

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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Title: SATISFACTION WITH CLOTHING AND PERSONAL APPEARANCE RELATED
TO SELF-ESTEEM AND PARTICIPATION IN ACTIVITIES AMONG FULL-
TIME HOMEMAKERS

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The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationships among satisfaction with clothing, satisfaction with physical appearance, concern over weight, self-esteem, and participation in leisure-time activities among a sample of full-time homemakers.

To test these relationships, five measures were used. Satisfaction with clothing was measured by comparing the actual and ideal ratings of 34 aspects of clothing or wardrobe. A measurement of satisfaction with physical appearance was obtained by ratings of 24 aspects of the physical body on a satisfaction-dissatisfaction continuum. Concern over weight was measured by summing the ratings of five aspects (bust, hips, thighs, waist, and weight) from the satisfaction with physical appearance measure. The three above-mentioned measures were developed for this study and pre-tested on students enrolled in Oregon State University clothing selection classes. The results of the pre-test were analyzed with appropriate changes being made where necessary.

Self-esteem was measured by use of two scales (Self-Regard and Self-Acceptance) from the Personal Orientation Inventory by Shostrom (1963). An adaptation of "Leisure Participation and Enjoyment" by Pace (1941) was used to measure participation in leisure-time activities. A short questionnaire was also developed for purposes of sample description.

Participants in the study were full-time homemakers with children enrolled in the Pre-School Story Hour Program of the Corvallis Public Library. The first half of the satisfaction with clothing measure (actual description of clothing), the satisfaction with physical appearance measure, and the Personal Orientation Inventory were administered to the women at the library while their children attended the story hour. The remainder of the tests were completed by the participants at home and returned by mail. Information describing the sample revealed that the majority were between the ages of 25 and 35, were college-educated, and were married to men of high educational and occupational attainments. Because of these factors, generalizations from the study are limited to other full-time homemakers of similar background.

Analysis of the data revealed that there were significant relationships at the .01 level between satisfaction with clothing and satisfaction with physical appearance, and between satisfaction with physical appearance and low concern over weight. Relationships significant at the .05 level were found between satisfaction with clothing and low concern over weight, and between self-esteem and participation in leisure-time activities.

Satisfaction with clothing, satisfaction with physical appearance, and concern over weight were not related to self-esteem or to participation in leisure-time activities.

It was concluded that satisfaction with clothing and appearance are closely related and that self-esteem is a complex phenomenon requiring further study and investigation. It was suggested that both self-esteem and participation in activities could be better studied in relation to satisfaction with clothing, satisfaction with appearance and concern over weight by differentiating among types of activities which vary in degree of social contact and intimacy.

Satisfaction With Clothing and Personal Appearance
Related to Self-Esteem and Participation in Activities Among
Full-Time Homemakers

by

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SATISFACTION WITH CLOTHING AND PERSONAL APPEARANCE RELATED TO SELF-ESTEEM AND PARTICIPATION IN ACTIVITIES AMONG FULL-TIME HOMEMAKERS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

From the beginning of the 20th century, there has been an increasing interest in the study of human behavior. In the works of Flugel, Hurlock, and others in the early 1930's, clothing was referred to as a possible expression of the inner self.

The interdisciplinary study of textiles and clothing related to the social sciences was initiated in May, 1947 at Teachers College, Columbia University. Home economists, sociologists, psychologists, and economists jointly explored possible research topics and were made aware of the importance of and need for cooperation among the disciplines (Brasie et al., 1947).

Out of this first conference grew several others with the common goal of gaining a better understanding of human behavior through an interdisciplinary approach. In 1948, 1949, and 1950, three seminars were held at Syracuse University which focused on the economics of clothing and textiles (Sybers and Roach, 1962). The department of Textiles, Clothing, and Related Arts and the department of Sociology and Anthropology at Michigan State University sponsored a seminar during the summer of 1949. More than 70 proposals were discussed interrelating the social sciences and the study of clothing and textiles. Participants in the seminar also had the opportunity to plan and carry out a small research project utilizing socio-psychological approaches (Rosencranz, 1950). This seminar was followed by a similar one in 1951 (Sybers and Roach, 1962).

A University of Rhode Island workshop called "Studies and Research on the Social Aspects of Textiles and Clothing" was held in the summer of 1954 (Sybers and Roach, 1962).

In June, 1956, clothing and textiles teachers from all regions of the United States met at the University of Maryland to participate in a work conference. Goals for clothing and textiles were redefined with emphasis on the socio-psychological, managerial, economic, aesthetic, and hygienic aspects. The goals related to the socio-psychological area were to:

1. Understand that in a dynamic society change is inevitable and that in clothing and textiles there are many illustrations of this characteristic.
2. Realize that textiles and clothing are a means through which roles in life are identified and expressed.
3. Appreciate the part clothing and textiles play in the culture of any country.
4. Understand the close relation between textiles and clothing and the satisfaction and dissatisfaction felt within the family ("Clothing and Textiles: Further Progress," 1961, pp. 678-679).

One result of the Maryland meeting was a plan for a national conference to be held in 1959. This conference, held at the University of Wisconsin, was marked by an emphasis on the socio-psychological aspects of clothing (Sybers and Roach, 1962).

A second work conference of clothing and textile teachers held in June of 1961 at the University of Illinois also included among its participants home economics administrators and members of the staff of the Office of Education, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. To the previous goals in the socio-psychological area was added the goal to "understand the intimate nature of the relation between

one's self and the clothing and textiles which one uses." ("Clothing and Textiles: Further Progress," 1961, p. 679). Consideration of ways to implement the goals was the major concern of the conference and it was suggested that:

. . . perhaps the keynote for college teachers of textiles and clothing for the next ten years is to be alert to developments in the social and economic structure of our country and to gear continuously the contribution made by the area of textiles and clothing to the constantly changing conditions (Ibid., p. 680).

In the ten years since this conference, there has been a continual growth of interest in relating clothing and textiles to the social sciences. The present study is a further attempt to utilize the social sciences in gaining a better understanding of textiles and clothing in relation to human behavior.

Need for the Study

The 20th century has brought changes in the lives of Americans undreamed of by previous generations. Science and technology have sent men into space, made great strides in medicine, and have given consumers almost any product imaginable. But in the wake of these advances have been increasing psychological pressures and problems. Although material needs are generally well met, psychological needs often fail to be recognized or satisfied.

