Study

1. The participants in the research will understand the purpose or meanings of questions exactly and answer reliably.
2. The Fashion Innovation Inventory, the Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory, and the Attitude Toward Change Inventory, developed recently in American culture could be used in Korean society and will obtain reliable and valid results.
3. Socioeconomic levels in Korean society are similar to socioeconomic levels in the United States.

Selection and Development of Measures

The Schrank Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory (Schrank and Gilmore 1973:541) and the Schrank Fashion Innovation Inventory (Schrank and Sugawara 1977) developed recently for American culture were selected since relatively little empirical research on fashion diffusion behavior has been done, and a suitable measure of fashion innovativeness was not found in Korea. In addition, the Schrank and Sugawara Attitude Toward Change Inventory (Schrank and Sugawara 1977) was used to determine the subjects' attitude toward change. Hollingshead's two factor index weighting system was selected to measure the socioeconomic level (Hollingshead 1965). Each of the measures is discussed in the following sections and presented in Appendix A.

Fashion Innovativeness Measure

The Schrank Fashion Innovation Inventory consisted of a list of clothing and accessory items selected after visits to local stores and study of fashion magazines for the current season. A list of 29 items was classified into ten groups of "looks" or "combinations." Each respondent was asked to indicate which of the "looks" she owned or planned to wear that Fall season. In order to identify the fashionability of each "look" on campus, each respondent was asked to indicate how popular she thought each "look" was, by using the number from the popularity scale. The popularity scale is as follows:

Popularity Scale

a very new trend at SNU	worn by few trend-setters	peak of popularity at SNU	on way out of fashion	out (or never in)						
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

Although each participant was also asked to indicate which of the "looks" she liked, this information was not used in the analysis. During pre-testing with American students, there seemed to be a desire to express opinions about the "looks" regardless of whether or not the respondent owned them. The opportunity to indicate liking for a look served this need. Each respondent was asked to indicate the month and year she first acquired the individual items in each combination.

A second list of the 14 selected clothing and accessory items was compiled. Each respondent was asked to indicate which items she owned or planned to wear that Fall season.

Slides for ten groups of the "looks" or "combinations" and a list of the 14 clothing items were made to insure equivalent meaning because translation of the terminology of clothing items from English into Korean was necessary. The pictures were based on fashion magazines such as Glamour, Vogue and Harper's Bazaar since these fashion magazines are an important source in the study of fashion among Korean college women, and the "combinations" were pictured in these magazines. The model's head was blacked out in order to reduce the effect of the model's facial expression. The examples for ten groups of "looks" and 14 clothing items were represented in the Appendix I.

Fashion Opinion Leadership Measure

The Schrank Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory is a Likert-type scale. According to Compton and Hall (1972:273-275) a Likert-type scale is simpler to administer and provides more reliable and accurate information on the individual's opinion than any other scale of the same number of items. The measure was first based upon a six-item Guttman-type fashion opinion leadership scale from a review of Rogers and Cartano's study and that of Goodell. A Likert-type fashion opinion leadership was developed by means of an item analysis technique and had an internal consistency of .90. A Pearson correlation between scores on the Schrank Fashion Opinion Leadership Scale and the original Goodell Scale was .74, indicating that a very strong association existed (Schrank 1970:45-48). The 20 items consisted of "operational descriptions of affective and behavioral aspects of fashion opinion leadership" (Schrank 1970:46) with relation to clothing. Half the statements selected were positively stated and the other half were negative in the description of fashion opinion leadership. Responses for each statement included: "Definitely True," "Partially True," "Undecided," "Partially False," "Definitely False."

Attitude Toward Change Scale

The Schrank and Sugawara Attitude Toward Change Inventory (1977) was deliberately designed to determine orientation toward change and non-change. The measure included twenty Likert-type statements which

had five possible responses: "Strongly Agree," "Agree," "Undecided," "Disagree," and "Strongly Disagree." Responses to positively stated items (change-orientation) were weighted from five to one and responses to negatively stated items (non-change-orientation) from one for strongly agree to five for strongly disagree. The respondent's score on the measure was the sum of the weights for each statement. A higher score on the measure indicates more positive attitude toward change.

Socioeconomic Scale

Hollingshead's two factor index weighting system was adopted to measure socioeconomic level. The measure consisted of the main wage earner's occupation and education in a household. According to Paik (1968:14-15), occupation and education play an important role in the stratification of modern Korean society. Also, the classification of occupation and education in the Korean Statistical Yearbook (1975: 66-67) is similar to Hollingshead's.

Selection of the Sample

Research findings on fashion innovators and opinion leaders have supported the fact that the general profile of a fashion leader is young, gregarious, socially active and well-integrated into a single group (Katz and Lazarsfeld 1955:249, Baumgarten 1975:12). In addition, school authorities in Korea regulate student dress codes rigidly through high school days. Therefore, college women have the first opportunity to choose dress for themselves and tend to be more inter-

ested in clothing than at any other stage in their life cycle. Hence, college women were chosen as the subjects for this study. Home Economics students, who comprise the majority of female students at Seoul National University in Korea, were selected.

Administration of the Measures

The final measures, the Schrank Fashion Innovation Inventory, the Schrank Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory, the Schrank and Sugawara Attitude Toward Change Inventory, and Hollingshead's Socioeconomic Scales were translated into the Korean language and checked by a Korean expert majoring in English literature. The questionnaire translated into Korean was pre-tested by Korean female students at Oregon State University, who recently came from Korea. Revisions were made when necessary. In November 1977, the questionnaire and slides for ten groups of the "looks" and 14 clothing items for fashion innovativeness were sent by mail to the Chairman of the Department of Clothing and Textiles at Seoul National University. The questionnaires were administered to the students in home economics courses by instructors in class. Directions for administration of the questionnaire (See Appendix B) were written in order to help instructors understand and use a standard procedure for the administration of the questionnaires and to explain the nature of investigation to respondents. A total of 103 questionnaires were sent back by mail to the researcher.

Nine students left either socioeconomic or fashion innovativeness questions blank. Therefore, 94 questionnaires were used for statisti-

cal analysis and the nine incomplete questionnaires were omitted from analysis.