Especially affected by difficulties in meeting the psychological needs for esteem are full-time homemakers. With the current stress on population control, motherhood is a less revered role than in earlier eras. With Women's Liberation movements have come the call for women to give up their "degraded" position in the home. In addition, many

women have gone into part-time or full-time employment with those remaining at home full-time being caused to believe that they are of less value to society. Glenn and Walters (1966) summarize this by stating:

. . . today's young bride may find she is expected to work. And if she is a consumer of much that is being written today, she may conclude that being employed outside the home is more worthy than being a full-time homemaker. . . American women of the middle class who choose a role of homemaking as a full-time responsibility have been referred to as one of the nation's great wasted potentials (p. 705).

Although homemakers in general are facing difficulty in meeting esteem needs, homemakers who do not have an "ideal" body size and shape are in a particularly vulnerable position to meet these needs. The American culture endorses an ideal body type -- magazines, advertisements, television, and entertainment all exhibit tall, thin women and encourage those not fitting the model to seek it through diets, exercises, and even electrical equipment. Research has shown that deviation from this cultural ideal results in dissatisfaction with the body and that this dissatisfaction varies with the extent of the deviation (Jourard and Secord, 1955). Therefore, in addition to facing difficulties in meeting esteem needs as a homemaker, those who deviate from the ideal in body shape and size have the added disadvantage of lacking esteem from themselves and society on the basis of this deviation.

Improvements in clothing and personal appearance have been suggested by theorists and researchers as a means of enhancing self-esteem.

George Van Ness Dearborn has said:

Protected, fearless initiative; unirritated, mind-free, normal manhood and womanhood, confident of its eternal and universal mastery, arise from rational self-satisfaction. Clothes help this in no small degree, -- or hinder it (1918, p. 55).

In view of the social and psychological forces affecting home-makers, and especially those who show concern over their body size and shape, ways to enhance their feelings of self-worth are important for them, for their families, and for society as a whole. The role clothing and personal appearance could play in this regard should not be overlooked.

Theoretical Framework

A. H. Maslow, a contemporary psychologist, has postulated that each individual has basic needs -- the physiological, safety, love or belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization needs. These basic human urges are biologically important for every individual because:

1. The person yearns for their gratification persistently.
2. Their deprivation makes the person sicken and wither, or stunts his growth.
3. Gratifying them is therapeutic, curing the deficiency-illness.
4. Steady supplies forestall these illnesses.
5. Healthy people do not demonstrate these deficiencies (Maslow, 1959, p. 123).

The basic needs are arranged in a hierarchy of priority or potency. To satisfy the safety needs, the physiological needs have to be met first; before love needs can take precedence, physiological and safety needs must be satisfied; before esteem and self-actualization needs will be recognized and dealt with, physiological, safety, and love needs have to be adequately satisfied (Maslow, 1954).

Technology and vast material resources have helped to achieve satisfaction of the physiological and safety needs for the majority

of the American people. For the homemaker, love needs are also met at least to a degree. However, esteem and self-actualization needs often fail to be adequately realized. Maslow states that the esteem needs consist of having a stable, firmly-based evaluation of oneself as well as a feeling of respect from others. The need for self-actualization, which can only arise if the other needs are satisfied, refers to:

. . . man's desire for self-fulfillment, namely to the tendency for him to become actualized in what he is potentially. This tendency might be phrased as the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming (1954, pp. 91-92).

The esteem needs stand at a critical position in the hierarchy of needs -- their satisfaction must be met before the individual can leave the realm of deficiency needs (a removal of physical discomfort, a removal of fear, etc.) and enter into the realm of self-actualization and growth needs (a move toward autonomy, a move toward creativity, etc.) to become a more complete and fully actualized person.

The relationship of clothing to self-esteem has long been recognized. In 1918, George Van Ness Dearborn stated that "being well-dressed . . . is part of the essential ratio between happiness and personal ability and efficiency. . ." (p. 53). Grace Morton wrote in 1926 that:

Clothes help to make us self-confident, self-respecting, jolly, free, or they make us self-conscious, shy, sensitive, and restrained. They determine how much we go into society, the places we go, the exercise we take. They help us to get jobs and to hold them, to miss them and to lose them (p. 585).

Research by Aiken, Ryan, Hurlock, Klaasen, and others has indicated that being well- or poorly-dressed produces psychological results. The challenge for home economics, then, lies in a better understanding of this relationship and in using the knowledge gained to aid others.

George Hartmann summarizes this challenge by stating:

Home economics education in the field of sound clothing behavior must ultimately contribute something to the making of the superior personality, or its activities will be found to be fatally defective (1949, p. 296).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Body Image Studies

Body image is ". . . a term which refers to the body as a psychological experience, and focuses on the individual's feelings and attitudes toward his own body." (Fisher and Cleveland, 1958, p. X). The importance of this concept in present-day society is well expressed by the same authors:

The importance of body image to our culture as a whole is obvious in terms of the widespread expenditure of time and effort that is given to altering the body's appearance (1958, p. 23).

Four specific areas of study related to the body image will be reviewed. Studies of body stereotypes indicate whether or not a cultural ideal exists and will be reviewed first. A second area involves body image studies and indicates whether dissatisfaction with the body is found among specified groups. Research studying the effects of body image on behavior will then be reviewed followed by studies relating clothing to body image as a specific example of the effects of body image on behavior.

Stereotypes of Body Physiques

Studies related to stereotypes of physiques grew out of an interest in the physique-temperament studies of W. H. Sheldon (1940). Sheldon postulated that for a specific body type, certain personality characteristics would be manifested. Thus, an endomorph (a person with a predominance of round, soft contours) was a fun-, food-, and comfort-loving

person. The linear, tall, thin ectomorph was supposed to be restrained, self-conscious, and secretive. The muscular mesomorph was assertive, direct, competitive, and a lover of physical adventure.

A Master's thesis by David Sleet (1968) questioned whether stereotypes may have contaminated Sheldon's results. By having college males rank 12 pictures on the characteristics of best-liked, well-adjusted, homosexual, religious, physically fit, and physically attractive, Sleet confirmed his hypothesis that stereotypes do exist. Mesomorphs were attributed the most desirable characteristics; endomorphs were assigned to the least desirable.