Treatment and Analysis of Data

Treatment: The numerical scoring for the Attitude Toward Change Inventory and the Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory was assigned by rating each response from one to five depending on whether the subject disagreed or agreed. A response of "Strongly Agree" for positive or favorable statements was valued five and "Strongly Disagree" was valued one. The reverse weighting was used for unfavorable or negative statements. (See Appendix H)

Three scores were calculated for the fashion innovativeness variable. The first score was the total mean popularity score of the number of "looks" which a respondent owned or planned to wear. This score was calculated by, a) determining the mean score on the popularity scale for each of the ten individual "looks" based on rating of all 94 respondents; and b) adding the mean popularity scores for each "look" checked by an individual respondent as one she was wearing or planning to wear. Hereafter, this first fashion innovativeness score will be referred to as "normative score." (See Table 1)

For the second score, a frequency distribution of time adoption was made by the classification of seasons, from July to December as well as from January to June since the subjects tend to wear the "looks" studied in Fall seasons or Spring seasons. (See Appendix C) After the comparisons with the "looks" adopted by a majority of the subjects between 1975 and 1976, the "looks" below the mean 6.1 of

popularity scale were eliminated. After elimination, the four remaining groups of "looks" were used to compute the second fashion innovativeness score. The number of "looks" among the four groups of "looks" which a respondent owned were counted and the mean popularity score of those "looks" were added. Hereafter, this second fashion innovativeness score will be referred to as "innovative score." For example, if a respondent wears the first "look," the fifth, and the tenth, her "normative score" is 17.7 ($6.3 + 4.7 + 6.7$), and her "innovative score" is 13.0 ($6.3 + 6.7$). (See Table 1)

The third fashion innovativeness score was a count of the number of clothing items a respondent owned from the list of 14 clothing items. (See Appendix A, p. 86)

The three fashion innovativeness scores were all highly correlated. (See p. 49) Thus, the "innovative score" was selected for use in assessing hypotheses since the four "looks" chosen for this score were regarded as the most innovative of the ten groups of "looks;" and this score was most consistent in concept to the original definition of a fashion innovator as one who owns and wears a greater number of new fashion items relatively earlier than others. The other scores were a safe-guard in case the Inventory did not work well with a Korean sample.

Socioeconomic level was judged by the investigator. Warner's occupational scales (Warner, Meeker, and Ells 1960) were used to categorize the occupations of the respondents' main wage earner. (See Appendix D) The final category of occupation scores was multiplied by seven and added to the value of the educational category

TABLE 1

MEAN POPULARITY SCORE FOR EACH "LOOK"

Combination of Items ("look")	Mean Popularity Score
Big slip-on sweater Crystal pleated, tiered skirt or peasant skirt	*
Sweater type knee socks	<u>6.3</u>
Big Sweater, slit sides Pleated skirt (wook-like) Shirt in small-scale plaid	<u>6.1</u>
Ruffled blouse Hacking jacket or blazer Tartan plaid skirt Dark textured hose	<u>5.0</u>
Logger's jacket (usually bold red and black check) Corduroy pants or jeans Boots	* <u>6.8</u>
Shetland sweater Traditional tartan kilt Sweater-type socks	<u>4.7</u>
Large scarf or shawl draped over ensemble Narrow, straight leg trousers Vest of different fabric or color than trousers	* <u>7.1</u>
Print peasant dress or blouse and skirt Boxy bolero jackets Dark textured hose	<u>5.6</u>
Sweater with drawstring at lower edge Corduroy pants or fashion jeans or narrow, plaid or check trousers	<u>6.1</u>
Faded jeans (older is better) T-shirt	<u>4.0</u>
Shirt, tailored Down vest Jeans or corduroy slacks	* <u>6.7</u>

* "Looks" utilized in computation of "innovative score"

multiplied by four, according to Hollingshead's procedure (Hollingshead 1965).

Analysis: The frequency, range, mean, median and mode were calculated for each variable in order to describe the data.

The Kuder and Richardson item analysis technique (Johnson and McCabe 1977) was used in order to evaluate the internal consistency of the Likert-type scales for the Schrank and Sugawara Attitude Toward Change Inventory and the Schrank Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory.

In order to determine the relationships of each variable scores with other variable scores (Hypothesis 1-5), Pearson Product Moment correlations were computed.

The four sub-sample groups were identified with the same methods that Schrank employed (Schrank 1970:59). Scores for fashion opinion leadership and fashion innovativeness ("innovative scores" see p. 41) were ranked in order, divided at the median point and classified into mutually exclusive sub-sample groups: 1) innovators, 2) innovative communicators, who have both high innovativeness and high opinion leadership, 3) opinion leaders, and 4) non-innovative communicators. The distribution of respondents studied in each of the sub-sample groups were as follows:

		Fashion Innovativeness	
		Upper 50%	Low 50%
Fashion Opinion Leadership	Upper 50%	Innovative Communicators (Dual-leaders) ¹ N = 27 (29%)	Opinion Leaders N = 20 (21%)
	Low 50%	Innovators N = 16 (17%)	Non-Innovative Communicators (Non-leaders) ¹ N = 31 (32%)

The number and percentage of Korean respondents for each of the four sub-categories were very similar to those of American samples researched by Schrank (1970:59). (See Table 2)

TABLE 2

COMPARISON OF THE DISTRIBUTION IN EACH OF THE SUB-SAMPLE GROUPS BETWEEN KOREAN AND AMERICAN COLLEGE WOMEN

Sub-Categories	American College Women		Korean College Women	
	N	%	N	%
Innovative Communicators	48	33	27	29
Innovators	22	15	16	17
Opinion Leaders	24	17	20	21
Non-Innovative Communicators	51	33	31	32
		98%		99%

¹Holly L. Schrank, "Fashion Innovativeness and Fashion Opinion Leadership as Related to Social Insecurity Attitudes Toward Conformity, Clothing Interest and Socioeconomic Level," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1970, p.36.

Mean change attitude and socioeconomic level scores were computed for each leadership category and tested for significance by analysis of variance. (Hypothesis 6-7) T-tests were used to determine where differences existed between groups if the F value was significant.

The .05 level of confidence was used in determining the significance of results.

CHAPTER IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data presented in this chapter are based on questionnaires completed by 94 Korean college women in November 1977. Presentation and discussion of the results are organized as follows: 1) item analysis, reliability and frequency statistics of measures, 2) presentation of findings related to the hypotheses.

Item Analysis, Reliability and Frequency Statistics of Measures

The Schrank Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory and the Schrank and Sugawara Attitude Toward Change Inventory were analyzed by using a computerized item analysis program in order to determine the internal consistency of the Likert-type scales. The frequency, range, mean, median, and mode were calculated for each variable in order to describe the data and presented in the following sections.

Fashion Opinion Leadership Measures

Fashion opinion leadership scores were obtained by summing the weights for each of the twenty statements. (Detailed explanation in p. 40, see Appendix H)

The possible range of scores was from 20-100. The actual scores ranged from 26 to 90, a total of 65. The median score was 69.8, the mean was 66.7, mode 72.0 and standard deviation 13.9. (See Table 3) The scores on this measure were negatively skewed, as they were in Schrank's (1970:61-62) and Myers' studies (1971:90).

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY STATISTICS FOR THE DATA

Variable	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard Deviation	Range
Fashion Opinion Leadership	66.7	69.8	72	13.9	(20-100) 26-90
Attitude Toward Change	60.2	60.0	55	6.5	(20-100) 43-78
Fashion Innovativeness I (normative)	18.7	16.0	0	3.6	(0-58) 0-53
II (innovative)	6.8	6.0	0	7.6	(0-27) 0-27
III	6.1	6.0	6	1.0	(0-14) 0-11
Socioeconomic Level	29.6	26.0	22	13.0	(11-77) 11-77

(): Possible Range of Each Measure

The Kuder and Richardson scale reliability coefficient was .92, which closely approximates the .90 reliability of this measure when tested by Schrank (1970:48) and the .91 reliability of this scale when recently used by Schrank and Sugawara (1978). These findings seem to suggest that the Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory could be applied to Korean culture. Reliability of each item was presented in Appendix E.

Fashion Innovativeness Measure

Three scores were calculated for the fashion innovativeness variable. The first "normative score" was computed by the total

mean popularity scores of the number of "looks" which a respondent owned. The second "innovative score" was computed by the total mean popularity score of the number of "looks" among the four innovative groups of "looks" which a respondent owned. The third was a count of the number of clothing items a respondent owned from the list of 14 clothing items. (Detailed explanation in p. 41, see also Appendix A)

The "normative score" ranged from zero to 53, a total actual range 54. The possible range of this measure was zero to 58. The mean, median, and mode were 18.7, 16, and zero. The curve was positively skewed.

The "innovative scores" ranged from zero to 27, an actual range of 28. The possible range of scores was from zero to 27. The distribution was positively skewed. This "innovative score" was used in determining the relationships between the variables for testing hypothesis one to five and the differences in the mean attitude toward change and socioeconomic level scores for sub-sample groups.

The third score ranged from zero to 11, a total actual range of 12. The possible range was zero to 14. The mean score was 6.1, the median was 6.0, and mode 6.0. The resulting distribution was slightly skewed in the negative direction.

The three fashion innovativeness scores were all highly correlated. (See Table 4) The Pearson r correlation coefficient computed between the "normative score" and the "innovative score" was .8448, significant beyond the .001 level. The Pearson r correlation between the "innovative score" and the third score was .3784, significant

beyond the .001 level. The Pearson r correclation coefficient computed between the "normative score" and the third score was .5255, which is significant beyond the .001 level. These results indicated that the three fashion innovative scores are highly interrelated. Correlations between each of the three scores and all other variables are presented in the Appendix J.

TABLE 4
CORRELATION COEFFICIENT MATRIX AMONG THE
THREE FASHION INNOVATIVENESS SCORES

	Innovativeness	
	I (normative)	II (innovative)
Fashion Innovativeness II (innovative)	.8448**	
III	.5255**	.3784**

** : p .001 92df

Attitude Toward Change

The possible score range was from 20 to 100. The actual scores for the Attitude Toward Change measure were 43 to 78, a total range 36. The mean, median, and mode were 60.2, 60.0, and 55. The standard deviation was 6.5. The curve was positively skewed. (See Table 3)

The Kuder and Richardsons reliability coefficient for 20 items was .57. (See Appendix F) Further analysis was undertaken to determine if elimination of the less effective statements below the item

reliability of .15 would improve the measure. Items 2, 3, 5, 8, 11, 12, 13, 16, and 19 were eliminated from the second analysis, leaving 11 items. After elimination of inefficient items, the K-R reliability of .68 resulted. An ideal level would have been .88 to .92. Similar results were obtained with an American sample (Schrack and Sugawara 1978), indicating that the scale was effective to the same degree for Korean students as it was for American students. Reliability of each item in the revised Attitude Toward Change measure is presented in Appendix G.

Socioeconomic Level Measure

The actual values for socioeconomic scores were 11 to 77, a range of 67. The median score was 26.0; mode, 22.0, and mean, 29.6. The standard deviation was 13.0. (See Table 3) The scores on this measure were positively skewed, as those were in Schrank's study (1970:64), however, all socioeconomic levels were represented in the sample.

Presentation of Findings Related to the Hypotheses and Comparison of the Four Sub-Sample Groups

The Pearson r correlations were computed to examine relationships between the variables in order to test hypothesis one to five. Analysis of variance was calculated to compare the four sub-sample groups (fashion innovators, fashion innovative communicators, fashion opinion leaders, and non-fashion innovative communicators) on attitude toward change scores and socioeconomic level scores (Hypothesis 6-7).

Hypothesis 1: There is no correlation between fashion innovativeness scores and fashion opinion leadership scores of Korean college women.

The Pearson r correlation coefficient was .3493, which was significant beyond the .01 level of probability. (The complete correlation matrix is presented in Table 5.) The hypothesis was rejected since the two variables were highly related. This result of the present study is supportive of those of Schrank (1970), Myers (1971), and Baumgarten (1975), that high fashion innovativeness is significantly related to high fashion opinion leadership. These findings are contradictory to the research by Wilkening (1952), that no relationship of innovativeness and opinion leaders appears in adoption of farm practices and innovations.

TABLE 5

CORRELATION COEFFICIENT MATRIX BETWEEN INNOVATIVENESS AND OPINION LEADERSHIP SCORES AND ALL OTHER VARIABLES

Variable	Innovativeness	Opinion Leadership
Fashion Opinion Leadership	.3493 ^{**}	
Attitude Toward Change	.2092 [*]	.3337 ^{**}
Socioeconomic Level	-.1533	-.1138

^{**} $P < .01$, 92df

^{*} $P < .05$, 92df

Hypothesis 2: There is no correlation between fashion innovativeness scores and socioeconomic level of Korean college women.

The Pearson r correlation coefficient computed between fashion innovativeness and socioeconomic level was $-.1533$, which was not significant at the $.05$ level. The hypothesis was accepted. For Korean college women studied, fashion innovativeness was not related to socioeconomic level. These findings are consistent with the previous research by Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955), King (1963), and Schrank and Gilmore (1973) that "innovativeness was not related to socioeconomic level, but instead, was fairly evenly distributed throughout the social strata (Schrank and Gilmore 1973:538)."

Hypothesis 3: There is no correlation between fashion innovativeness scores and attitude toward change scores of Korean college women.

The Pearson r correlation was $.2092$, significant at the $.05$ level. The hypothesis was rejected since high fashion innovativeness scores were accompanied by relatively high attitude toward change scores. These findings are supportive of those of Rogers, that innovators play key role in the process of change, and act as change agents in the process of diffusion and adoption. The results of this study seem to indicate that high scores on the fashion innovativeness measure are accompanied by positive attitudes toward change.

Hypothesis 4: There is no correlation between fashion opinion leadership scores and socioeconomic level of Korean college women.

The Pearson r correlation coefficient computed to test the relationship between fashion opinion leadership and socioeconomic level was $-.1138$, which was not significant at the $.05$ level of probability. The hypothesis was accepted. For Korean college women

studied, fashion opinion leadership was not concentrated at higher socioeconomic levels. These findings of the present study are supportive of those of Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955:247-270), King (1963:108-1250, and Schrank and Gilmore (1973:534-543).

Hypothesis 5: There is no correlation between fashion opinion leadership scores and attitude toward change scores of Korean college women.

The Pearson r correlation coefficient was .3337, significant beyond the .01 level. The hypothesis was rejected since high scores on fashion opinion leadership were significantly related to high scores on the attitude toward change measure. These results are supportive of those of Summers, who stated that opinion leaders had positive attitudes toward risk and change (1970:181).