Research by Wells and Siegel (1961) on adults who had no knowledge of Sheldon's work also resulted in ratings which showed clear stereotypes linking physique to personality.

Similar results were found in studies where males ages 10-20 and adult females were asked to assign phrases of personality traits to adult male photographs. Mesomorphs were associated with positive phrases; ectomorphs and endomorphs were assigned negative phrases (Lerner, 1969a, 1969b).

A study by Staffieri (1967) on younger children (90 males, ages 6-10) also demonstrated the existence of stereotypes of body build. All subjects assigned favorable adjectives to the mesomorph silhouette and unfavorable adjectives to the endomorph and ectomorph silhouettes. The children also showed a clear preference to look like the mesomorph.

Dibiase and Hjelle (1968) found mesomorphs to be perceived as active, energetic, and dominant whereas endomorphs and ectomorphs were seen as withdrawn and dependent. In this study, all the subjects expressed a desire to look like the mesomorph.

Sugerman and Haronian (1964) photographed and somatotyped 102 subjects and measured acceptance of their own body image by use of a human figure drawing test. Their findings showed that in addition to the existence of cultural stereotypes, a negative body image existed among the hyper-obese.

Another demonstration of consistent stereotyped perceptions of physiques was found by Kiker and Miller (1967). Eleven pictures of male bodies were ranked for eight concepts by male and female college students. Five concepts (lazy, liked best, well-adjusted, homosexual, and religious) were statistically significant for both male and female subjects and one concept (big man on campus) was significant for males only.

Sleet (1969) compared the stereotypes of middle-aged men to those of college-aged men using the results of the Kiker and Miller research just mentioned. The two groups reacted similarly except that there was more agreement on the religious concept by the college men and more agreement on the well-adjusted concept by the middle-aged men.

Since previous studies had dealt only with stereotypes of male physiques, Miller and Stewart (1968) asked male subjects to rank female physiques on seven concepts. Consistent stereotyped perceptions were demonstrated with six of the seven concepts being statistically significant.

In trying to find factors contributing to stereotyping, group affiliation and anxiety were studied by Kiker et al. (1968). Members of a group reacted more similarly than did a heterogeneous group and anxiety increased the tendency to stereotype others. These two factors were not, however, considered to be an overall explanation of stereotyping.

Body Image Studies

With existence of stereotypes of body build and of a cultural ideal so consistently supported, it is logical that dissatisfaction with the body could be a result of deviation from the standard. Many researchers have investigated this concept in their studies.

A word association test was developed by Secord (1953) as a means of measuring body-cathexis (degree of satisfaction with the body). By scoring responses to 100 stimulus words on the basis of "bodily" or "non-bodily", high scorers were related to low body acceptance and low scorers to high body acceptance.

In a study by Jourard and Secord (1954), 62 male undergraduates filled out a body-cathexis questionnaire and were measured for their own physical attributes. Large size was associated with strong positive feelings on all aspects except weight.

A study of females resulted in support for the hypothesis that deviation from the cultural ideal relates to dissatisfaction with the body. Significant correlations were found between measured size of selected aspects of the body and satisfaction for those parts. Small size was associated with satisfaction on all body aspects except the bust. Satisfaction was found to vary with the extent of deviation and

it was also found that the standard deviations for ideal size measurements were significantly smaller than were standard deviations for actual measurements. This last finding indicates the existence of a shared ideal in this sample of women (Jourard and Secord, 1955).

A study of female college students on eating patterns and body image showed that the majority expressed dissatisfaction with their bodies and viewed them as heavier than they were in actuality. Only 7.5 percent of the sample felt they had achieved their ideal figure (Wakefield and Miller, 1971).

In a comparison between males and females, Jourard and Remy (1957) found that the women had a more highly differentiated body image than did the men. They also found that women differentiated the self-concept and the body image to an equivalent degree; that men differentiated their self-concept to a greater degree than their body concept; and that men and women did not differ in the degree of differentiation of the self-concept.

Kurtz (1969) also found that women have a more clearly differentiated body concept than do men. In contrast to other studies, he found that women had a more positive evaluative attitude toward their bodies than did men which Kurtz believes is consistent with the high esteem accorded the physical form of the female body in American society.

In another study of the degree of satisfaction with body and facial features among males and females, it was found that females expressed less satisfaction with the attractiveness of their features than did the males. Males wanted to be three pounds heavier; females, seven pounds lighter. All the females dissatisfied with weight wanted

to be smaller whereas only half of the dissatisfied males desired a change in this direction. On height, the results were reversed -- all but two of the dissatisfied males wanted to be taller while only half of the dissatisfied females wished to have this change. Subjects of both sexes in this study showed a decided preference for the balanced somatotyped figure as the most attractive and saw the extreme endomorph as the least attractive. Females, however, held these views more strongly than did the males (Calden, Lundy and Schlafer, 1959).

Male and female Japanese-American and Caucasian-American college students participated in a study by Arkoff and Weaver (1966). The results showed that males desired to be larger on all dimensions except hips and waist; females wanted to be taller, lighter in weight, larger in the bust, and smaller in the hips and waist. Japanese-American females showed significantly greater dissatisfaction with their bodies than did males of the same race and Caucasian females. Height showed greatest dissatisfaction among Japanese-American females with the desire to be more than an inch taller. Japanese-American males showed significantly more dissatisfaction on height and biceps than did Caucasian males while none of the other dimensions showed significant differences.

Rosen and Ross (1968) refined the measures of Jourard and Secord by differentiating among the parts of the body and adding the variable of importance of body aspect. Their research showed that the relationship between attitudes about the self and the body are a function of the importance of the particular bodily aspect.

Effect of Body Image on Behavior

If cultural ideals of the body exist and cause dissatisfaction with one's own body by those not achieving the ideal, it can then be hypothesized that this dissatisfaction with the body will be seen in the behavior of the individual. The relationship between body image and behavior has also been investigated by several researchers.

Using the word association test and body-cathexis and self-cathexis measures, Secord and Jourard (1953) supported the concept that feelings about the self and the body are related. For women, anxiety was related to a lower body-cathexis score. Insecurity related to a low body-cathexis score for both men and women.