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in socioeconomic level of four sub-sample groups; fashion innovators, fashion innovative communicators, fashion opinion leaders, and non-fashion innovative communicators.

The mean socioeconomic level scores for four sub-sample groups are presented in Table 6. No significant differences were found among the mean scores for the four groups. ($F = .810, 93df.$) The hypothesis was accepted. This result seems to indicate that fashion leadership was relatively evenly distributed throughout the socioeconomic strata. These findings are not consistent with those of Schrank (1970:77), who found that innovators and dual leaders in her sample were of a higher socioeconomic level than opinion leaders and non-leaders.

TABLE 6
MEAN SCORES AND F VALUE FOR SOCIOECONOMIC
LEVEL FOR SUB-SAMPLE GROUPS

Group	N	Adjusted Mean Scores	F	P
Fashion Innovative Communicators	27	26.741		
Fashion Opinion Leaders	20	29.050	0.810	NS
Non-Fashion Innovative Communicators	31	30.903		
Fashion Innovators	16	32.5000		

df = 93

NS = not significant

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in attitude toward change scores of four sub-sample groups; fashion innovators, fashion innovative communicators, fashion opinion leaders, and non-fashion innovative communicators.

The mean attitude toward change scores for the sub-sample groups are presented in Table 7. The F value of the mean attitude-toward-change scores for the sub-sample groups was 5.237, significant beyond the .01 level of probability. The null hypothesis was rejected, since significant differences existed in the mean attitude toward change scores among the four sub-sample groups; fashion innovators, fashion innovative communicators, fashion opinion leaders, and non-fashion innovative communicators.

TABLE 7
 MEAN SCORES AND F VALUE FOR ATTITUDE TOWARD CHANGE
 FOR SUB-SAMPLE GROUPS

Group	N	Adjusted Mean Scores	F	P
Fashion Innovative Communicators	27	40.926		
Fashion Opinion Leaders	20	37.150	5.237	<.01
Fashion Innovators	16	36.688		
Non-Fashion Innovative Communicators	31	35.903		

df = 93

T-tests were undertaken to determine where differences existed between groups. (See Table 8.) Fashion innovative communicators had the highest mean scores for attitude toward change. Significant differences were found only between fashion innovative communicators and fashion opinion leaders. ($P < .01$.) Opinion leaders and innovators did not differ and innovators and non-innovative communicators did not differ in attitude toward change. Thus, fashion innovative communicators had significantly more positive change-oriented attitudes than any of the other groups.

TABLE 8
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEAN ATTITUDE
TOWARD CHANGE SCORES FOR SUB-SAMPLE GROUPS

Group	N	Mean Scores	df	t	P
Fashion Innovative Communicators	27	40.926	45	2.754	<.01
Fashion Opinion Leaders	20	37.150	34	0.278	NS
Fashion Innovators	16	36.688	45	0.471	NS
Non-Fashion Innovative Communicators	31	35.903			

NS = not significant

CHAPTER V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between fashion innovativeness, fashion opinion leadership, attitude toward change and socioeconomic level, and to identify the characteristics of fashion innovators and fashion opinion leaders among Korean college women living in a transitional society. Other objectives for this study were to determine if the Fashion Innovation Inventory, the Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory, and the Attitude Toward Change Inventory developed recently in American culture could be applied to Korean culture; to contribute to the understanding of human behavior and social change in Korea; and to contribute to the study of clothing and human behavior cross-culturally.

A questionnaire was designed which consisted of the Schrank Fashion Innovation Inventory (1977), the Schrank Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory (1973), the Schrank and Sugawara Attitude Toward Change Inventory (1977), and socioeconomic questions. The Schrank Fashion Innovation Inventory consisted of a list of clothing and accessory items selected after visits to local stores and study of fashion magazines for the current seasons. A popularity scale was developed in order to evaluate the fashionability of ten groups of "looks" on campus. Each respondent was asked to indicate which of the "looks" she owned or planned to wear that Fall season. Each respondent also was asked to indicate the month and year she first acquired the individual items in each combination. On the basis of the adoption of innovative groups of "looks" identified by

popularity and time-of-adoption, a respondent's innovativeness score was determined. The Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory was a Likert-type scale with an internal consistency of .92. The 20 items consisted of "operational descriptions of affective and behavioral aspects of fashion opinion leadership (Schrank 1970:46)." Half the statements selected were positively stated and the other half were negative in the description of fashion opinion leadership. The Attitude-Toward-Change Scale was also a 20-item Likert-type scale and was deliberately designed to determine orientation toward change and non-change. The first K-R reliability had an internal consistency of .57; after elimination of inefficient items, the internal consistency of .68 resulted. The socioeconomic level measure consisted of questions regarding the main wage earner's occupation and education. Warner's occupational scales were used to categorize the occupations, and Hollingshead's two factor index weighting system was applied to determine the socioeconomic scores.

The final measures were translated into Korean and were completed by 94 Korean college women who comprised the majority of female students at Seoul National University in Korea, in November 1977.

Pearson r correlation coefficients were computed to determine the relationship of each variable score with other variable scores for testing hypothesis one to five. Mean change attitude and socioeconomic level scores were computed for each sub-sample group (fashion innovators, fashion innovative communicators, fashion opinion leaders, and non-fashion innovative communicators) and tested for significance by analysis of variance (Hypothesis 6-7).

T-tests were used to determine the difference between the sub-sample groups. The .05 level of confidence was used in determining the significance of results. The following conclusions have been drawn about the proposed null hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: There is no correlation between fashion innovativeness scores and fashion opinion leadership scores of Korean college women.

The null hypothesis was rejected, since for Korean college women studied, high fashion innovativeness was significantly related to high fashion opinion leadership. ($r = .3493$ $p < .01$ $df = 92$.)

Hypothesis 2: There is no correlation between fashion innovativeness scores and socioeconomic level of Korean college women.

No significant correlation was found between fashion innovativeness and socioeconomic level, indicating that fashion innovativeness was fairly evenly distributed throughout the socioeconomic strata represented in the sample. The null hypothesis was accepted ($r = -.1533$ $df = 92$.)

Hypothesis 3: There is no correlation between fashion innovativeness scores and attitude toward change scores of Korean college women.

There was a significant relationship found between fashion innovativeness and attitudes-toward-change. The null hypothesis was rejected. ($r = .2092$ $P < .05$ $df = 92$.)

Hypothesis 4: There is no correlation between fashion opinion leadership scores and socioeconomic level of Korean college women.

No significant relationship was found between fashion opinion

leadership and socioeconomic level, indicating that fashion opinion leadership was apparently evenly dispersed throughout all socioeconomic levels represented in the sample. The null hypothesis was accepted. ($r = -.1138$ $df = 92$.)

Hypothesis 5: There is no correlation between fashion opinion leadership scores and attitude toward change scores of Korean college women.

The null hypothesis was rejected since high fashion opinion leadership scores were accompanied by high attitude toward change scores. ($r = .3337$ $P < .01$ $df = 92$.)

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in socioeconomic level of four sub-sample groups; fashion innovators, fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovative communicators and non-fashion innovative communicators.

No significant differences were found in socioeconomic level of sub-sample groups. The null hypothesis was accepted, indicating that fashion leadership was relatively evenly distributed throughout the socioeconomic strata. ($F = .8104$ $df = 93$.)

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in attitude toward change of four sub-sample groups; fashion innovators, fashion opinion leaders, fashion innovative communicators, and non-fashion innovative communicators.

Significant differences were found in attitude-toward-change scores of four sub-sample groups. The null hypothesis was rejected. ($F = 5.237$ $P < .01$ $df = 93$.) Thus, t-tests were undertaken to determine the differences between the attitude toward change mean scores

for sub-sample groups.

Fashion innovative communicators held significantly more positive attitudes toward change than did any other groups. Significant differences were found only between fashion innovative communicators and fashion opinion leaders. ($t = 2.754$ $P < .01$ $df = 45$.) Opinion leaders and innovators did not differ, and innovators and non-fashion innovative communicators did not differ in attitude toward change scores.

The overlap of fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership (29%) among Korean college women studied appeared to be similar to that of American samples researched by Schrank (33%). (See Table 2, p. 44.) Further, the K-R scale reliability coefficient of the Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory was .92, which closely approximates the .91 reliability of this measure recently obtained by Schrank and Sugawara (1978). These findings seem to support that the Fashion Innovation Inventory and the Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory developed recently for American respondents could be applied to the Korean culture. The similar overlap of fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership may indicate that a social system in which Korean college women live is similar to that of American college women. Western dress now has become a part of daily life among Korean college women studied along with social changes from traditional to modern. Furthermore, the new fashion that has been adopted recently in American culture has been diffused and adopted among Korean college women during the same time period.

Implications

The findings of this study have supported the idea that fashion is no longer a product of class differentiation suggested by Simmel, Veblen, and Barber. For Korean college women studied, fashion leadership was not related to socioeconomic level, but was fairly and evenly distributed throughout all socioeconomic strata. Fashion leadership had a significant relationship with change attitudes. Fashion innovative communicators who scored high on fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership measures held significantly more positive change-oriented attitudes than did other respondents. Blumer suggested that fashion is an adept mechanism for socializing people to change as well as to adjust to a moving and changing society: fashion is a mirror of social change and a barometer of individual change in human daily life. Fashion may be followed by the people of all classes because of a desire for change in a moving and changing society. Blumer's concept of fashion seems to fit in contemporary Korean society. Korean women have long worn traditional native dress, but have recently adopted Western dress along with social changes from traditional to modern. The dual social structure characterized by co-existence of traditional agrarian society and a modern nation still exists in contemporary Korean society. The co-existence of traditional native dress and Western dress in today's Korean society seems to reflect not only the dual structure of Korean society but also the dual characteristics of women's roles including traditional and modern concepts. Korean people may adopt Western dress as a means to adjust to a moving and changing society.

Further, the results indicate that Western fashion now has become a part of daily life among young, educated Korean women studied. The new fashion that has been adopted recently in American culture is a generally accepted style among Korean college women studied.

The results of this study indicate that the extent of overlap of fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership in the same individual was great (29%). This overlap among Korean college women studied is very similar to that among an American sample researched by Schrank (33%). (See Table 2, p. 44.) Fashion innovative communicators who have both high innovativeness and high opinion leadership had the most positive change-oriented attitude of any of the fashion leadership groups studied. Rogers suggested that the nature of the social system may determine the innovativeness of opinion leaders. According to Rogers, opinion leadership in a modern social system with a norm oriented toward change is frequently found among innovators and early adopters, but in a traditional system the overlap of innovativeness and opinion leadership in the same individual appears to be minimal. Therefore, the findings of this study seem to suggest that the type of social system in which Korean college women studied live is a modern social system with a norm oriented toward change. It is true that Korean college women today live in a modernized social system due to the rapid and mass influx of Western culture and education. However, the nature of the overlap of innovativeness and opinion leadership in the process of fashion diffusion cannot be interpreted only by the type of social system and may be beyond Rogers' theory. According to Wilkening's and Beal and Bohlen's studies on the diffusion-

adoption of innovative farm practices and products, the overlap of innovativeness and opinion leadership appeared to be minimal. On the other hand, Schrank, and Baumgarten suggested that the extent of the overlap of fashion innovativeness and opinion leadership in the same individual was great. Further, Schrank, and Baumgarten found that the dual-rolled fashion leaders are more active adopters in the process of fashion diffusion than any other fashion leaders. Thus, the nature of the innovation may affect the overlap of innovativeness and opinion leadership in the same individual. The extent of the overlap may appear to be minimal in farm innovation usually based on strong tradition; in contrast, the overlap may be great in fashion innovation which is oriented toward ongoing and rapid change. Therefore, the overlap of fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership for the Korean sample may indicate the nature of fashion rather than social system norms. The results seem to suggest that fashion could work as an adept mechanism socializing people to change and that the overlap of fashion innovativeness and opinion leadership could be found even in a more traditional social system. A more detailed delineation of the nature of fashion with relation to social system norms, however, should be made in future study.

It is evident that the Fashion Innovation Inventory developed recently in American culture can be applied to Korean society. Although this study did not deal with the relationships between cosmopolitanism and fashion leadership, Rogers' diffusion-adoption theory that innovators and opinion leaders tend to use impersonal and cosmopolite sources of information more frequently than non-

leaders has been supported. Distance between nation and nation may not affect fashion leadership. Similar fashion innovations have been adopted in Korea and the United States during the same time period.

In summary, the findings of the present study indicate that fashion leadership was not significantly related to socioeconomic level as the "trickle down" theory suggests. Instead, the findings are supportive of those of King, Grindereing, and Schrank and Gilmore that fashion leadership is fairly evenly distributed throughout all socioeconomic levels. Blumer's concept of fashion as an adept mechanism socializing people to change seems to fit in contemporary Korean society. Additional findings indicate that fashion leadership was significantly related to change-oriented attitudes. This may support Klapp's idea that fashion is followed by the people of all classes because of a means of ego-differentiation as well as a desire for change in a mass society. As Rogers suggested, the overlap of fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership in the same individual may be determined by the social system, but more detailed study of the nature of fashion with relation to social system norms should be made.

Recommendations

Several methodological problems are suggested for further study:

- 1) Although the Fashion Innovation Inventory recently developed in American culture could be applied to Korean society, the Fashion Innovation Inventory should be validated by visits to local Korean stores, and study of Korean fashion magazines, and then compared with the Fashion Innovation Inventory developed in the U. S.

- 2) The use of slides was helpful in understanding the terminology of clothing items. The black out of the model's head reduced the effect of the model's facial expression which might affect the participant's reaction to the "looks" of models. It is recommended for further study continuously. Ideally, fashion innovations used should be pictured in Korean fashion magazines with Korean models wearing those fashion innovations.
- 3) In a cross-cultural study, translation from one language into another language is very important. Therefore, the translation of the instrument should be checked by an expert and pretested by subjects.