A replication of this work found that body-cathexis and self-cathexis were significantly related but that the relationship was greater for men than for women. Insecurity related to body-cathexis was also of greater significance among males (Weinberg, 1960).

Zion (1965) used the Bills Index of Adjustment and Values and a body-concept measure developed for the study to investigate the relationship of body concept to self-concept among female college students. The results caused Zion to conclude that the security a person has with his body is related to the manner in which he accepts himself and faces the world.

Seymour Fisher has studied body image in relation to the concept of body boundaries. His research has revealed that the more definite the individual's boundaries, the more intense will be his perceptual experiences (1968). He also found that a person with a definite body image boundary is likely to assign prominence to body

exterior as compared to body interior sensations (Fisher and Fisher, 1964).

In three separate Human Relations Training Laboratories, a study of body image and group behavior was undertaken by Cleveland and Morton (1962). It was found that those with a well-integrated body image were considered by those in the group to be active, independent, goal-seeking, and influential. Those with a poor body image rated low on these characteristics and were often considered self-interested.

Using the MAPS (Make a Picture Story) test, Frede, Gautney, and Baxter (1968) found that those with well-integrated body images put the MAPS characters closer to each other and also had more approach interactions and more overall incidents of interaction than those with lower body images. This gives support to the hypothesis that those with a favorable body image feel less threatened and can be more intimate.

Several experiments relating to judgments of body size have been done. Body size estimations were contrasted between male and female subjects in a study by Shontz (1963). Significant differences were found in the estimation of body-part size between the sexes, with females having greater deviation scores between the actual and estimated sizes. Females also showed greater variability on body-part size estimates showing that women's orientations toward the body are more part-by-part while men's are more global.

Schonbuch and Schell (1967) found that over- and underweight groups made significantly more errors in estimating their body appearance than did normal-weight groups. For both underweight and overweight subjects, size and shape of the body were overestimated. A later study by Cappon and Banks (1968) showed the same results.

In a study using the Draw-A-Person (DAP) test, overweight subjects tended to draw figures with larger head and torso dimensions than subjects in normal and underweight groups. The results indicated to the researchers the existence of large body images among the overweight (Bailey, Shinedling, and Payne, 1970).

Another study of body-size estimates was done comparing psychotic and non-patient groups. The findings showed no patient-control differences or sex differences in the errors of estimate. Overall estimates by all groups were, however, significantly different from actual measurements (Dillon, 1962a, 1962b).

Stunkard and Burt (1967), on the basis of research with children, adolescents, and adults, suggested that adolescence may be the critical period for the development of body image disturbances. Stunkard and Mendelson (1967) reported on the serious effects of this disturbance in the body image. It is characterized by feeling that the body is ugly and that others view it with contempt. Self-consciousness in general and in relation to the opposite sex are also characteristic and result in impaired social functioning.

Clothing and the Body Image

Studies of body stereotypes, body images, and the effects of the body image on behavior have been investigated by numerous social scientists. Little, however, has been done to relate clothing to the body image. The studies that have been done are mainly in the area of body size and image related to clothing preferences.

An early study showed that blue, black, navy, and gray were preferred colors and small designs or checks were preferred prints of stout women (Holverson, 1952).

Preferences for color and design variables were independent of physical characteristics (eye color, hair color, weight/stature) in a study by Compton (1962). She later (1969) studied anxiety in relation to body perception to find that a relationship did exist between body perception and anxiety and fabric choices. Those who demonstrated low body awareness also exhibited more anxiety than those women with high body awareness. Low body awareness was related to the choice of weak figure-ground contrasts; high body awareness was related to strong contrasts.

Another study by Compton (1967) showed that delinquent girls who had larger height/weight ratios than did non-delinquent girls chose fewer strong figure-ground contrasts and chose warm colors more often than did the smaller girls.

Using the Compton Fabric Preference Test, a modified body-cathexis scale patterned after Jourard and Secord's measure, measures of security-insecurity, anxiety, and field-dependence and independence, a test of body awareness, and personal assessment data, Matthews (1969) studied obese and non-obese college women. Although the obese were significantly less satisfied with their bodies than the non-obese, there were no significant differences between the two groups on the measures of body awareness, field-dependence, security-insecurity, or anxiety. The more the non-obese were aware of their bodies and the more secure they were, the greater the tendency to choose weak figure-ground contrasts for clothing fabrics. Obese girls with the same personality characteristics chose strong figure-ground contrasts.

Compton (1964) and Kernalleguen and Compton (1968) studied the body boundary concept and stated that clothing can serve to redefine weak body boundaries and thus raise the individual's level of adjustment.

In a recent study by Richards and Hawthorne (1971), male college students completed the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values, Jourard and Secord's body-cathexis scale, and a clothing opinion questionnaire for men which was developed for the study. Neither values and body-cathexis nor body-cathexis and clothing attitudes were related. The researchers suggested that men may see their bodies as isolated from clothing as an explanation of the results.

The relationship of clothing to body image, particularly in regard to body image disturbances has been discussed by Mosey (1969). She states:

An individual who wears clothes which are too large or many-layered may be using his clothing to hide an unacceptable body. Clothes which are tight-fitting or inappropriately revealing may indicate a need to reassure himself that his body is a desirable object. If he wishes to retain an asexual body image he may dress in a childish or sexually undifferentiated manner. Many of those who have not completely separated themselves from the environment regard their clothing as an extension of the self; they become anxious and confused if others wear their clothes or if an artifact of their clothing is lost. Covering the face with hair, the continual wearing of dark glasses or excessive make-up may indicate a negative attitude toward the face or the entire body (p. 414).

Schilder (1950) has also suggested clothing and appearance as a means of transforming the body image. He believes that whatever comes in contact with the body becomes part of the body image, such as lipstick or bleached hair. He relates the plasticity of the body image to the beliefs among primitive peoples that man can change into other shapes and animals and also to the numerous myths and fairy tales

incorporating the idea of transformation from human to animal and vice versa.

Clothing and the Self

The Self

Much has been written concerning the self and the importance of maintaining a favorable view of oneself.

Allport (1937) pointed out that to keep esteem at a maximum, it may be necessary to cover emotions, put on a front, and avoid exposing one's weaknesses, perhaps at considerable cost. In order to cope with threats to esteem, defense mechanisms such as repression, denial, or rationalization are often employed (Allport, 1961).¹

Combs (1949) has suggested that the need to maintain the self may be a basic human need. In his studies of maladjustment as a function of perceived threat, Combs found that the effects of threat are at a minimum when the self is viewed as adequate to deal with the perceived events.

Extensive work by Maslow has been done in the area of esteem as a basic need. In his theoretical structure, Maslow identifies esteem as a need which must be satisfied before the full development of a person can take place (1954). He has also discussed the process of growth as contrasted to defense. Each person has both forces affecting him -- one force causes him to want to cling to safety while the other impels him toward a greater wholeness of self. An adequate feeling of esteem is necessary before a person can move toward a perhaps more threatening but also a more fulfilling area of growth (1956). Research on the

perceived and ideal selves has shown that the greater the correspondence between perceived and ideal, the more adequate is the personal adjustment of the individual (Chodorkoff, 1954).

Additional self-ideal research has emphasized that there should be a consideration of item meaningfulness in analyzing results as those items of greater importance to the subjects will be rated more extremely (Weigel and Weigel, 1969).

Numerous other studies of the self have been conducted. As part of a larger research project, Boshier (1970) searched literature and Psychological Abstracts for titles dealing with the concept of the self. He selected the most significant pre-1961 titles and noted all post-1961 titles related to the self for a total of 500 references.

The Relationship of Clothing to the Self

The relationship of clothing to the self has also attracted a considerable amount of attention in recent years among researchers.

A study of 100 college girls by Ryan (1951) showed that if a girl feels well-dressed, she thinks she will be more talkative, peppier, can enter more into activities and feel a part of the group. If she feels poorly-dressed, she thinks she will be quieter, self-conscious, will try to stay away from the center of activity, and may feel more like a spectator than a participant in the group. Further research by Ryan (1953) demonstrated that 96 percent of those in the study could describe times when they felt well- or poorly-dressed. Over 80 percent said that their mood was affected and 58 percent said actions were affected.

Lawrence Langner (1959) has also observed that clothing can affect feelings and behavior. Uniforms worn by soldiers or policemen which

give them courage and clothing of the Ku Klux Klan which encourages the wearer to excesses he wouldn't normally commit are given as examples.

Gibbins' research (1969) into the communicative aspects of clothing demonstrated that clothes are used as a means of conveying messages about the wearer and that the liking for a particular outfit is related to the extent that its message is similar to the viewer's ideal self image.

In her Master's thesis, Williams (1965) found clothing satisfaction being related to self-satisfaction but not to a significant degree.

Research at Pennsylvania State University by Deemer (1967) showed that responses on a self-ideal-self clothing and appearance measure were related to responses on the Bills Index of Adjustment and Values, a self-concept measure.

Several studies related to self-esteem have been done. Klaasen (1967) used eight scales (aesthetic, psychological dependence, social approval, comfort, interest, management, modesty, and special attention) to test clothing attitudes and behaviors among high school students. Self-esteem was positively related to the aesthetic concern for both boys and girls as was the use of clothing to seek special attention. Interest and management in clothing were positively related to self-esteem in girls.

Using the same sample for her research, Humphrey (1967) suggested that an individual with a high self-concept may use clothing as a means of self-expression whereas those with a less stable self-concept may use clothes to cope with the social situation.

A study of college women showed that those with low self-esteem and security scores reflected a difference in their use of words to describe pictures of clothed figures from those who were high in security and esteem (Dickey, 1967).

Using Aiken's Revised Clothing Opinionnaire and Maslow's Social Personality Inventory for Women, Kloebe (1969) related self-esteem to several factors of clothing. High self-esteem was related to low scores in decoration motivation, clothing conformity, comfort in dress motivation, interest in dress, and to high scores in economy of dress motivation. The reverse results were found for those with low self-esteem scores.

Bradford (1968) studied full-time homemakers in relation to personal appearance and role satisfaction. In this study, attitudes concerning clothing were not related to self-concept or marital happiness. The failure to find significant relationships, however, could be due to inadequate measures rather than faulty hypotheses.

George Hartmann (1949) has emphasized how intimately clothing and the self are linked. He states that all clothing evokes some degree of ego-involvement by the wearer and that ". . . one suspects that authentic sartorial fitness and emotional health are not far apart and that one may frequently be symptomatic of the other." (p. 296).

In this regard, there has been recent interest in improving the dress of the mentally ill as a means of therapy. Baker (1955) reported a rise in pride and greater concern for clothing care when patients were encouraged to wear their own clothing rather than institutional dress.

A project at Napa State Hospital in California resulted in the development of a group called Fashion Therapy. The group included models, hair stylists, dress designers, and volunteers who worked with patients to improve their appearance. For many patients, improvements in behavior were dramatic. An interesting side effect was that nurses and male patients also improved their appearance after the initiation of the program (Thompson, 1962).

Social Participation

Research into the field of social participation has most frequently been concerned with kind and amount of participation. Little has been done to link participation with personality or behavioral factors.

Teele (1965) has made an extensive review of social participation research. Measures used most frequently include number of neighbors known, number of friends, frequency of visits to neighbors, number of voluntary associations in which membership is held, and frequency of attendance at meetings of voluntary associations. He suggests frequency of church attendance, amount of participation in social hobbies, frequency of seeing co-workers after hours, visits to friends and relatives outside of town, and a wide range of incidental and accidental contacts of an informal nature as variables rarely used but possessing research merit. Teele's study of participation research led him to the conclusion that the studies are marked by a failure to conceptualize social participation adequately and by a lack of consistency in research design, particularly with reference to sampling procedures.

In a study of attitudes related to participation, Rose (1959) found that socialized attitudes were more likely among those who participated more, and that the degree of anomie was positively related to the extent to which social participation had been limited. In all cases where the attitude item significantly distinguished participants from non-participants, the item dealt with the respondents' self-concept. Rose concluded that those who participated more as contrasted with those with limited social participation, were characterized by more optimistic attitudes, greater satisfaction with their lives, and more confidence in society.

Low social participation was related to mistrust of people, static and retrogressive conservatism, rigidity, inexpressiveness, conformity, and acquiescence in a study by Bronfenbrenner (1960).