The following suggestions are made for further research in the adoption and diffusion of fashion innovation:

- 1) This present study should be repeated on a series of different Korean subjects as well as on similar subjects in other cultures in order to determine whether the conclusions drawn could be accepted more universally.
 - a) Variables such as age, sex, marital status, geographical location (urban and rural areas), income might be considered in future study among Korean subjects.
- 2) This present study deals with only two variables with relation to fashion leadership. Therefore, other variables suggested by Rogers' paradigm or other variables affecting fashion leadership should be considered.
 - a) Variables such as security, attitudes toward conformity, and interest in clothing among Korean subjects could be studied and compared with Schrank's study.
 - b) Individual personality characteristics should be considered in order to determine if fashion leaders differ from non-leaders with relation to Klapp's idea of ego-differentiation.
 - c) Attitude toward women's roles, attitude toward traditional native dress, and attitude toward Western dress with relation to fashion leadership could be studied among Korean subjects.
 - d) Social participation, mass media readership, socio-political factors could be studied to identify the characteristics of fashion leaders among Korean subjects.

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APPENDIX A

The Measures

November 1977

Dear students:

I am a graduate student majoring in Clothing and Textiles in Oregon State University. The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather data for my thesis which deals with opinion and interests of Korean college women.

The data, from the anonymous questionnaire format, will be analyzed statistically, and your answer will be compiled with those of other participants.

There are no right and wrong answers. Your sincere opinion and answers will make a great contribution to the understanding of Korean women.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Sincerely yours,

Minja Kim
School of Home Economics
Oregon State University
United States of America

*(ATTITUDE TOWARD CHANGE INVENTORY)

Listed below are some statements we would like your opinions about. Rate each statement according to the extent to which you agree with it, and circle the appropriate response.

SA--Strongly Agree
 A--Agree
 U--Undecided
 D--Disagree
 SD--Strongly Disagree

- | | | | | | | |
|-----|---|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1. | I don't object to change if others think it is important. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 2. | I often worry about the future of the world. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 3. | It is desirable to "upset the apple cart" to bring about needed changes. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 4. | I would describe myself as a person who values tradition. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 5. | It doesn't bother me when someone changes the rule of the game. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 6. | Too much attention is paid to development in this country and not enough to heritage. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 7. | I am a person who spends time trying to get things changed. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 8. | I prefer to have "a place for everything and everything in its place." | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 9. | I don't like routine. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 10. | I could be described as a traditionalist. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 11. | Most people are in a rut. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 12. | The future is not in my hand. | SA | A | U | D | SD |

*Titles of measures were not included in the actual questionnaire.

- | | | | | | |
|---|----|---|---|---|----|
| 13. More people ought to be interested in political reforms. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 14. I'm not much of an experimenter. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 15. Scientific progress is good. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 16. We ought to pay more attention to the lessons of history. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 17. I like to do new and different things. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 18. Too much change is really not desirable. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 19. Things aren't changing fast enough to suit me. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 20. I like doing things the old way. | SA | A | U | D | SD |

(FASHION OPINION LEADERSHIP INVENTORY)

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

DT--Definitely True

PT--Partially True, more true than false

U--Undecided, Uncertain

PF--Partially False, more false than true

DF--Definitely False

- | | | | | | |
|--|----|----|---|----|----|
| 1. I generally don't pass along fashion information to others. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 2. Fashion holds a low priority as a topic of conversation among my friends. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 3. Others consult me for information about the latest fashion trends. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 4. I believe I am a very good source of advice about fashion. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 5. People talk too much about fashion. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 6. I never borrow or lend fashion magazines. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 7. My friends ask for my opinions about new styles. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |

- | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|----|----|---|----|----|
| 8. | I am more likely than most of my friends to be asked for advice about fashion. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 9. | I do more listening than talking during conversations about fashion. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 10. | When it comes to fashion, I am among the least likely of my friends to be thought of as an advice-giver. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 11. | It is important to share one's opinion about the new styles with others. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 12. | My friends don't think of me as a knowledgeable source of information about fashion trends. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 13. | I recently convinced someone to change an aspect of her appearance to something more fashionable. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 14. | I believe in sharing with others what I know about trends in fashion. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 15. | I enjoy discussing fashion. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 16. | People bypass me as a source of advice about fashion. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 17. | I dislike discussing clothes and fashion. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 18. | I like to help others make decisions about fashion. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 19. | I am never first to be asked for an opinion about a current style. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |
| 20. | I enjoy being asked about fashion trends. | DT | PT | U | PF | DF |

(FASHION INNOVATIVENESS INVENTORY)

Now, we'd like your opinions about some of the clothing and accessory items that manufacturers have advertised for this Fall. We'd like to know which ones you own or like, and how popular you think they'll be at Seoul National University.

Directions:

1. In column 1, check each of the "looks" or combinations that you personally are wearing currently, or plan to wear this fall-- if any.
2. In column 2, please indicate which "looks" or combinations you like, either for yourself or for others. Just check those you like.
3. Please indicate how popular you think each "look" will be this fall among Seoul National University women. Use the number from the scale below and write it in column 3.

Popularity Scale

a very new trend at SNU	worn by a few trend-setters	peak of popularity at SNU	on way out of fashion	out (or never in)						
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

4. For each of the items listed that you might currently own, please write in the month and year you acquired the item. If you do not own the item listed, just leave a blank in Column 4.

SEE THE EXAMPLE ON THE SCREEN AT THE FRONT OF THE ROOM.

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3	Column 4
Currently Wearing	Like "look"	Popularity of "look" at SNU	Combination of Items ("look")
			Items Acquired Month & Year
1.	_____	_____	Big slip-on sweater Crystal pleated, tiered skirt or peasant skirt Sweater type knee socks
			_____ / _____
			_____ / _____
			_____ / _____
2.	_____	_____	Big sweater, slit sides Pleated skirt (wool-like) Shirt in small- scale plaid
			_____ / _____
			_____ / _____
			_____ / _____

	Currently Wearing	Like "look"	Popularity of "look" at SNU	Combination of Items ("look")	Items Acquired Month & Year
3.	_____	_____	_____	Ruffled blouse Hacking jacket or blazer Tartan plaid skirt Dark textured hose	____ / ____ ____ / ____ ____ / ____ ____ / ____
4.	_____	_____	_____	Logger's jacket (usually bold red and black check) Corduroy pants or jeans Boots	____ / ____ ____ / ____ ____ / ____
5.	_____	_____	_____	Shetland sweater Traditional tartan kilt Sweater-type socks	____ / ____ ____ / ____ ____ / ____
6.	_____	_____	_____	Large scarf or shawl draped over ensemble Narrow, straight leg trousers Vest of different fabric or color than trousers	____ / ____ ____ / ____ ____ / ____
7.	_____	_____	_____	Print peasant dress or blouse and skirt Boxy bolero jackets Dark textured hose	____ / ____ ____ / ____ ____ / ____
8.	_____	_____	_____	Sweater with draw-string at lower edge Corduroy pants or fashion jeans or narrow, plaid or check trousers	____ / ____ ____ / ____
9.	_____	_____	_____	Faded jeans (older is better) T-shirt	____ / ____ ____ / ____
10.	_____	_____	_____	Shirt, tailored Down vest Jeans or corduroy slacks	____ / ____ ____ / ____ ____ / ____

Please indicate those items which you are wearing or plan to wear this Fall, by checking () in the appropriate blanks. If you are uncertain or don't know, write "DN" in the blank.