Goldhammer (1964) found that a higher level of education was related to a higher rate of participation, a relationship especially strong for women. Use of the Thurston Neurotic Inventory also showed a tendency toward an inverse relationship between total neurotic score and membership frequency. This finding was especially strong for married women.

The Personal Orientation Inventory

Correlation Studies with Other Measures

The Personal Orientation Inventory (POI), a measure of self-actualization, was developed by Everett L. Shostrom in 1963. In validation studies on college students, mental patients, members of Sensitivity Training Programs, school psychologists, and "normal" adults, the POI has shown a definite trend toward distinguishing self-actualized, normal, and non-self-actualized groups (Shostrom, 1964).

Since its development, the P0I has been correlated with several other personality measures. In a correlation with the Gordon Personal Inventory (GPI), the original thinking scale of the GPI showed the most consistent tendency to relate to P0I scales (Braun and Asta, 1968).

A comparison of the P0I and the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI), a measure of neuroticism-stability and extraversion-introversion, was made by Knapp (1965). The high neurotic group identified by the EPI was lower on every scale of the P0I than was the low neurotic group. Positive correlations between the P0I scales and the introversion-extraversion dimension of the EPI were found on all but one scale.

Results from a study comparing the P0I with inventories by Edwards and Cattell demonstrated to the researchers that the P0I was a useful instrument for its intended purposes (Grossack, Armstrong, and Lussiev, 1966).

Fakability of the P0I

Research on the P0I has also been done in the area of fakability of the measure. In a study by Braun and Asta (1969), the P0I was completed during two sessions under real-self and ideal-self instructions. Under ideal-self instructions, scores moved in the direction of self-actualization on six scales, toward less self-actualization on four scales, with two scales showing no difference.

Additional research by Braun and LeFaro (1969) showed that P0I scores can be raised but this requires specific knowledge about the test and about self-actualization. Conscious attempts to create a good impression or appear well-adjusted without this knowledge, results in lower rather than higher P0I scores.

Use of the P0I on Specified Groups

Studies of specific groups of individuals have also indicated the P0I's usefulness as a measure of self-actualization. A study of male felons (ages 18-61) by Gary Fisher (1968) showed that the group was lower on nine of the twelve P0I scales than were normal adults and were higher on all the scales than was a psychiatric group.

Differences between hospitalized psychiatric patients and self-actualized persons, and between patients and normal persons were significant and in the expected direction in a study by Fox, Knapp, and Michael (1968).

Personalities of 30 National Defense Education Act Guidance Institute counselors were studied in depth and rated on self-actualization according to Maslow's criteria. A composite self-actualization score on the basis of evaluation by three staff members was correlated with the P0I scores. The results gave evidence that the P0I does measure self-actualization among normal adults (McClain, 1970).

CHAPTER III

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Objective and Hypotheses

The objective of the study was to investigate relationships among satisfaction with clothing and physical appearance, concern over weight, self-esteem, and participation in leisure-time activities among a sample of full-time homemakers. The null hypotheses tested were:

- H₀ 1: There will not be a relationship between satisfaction with clothing and satisfaction with physical appearance among full-time homemakers.
- H₀ 2: There will not be a relationship between satisfaction with clothing and concern over weight among full-time homemakers.
- H₀ 3: There will not be a relationship between satisfaction with clothing and self-esteem among full-time homemakers.
- H₀ 4: There will not be a relationship between satisfaction with clothing and participation in leisure-time activities among full-time homemakers.
- H₀ 5: There will not be a relationship between satisfaction with physical appearance and concern over weight among full-time homemakers.
- H₀ 6: There will not be a relationship between satisfaction with physical appearance and self-esteem among full-time homemakers.
- H₀ 7: There will not be a relationship between satisfaction with physical appearance and participation in leisure-time activities among full-time homemakers.
- H₀ 8: There will not be a relationship between concern over weight and self-esteem among full-time homemakers.
- H₀ 9: There will not be a relationship between concern over weight and participation in leisure-time activities among full-time homemakers.
- H₀ 10: There will not be a relationship between self-esteem and participation in leisure-time activities among full-time homemakers.

Definitions

1. Full-time homemaker -- a married woman living with her husband and not employed outside of the home in excess of 20 hours per week.
2. Satisfaction with clothing -- a correspondence between description of actual clothing or wardrobe and description of ideal clothing or wardrobe.
3. Satisfaction with physical appearance -- the tendency to rate physical aspects of the body toward the end of a continuum labeled "happy with, feel fortunate".
4. Concern over weight -- the tendency to rate the personal attributes of bust, waist, hips, thighs, and weight toward the end of a continuum labeled "would change if could".
5. Self-esteem -- a high evaluation of oneself consisting of:
 - A. Self-Regard -- affirmation of self because of worth or strength.
 - B. Self-Acceptance -- affirmation or acceptance of self in spite of weaknesses or deficiencies (Shostrom, 1963, p. 6).
6. Leisure-time activities -- those activities engaged in inside or outside of the home which are not central to the maintenance of home and family or to employment outside the home.

Assumptions

1. The women participating in the Pre-School Story Hour Program of the Corvallis Public Library will be willing to complete the test materials given them.
2. The women will be willing to complete a portion of the test materials at home and return it by mail.
3. The women will complete the tests in a truthful manner.
4. The majority of the women participating in the Pre-School Story Hour Program of the Corvallis Public Library will be full-time homemakers.
5. The measures used to test the null hypotheses are reliable and valid.

CHAPTER IV

PROCEDURE

Development of Measures

Satisfaction with Clothing

The satisfaction with clothing measure was developed for this study and patterned after a measure used by Deemer (1967) in her Ph.D. research at Pennsylvania State University. Deemer's test was a list of 49 words or phrases which subjects rated on a five-point scale from "seldom, is this like me" to "most of the time, this is like me". Later, the same phrases are rated on another five-point scale from "seldom, would I like this to be me" to "most of the time, I would like this to be me" to obtain a discrepancy score and thus a measure of satisfaction.

Deemer's list was modified in the present study so that 18 phrases were retained and 17 new words or phrases were added for a total of 35 items. The scale was also changed from a five-point scale to a continuum ten centimeters long. Participants placed a check anywhere on the continuum at the point which best described their clothing or wardrobe. The extremes of the scale were labeled "definitely does not describe my clothing" and "very accurate description of my clothing". To obtain a measure of satisfaction with clothing, the same phrases were later rated on a continuum from "definitely would not like it to describe my clothing" to "definitely would like it to describe my clothing".

To find the satisfaction with clothing score, two numerical scores were obtained for each word or phrase by measuring with a metric ruler the distance between the zero end of the continuum and the check mark.

Two scores were obtained because items were first rated as to actual description of clothing and later as to ideal description of clothing. The difference between the two scores resulted in a discrepancy score. The discrepancy scores were summed with direction of discrepancy being disregarded. Division of the total discrepancy score by the total number of items resulted in a mean difference score which was used as the score to measure satisfaction with clothing.

The measure was pre-tested on students enrolled in clothing selection classes at Oregon State University, Spring term, 1971. On the basis of pre-testing, one term ("healthful") was deleted because of confusion as to its meaning and relationship to clothing. No other changes were seen as necessary.

Satisfaction with Physical Appearance

A body-cathexis scale developed by Secord and Jourard (1953) consisted of body parts rated on a five-point scale ranging from "have strong feelings, wish could change" to "consider self fortunate". In the present research, 24 body parts or aspects of physical appearance were rated by placing a check on a ten centimeter continuum with the extremities labeled "would change if could" and "happy with, feel fortunate". Measurement from the zero end of the continuum to the check mark with a metric ruler gave a numerical score to each aspect. These scores were then summed to obtain a number representing total satisfaction with physical appearance.

No changes were made in the measure following pre-testing.

Concern Over Weight

Five items (bust, hips, thighs, waist, and weight) from the satisfaction with physical appearance measure were used to obtain a measure of concern over weight. Scores for the five items were added together with lower total scores indicating concern over weight.

Self-Esteem

To measure self-esteem, the Personal Orientation Inventory (Shostrom, 1963) was used. It consists of 150 two-choice comparative value and behavior judgments. Two scales, Self-Regard (consisting of 16 items) and Self-Acceptance (consisting of 26 items) were used together as a measure of self-esteem and scored by means of hand-scoring answer sheets provided by the Educational and Industrial Testing Service.

Because of copyright laws and other restrictions on the use of the measure, the entire inventory was administered although only the two above-mentioned scales were scored for the study.

Participation in Leisure-Time Activities

Participation in leisure-time activities was measured by an adaptation of C. R. Pace's "Leisure Participation and Enjoyment" (1941). Two activities ("dates" and "conventions") were deleted from the original measure. After pre-testing, "theater attendance" was better distinguished from "movies" by changing it to "theater attendance (plays, dramas, etc.)" and the item "television" was added. In the final form, 48 items were rated as to amount of participation.

In pre-testing, one-half of the sample used the scale:

- | | | |
|-----------------|---------------|-----------------|
| 1. Never | 2. Rarely | 3. Occasionally |
| 4. Fairly often | 5. Frequently | |

The other half of the sample used the scale:

- | | | |
|-----------|-----------|------------|
| 1. Never | 2. Yearly | 3. Monthly |
| 4. Weekly | 5. Daily | |

The first scale was selected for use in the study due to difficulty of subjects in classifying activities into the time periods designated by the second scale.

To obtain a score for participation, the number of activities rated as "1" were multiplied by one, the number of activities rated "2" were multiplied by two, the number of activities rated as "3" were multiplied by three, the number of activities rated "4" were multiplied by four, and the number of activities rated as "5" were multiplied by five. These five numbers were then added together for a total participation score.

Sample Description Questionnaire

To describe the sample as a whole, a short questionnaire was developed. It consisted of questions concerning employment and marital status, husband's education and occupation, number and ages of children, and respondent's education, age, and bust, waist, hip, wrist, weight, and height measurements.

Sample

Selection of Sample and Sampling Procedures

Rosencranz (1949) studied interest in clothing and found that younger women were more interested in clothing than were older women. Other variables positively related to clothing interest were educational level, income level, membership in organizations, and urban background.

The present study utilized a sample of younger women who also would be likely to possess several of the other characteristics listed by Rosencranz. Young homemakers comprising the sample were those whose children participated in the Pre-School Story Hour Program of the Corvallis

Public Library. The week preceding testing (May 13 and 14, 1971) women bringing their children to the story hour were handed a sheet explaining that the following week they would be asked to participate in research on clothing. The handout was also mailed to 40 women who had brought their children to 50 percent or more of the previous sessions but who were not in attendance on those two days.

The following week, the tests were administered. Story hours were held at 9:30, 10:00, and 10:30 a.m. on Thursday, May 20, 1971 and at 10:30 and 11:00 a.m. on Friday, May 21, 1971. At all five sessions as the women entered the library, they were asked if they would participate and were given a packet of test materials.

Directions attached to the test schedules indicated that participants were to complete a portion of the tests at that time and complete the rest at home. The Personal Orientation Inventory, the first half of the clothing satisfaction measure (description of clothing), and the satisfaction with physical appearance measure were to be completed at the library while the children were attending the story period. In a self-addressed, stamped envelope were the measures for participation in leisure-time activities, the second half of the clothing satisfaction measure (ideal description of clothing), and the questionnaire used to describe the sample. To the envelope was attached a reiteration of instructions requesting completion and mailing of the tests in the envelope as soon as possible. All tests were numbered in order to collate them as they were returned.

Sample Size

All of the women bringing children to the five story hour sessions on the days of testing agreed to participate for a total of 98 subjects.

Twelve test schedules were eliminated from the sample because the material in the mailing envelope was not returned. Thirteen schedules were invalid because of one incomplete test -- the second half of the clothing measure was not completed by five; three did complete the P01; satisfaction with physical appearance was not completed by two; the first half of the clothing satisfaction measure and the leisure-time activities measure were left incomplete by one participant each; and the questionnaire for sample description was left blank by one respondent. In addition, one respondent completed and turned in the first portion of the schedule on the day of testing but was unwilling to complete the remainder of the material at home as requested.

If more than 15 P01 items are left blank, the test is considered invalid; two were eliminated from the sample for this reason. Three respondents had to be eliminated because they worked more than 20 hours per week and thus did not meet the criteria for being full-time homemakers. Finally, one respondent was not included in the study because she was a 14 year old girl.