- _____ muffler draped untied over coat or jacket
- _____ muffler knotted over one shoulder
- _____ shawl or large scarf draped untied over outfit
- _____ shawl or large scarf tied under one arm and draped over opposite shoulder
- _____ slacks or jeans tucked into boots
- _____ bulky sweater-type socks (leg-warmers)
- _____ fashion clogs
- _____ felt hat
- _____ cowl collared sweater
- _____ watchman's cap pulled down over hair
- _____ fleece lined vest
- _____ t-shirt with printed message
- _____ well worn jeans
- _____ fashion jeans, such as Levi's

Are there any women's fashion trends at Seoul National University that haven't been listed here? If so, please write them in below.

(SOCIOECONOMIC LEVEL INVENTORY)

Finally, we are interested in knowing something about the families today's college students come from.

1. First, please indicate who has been the main wage earner in your "parental family" for most of your life.

father
 mother
 other (please specify): _____
 (example: stepfather, uncle, brother)

2. What is the name of the occupation of this main wage earner?

Name _____

Please describe as much as you can about what this line of work entails.

3. Thinking in terms of this main wage earner's occupation, please check any of the following phrases which may apply:

<input type="checkbox"/> supervisor	<input type="checkbox"/> manager	<input type="checkbox"/> sales
<input type="checkbox"/> 1-5 employees	<input type="checkbox"/> skilled labor	<input type="checkbox"/> inside
<input type="checkbox"/> 6-10 employees	<input type="checkbox"/> unskilled labor	<input type="checkbox"/> field
<input type="checkbox"/> 10 employees	<input type="checkbox"/> white collar	<input type="checkbox"/> government
<input type="checkbox"/> owner of business	<input type="checkbox"/> blue collar	<input type="checkbox"/> employee
<input type="checkbox"/> small	<input type="checkbox"/> licensed	<input type="checkbox"/> elected
<input type="checkbox"/> medium	<input type="checkbox"/> certified teacher	<input type="checkbox"/> non apply
<input type="checkbox"/> large		

4. Please indicate the level of education achieved by each of the following and write the appropriate number from the box in the blanks at the right.

Level of education		
Professional or graduate school	1	
Completed college	2	
Partial college or other training beyond high school	3	
Completed high school	4	<input type="checkbox"/> main wage earner
Partial high school	5	
Completed middle school	6	
Less than 6 years	7	

Are there any comments you would like to make about this questionnaire?

(THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.)

APPENDIX B

DIRECTION FOR ADMINISTRATION OF THE
QUESTIONNAIRE TO INSTRUCTORSSubjects

Please administer this questionnaire to all of home economics students from freshmen to senior, if possible.

Time

Please distribute this questionnaire at the beginning of class because it takes 40-50 minutes to complete.

Preparation Before Distribution of Questionnaire

1. Please read this questionnaire and review the slides carefully.
2. Please prepare for using slides. Slides for ten groups of "looks" (p. 4-7) and 14 clothing items were made to help understanding the terminology of clothing items. Slides are organized and numbered in order.

Distribution and Administration

1. Please inform students that the purpose of this questionnaire is to gather data for an Oregon State University student's thesis which deals with opinion and interests of Korean students, and that the participants' sincere answer will make a great contribution to the understanding of Korean women.
2. Please inform students that the questionnaire is anonymous and the data collected will be confidential, and that their answers will not affect their grade in the course in any way.
3. Please ask students to stop when they get to page four, read the directions for that section and then wait so they can all look at slides together.

4. Please provide a large manila envelope for the questionnaires. Ask the students to deposit their completed questionnaires in the envelope themselves. The last student should seal the envelope.
5. As soon as the last student's questionnaire is completed, please envelope the questionnaire completed and return to my sister (phone: 38-4594).

I greatly appreciate you for your cooperation in administering these questionnaires.

APPENDIX C

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF TIME-OF-ADOPTION FOR
TEN GROUPS OF "LOOKS" OR "COMBINATIONS"

Combination of Items (Look)	Time-of-Adoption				
	All '75	1-6 76	7-12 76	1-6 77	7-12 77
Big slip-on sweater	7	4	2	2	12
Crystal pleated, tiered skirt or peasant skirt	3	4	9	1	6
Sweater type knee socks	5	2	1	4	4
Big sweater, slit sides	2	0	6	2	3
Pleated skirt (wool-like)	5	2	6	2	3
Shirt in small-scale plaid	5	1	6	1	1
Ruffled blouse	5	2	4	3	3
Hacking jacket or blazer	6	4	7	0	2
Tartan plaid skirt	4	3	5	1	2
Dark textured hose	4	1	0	0	2
Logger's jacket (usually bold red and black check)	3	2	0	0	6
Corduroy pants or jeans	15	7	3	3	8
Boots	1	1	12	1	10
Shetland sweater	12	7	14	2	6
Traditional tartan kilt	3	3	10	2	7
Sweater-type socks	3	2	11	0	4
Large scarf or shawl draped over ensemble	3	0	5	1	6
Narrow, straight leg trousers	1	0	0	1	8
Vest of different fabric or color than trousers	2	1	1	0	2
Print peasant dress or blouse and skirt	3	2	4	0	3
Boxy bolero jackets	0	2	0	0	1
Dark textured hose	1	1	1	0	1
Sweater with drawstring at lower edge	2	1	0	2	6

Combination of Items (Look)	Time-of-Adoption				
	All '75	1-6 76	7-12 76	1-6 77	7-12 77
Corduroy pants or fashion jeans or narrow, plaid or check trousers	8	1	3	1	6
Faded jeans (older is better)	31	9	2	2	3
T-shirt	19	4	3	4	4
Shirt, tailored	9	1	2	1	1
Down vest	0	0	2	1	1
Jeans or corduroy slacks	13	4	7	1	5

APPENDIX D

SOCIOECONOMIC SCORING KEY¹

Warner's 1960 Occupational Scales

<u>Score</u> <u>Weight</u>	<u>Occupational Category</u>
1	Major professionals, large business owners, regional managers, accountants (C.P.A.), large farm managers
2	Lesser professionals, nurses, medium business owners, accountants (other than CPA), real estate salesmen
3	Small professionals, elementary school teachers, small businessmen, clerks, cashiers, executive secretaries, auto salesmen, social workers
4	Small businessmen, mail clerks, bookkeepers, factory-foremen, drycleaners, sheriffs
5	Skilled workers, electricians, policemen, firemen, very small businessmen
6	Unskilled workers, migrants, heavy laborers, unemployed

Educational Scales

<u>Score</u> <u>Weight</u>	<u>Level of Education</u>
1	Professional
2	College graduate
3	Partial College
4	High school graduate
5	Partial high school
6	Middle school graduate
7	Less than 6 years

¹August B. Hollingshead, "Two Factor Index of Social Position." New Haven, Connecticut. Yale University, 1965.

APPENDIX E

ITEM ANALYSIS: MEAN RESPONSES, SUM OF RESPONSES,
STANDARD DEVIATION, TEST RELIABILITY FOR EACH
ITEM OF THE FASHION OPINION LEADERSHIP
INVENTORY

Item No.	Mean Resp.	Sum of Resp.	Std. Dev.	Test Reliability
1	3.096	291.	1.1676	.5893
2	3.564	335.	1.1629	.5772
3	2.798	263.	1.0972	.5692
4	2.489	234.	1.0288	.7076
5	2.681	252.	1.1033	.1104
6	3.670	345.	1.5325	.6642
7	3.074	289.	1.0441	.6701
8	2.606	245.	.9017	.6199
9	2.617	246.	1.0325	.7212
10	3.521	331.	.9755	.7035
11	3.872	364.	.9252	.5224
12	3.245	305.	.9967	.5270
13	4.043	380.	.9444	.4652
14	3.734	351.	1.0229	.6831
15	3.585	337.	1.1431	.6380
16	3.149	296.	.9560	.6951
17	3.979	374.	1.0717	.6612
18	3.649	343.	1.0075	.6925
19	3.479	327.	1.1460	.6280
20	3.894	366.	.9047	.6471

Respondents: 94
Mean scores: 66.745
Standard deviation: 13.787
K-R Reliability: .9262

APPENDIX F

ITEM ANALYSIS: MEAN RESPONSES, SUM OF RESPONSES,
STANDARD DEVIATION, TEST RELIABILITY FOR EACH
ITEM OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARD CHANGE
INVENTORY

Item No.	Mean Resp.	Sum of Resp.	Std. Dev.	Test Reliability
1	3.755	353.	.8080	.2242
2	2.266	213.	1.0736	-.0572
3	2.511	236.	1.1554	.1054
4	2.702	254.	1.1562	.4167
5	2.851	268.	1.0715	.1287
6	3.085	290.	1.1638	.1588
7	3.894	366.	.9506	.4038
8	2.362	222.	1.1837	.1214
9	3.521	331.	1.1367	.2176
10	3.426	322.	1.1438	.5463
11	2.330	219.	.9384	.0237
12	1.649	155.	.7396	-.0092
13	3.894	366.	.9047	-.0729
14	3.553	334.	1.0581	.4085
15	3.968	373.	.7064	.1544
16	1.777	167.	.6866	.0649
17	3.957	372.	.9215	.3255
18	2.149	202.	.8624	.1684
19	2.809	264.	.8540	.0076
20	3.734	351.	.8402	.3509

Respondents: 94
 Mean scores: 60.1915
 Standard deviation: 6.4565
 K-R Reliability: .5709

APPENDIX G

ITEM ANALYSIS: MEAN RESPONSES, SUM OF RESPONSES,
STANDARD DEVIATION, TEST RELIABILITY FOR EACH
ITEM OF THE REVISED ATTITUDE TOWARD CHANGE
INVENTORY

Item No.	Mean Resp.	Sum of Resp.	Std. Dev.	Test Reliability
1	3.755	353.	.8080	.2544
4	2.702	254.	1.1562	.4260
6	3.085	290.	1.1638	.2056
7	3.894	366.	.9506	.4836
9	3.521	331.	1.1367	.1934
10	3.426	322.	1.1438	.5180
14	3.553	334.	1.0581	.5143
15	3.968	373.	.7064	.2343
17	3.957	372.	.9215	.4330
18	2.149	202.	.8624	.1493
20	3.734	351.	.8402	.3115

Respondents: 94
Mean scores: 37.745
Standard deviation: 5.3732
K-R Reliability: .6798

APPENDIX H

WEIGHTS FOR THE FASHION OPINION LEADERSHIP INVENTORY
AND THE ATTITUDE TOWARD CHANGE INVENTORY

Item No.	Fashion Opinion Leadership					Attitude Toward Change				
	DT	PT	U	PF	DF	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	1	2	3	4	5	5	4	3	2	1
2	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
4	5	4	3	2	1	1	2	3	4	5
5	1	2	3	4	5	5	4	3	2	1
6	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
8	5	4	3	2	1	1	2	3	4	5
9	1	2	3	4	5	5	4	3	2	1
10	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
11	5	4	3	2	1	1	2	3	4	5
12	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
13	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
14	5	4	3	2	1	1	2	3	4	5
15	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
16	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
17	1	2	3	4	5	5	4	3	2	1
18	5	4	3	2	1	1	2	3	4	5
19	1	2	3	4	5	5	4	3	2	1
20	5	4	3	2	1	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX I

EXAMPLES FOR TEN GROUPS OF "LOOKS" AND FOURTEEN CLOTHING ITEMS

"Looks" No.	Clothing Item No.
1. Glamour, August 1977, p. 152.	1. Glamour, Oct. 1977, p. 213.
2. Harper's Bazaar, August 1977, p. 141.	2. Harper's Bazaar, July 1977, p. 26.
3. Vogue, August 1977, p. 39.	3. Harper's Bazaar, August 1977, p. 78.
4. Vogue, August 1977, p. 37.	4. Harper's Bazaar, August 1977, p. 65.
5. Glamour, August 1977, p. 159.	5. Harper's Bazaar, August 1977, p. 65.
6. Harper's Bazaar, August 1977, p. 10.	6. Glamour, Sept. 1977, p. 10.
7. Glamour, August 1977, p. 186.	7. Korean Fashion Magazine, Feb. 1977.
8. Glamour, August 1977, p. 100.	8. Harper's Bazaar, Oct. 1976.
9. The Great American T-Shirt, p. 68.	9. Glamour, Oct. 1977, p. 59.
10. Glamour, August 1977, p. 182.	10. Glamour, August 1977, p. 152.
	11. Glamour, Oct. 1977, p. 208.
	12. Butterick, 3590, August 1977.
	13. Butterick, 3576, August 1977.
	14. Seventeen, 1976, p. 78.

APPENDIX J

CORRELATION COEFFICIENT MATRIX OF FASHION INNOVATIVENESS
I, II, AND III TO ALL OTHER VARIABLES

Variable	I (normative)	Innovativeness II (innovative)	III
Fashion Innovativeness II (innovative)	.8448**		
III	.5255**	.3784**	
Fashion Opinion Leadership	.3415**	.3493**	.3808**
Attitude Toward Change	.0743	.2092*	.2126*
Socioeconomic Level	-.0662	-.1533	.0677

** p<.001 92df

* p<.05