The total number of deletions equalled 32 making a final sample size of 66.

Limitations

The study was limited to full-time homemakers whose children participated in the Pre-School Story Hour Program of the Corvallis Public Library. Generalizations from the study are limited to other

full-time homemakers of similar age range and educational level, who are married to men of similar educational and occupational levels, and who are residents of a community similar to Corvallis.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Description of Participants

Participants in the study completed a questionnaire concerning personal background information. The findings from this questionnaire were used to describe the sample and are discussed below.

Employment Status

Sixty of the sixty-six participants in the study were not employed outside the home, while six worked less than twenty hours per week. Of those who were employed, two responded that they worked part-time when needed; two worked twelve hours per week; one worked sixteen hours per week; and one substitute taught approximately two days per month.

Marital Status

To be considered a full-time homemaker for inclusion in the study, a woman had to be married and living with her husband. Thus, all sixty-six participants met these criteria and were, at the time of testing, married women residing with their husbands.

Education

The educational level of the sample ranged from completion of high school to post-graduate work (Table 1).

The majority of the respondents (59.1%) had at least a college diploma. The high educational level of the sample is a factor which must be considered in discussing the findings of the study and in generalizing from the results.

TABLE 1. Educational Level of Participants

Educational Level	Number	Percent
Less than high school diploma	0	0.0
High school diploma	8	12.1
Post-high school business or technical training	4	6.1
One year of college	9	13.6
Two years of college	6	9.1
Three years of college	0	0.0
College diploma	23	34.9
Post-graduate work	16	24.2
Total	66	100.0

Husband's Education

A very high educational level was also attained by the husbands of the participants. A large majority (68.2%) had completed work beyond the Bachelor's degree and more than four-fifths had at least a college diploma (Table 2).

TABLE 2. Educational Level of Husbands of Participants

Educational Level of Husband	Number	Percent
Less than high school diploma	0	0.0
High school diploma	2	3.0
Post-high school business or technical training	1	1.5
One year of college	1	1.5
Two years of college	3	4.5
Three years of college	4	6.1
College diploma	10	15.2
Post-graduate work	45	68.2
Total	66	100.0

Husband's Occupation

The majority of the husbands of the participants were engaged in professional occupations. This would be expected because of their high educational level.

Of those who had completed post-graduate work, the largest number were presently students (16 out of 45). Ten husbands were professors and six were in the field of education in occupations other than college teaching. One each was employed in the following fields: medicine, dentistry, chemistry, chemical engineering, metallurgical engineering, biology, meteorology, range management, forestry, and architecture. No answer was given as to occupations of three husbands who had completed post-graduate work.

Ten of the husbands had completed college but were without post-graduate work. They were employed as a business manager, sales manager, office manager, pharmacist, systems analyst, real estate broker, field representative, and television technician. One was self-employed and no answer was given for one.

Some college work but less than completion of the Bachelor's degree was the educational level attained by husbands of eight participants. Those who had completed three years of college were employed as a cardiographic draftsman, transmissionman, and student, with no answer being given for one. Grocer, student, and water treatment were the occupations of those who had completed two years of college. One participant's husband was a student and had completed one year of college.

One husband had training beyond high school in a technical school and was employed as a brickmason. Husbands of two participants had a

high school education and were employed as a carpenter and a log truck driver.

Age

The homemakers in the study were between the ages of 23 and 42 with a mean age of 29.9 years of age (Table 3).

TABLE 3. Age of Participants

Age	Number	Percent
20-24	6	9.1
25-29	26	39.4
30-34	25	37.9
35-39	6	9.1
40-44	3	4.5
Total	66	100.0

Number and Ages of Children

All the women in the sample had at least one child (Table 4). The children ranged in age from newborn to 19 years. All the women had at least one child of pre-school age because of participation in the library program for pre-schoolers.

TABLE 4. Number of Children of Participants

Number of Children	Number of Participants	Percent
1	7	10.6
2	38	57.6
3	11	16.7
4	9	13.6
5	1	1.5
Total	66	100.0

Personal Measurements

The respondents were requested to give their height, weight, and figure measurements so that it could be observed whether actual weight was related to concern over weight. A number of participants omitted one or more of the measurements; therefore, the results were not used in any statistical comparisons with the hypotheses. However, several interesting observations were made concerning measurements. A combination of the mean scores for the measurements described the composite woman as 5' 5" tall, weighing 126 pounds, with measurements of 35" - 27" - 37".

It was also observed that a weight considered outside the normal range did not necessarily mean that there was a concern over weight. Similarly, it was observed that many women who could be considered within the normal weight range for their height and body frame expressed a concern about their weight. This finding is perhaps indicative of the cultural emphasis placed on an ideal body causing many to have a desire for weight change in spite of normal weight.

General Description of Sample

The sample used in this study included 66 full-time homemakers who resided in Corvallis, Oregon. The majority of the women were between 25 and 35 years of age and had a college education. They were married to men of a high educational and occupational levels and had families ranging in size from one to five children with at least one child of pre-school age.

Discussion of Findings

The study will be discussed first by referring to findings pertinent to each of the measures used. Relationships among the five variables under investigation will then be examined.

Satisfaction with Clothing

The data relative to the satisfaction with clothing measure showed that the respondents as a whole were quite satisfied with their clothing or wardrobe (Table 5). A mean discrepancy score of 1.9 was found (a discrepancy score of 10.0 was possible). Range for discrepancy scores was from 0.3 to 6.0. High satisfaction with clothing can be explained by reference to the type of participants sampled. The majority were married to men of high educational and occupational levels and were thus likely to have been able to afford an adequate and desirable wardrobe.

TABLE 5. Distribution of Discrepancy Scores on Measure of Satisfaction with Clothing

Discrepancy Scores	Number	Percent
.0 - 0.9	15	22.7
1.0 - 1.9	22	33.4
2.0 - 2.9	20	30.3
3.0 - 3.9	7	10.6
4.0 - 4.9	1	1.5
5.0 - 5.9	0	0.0
6.0 - 6.9	1	1.5
Total	66	100.0

Analysis of individual factors of the clothing satisfaction measure showed a difference in mean discrepancy scores among the items (Table 6).

"Clean", "comfortable", and "easy to care for" were the items which showed the highest satisfaction. The two items which showed most dissatisfaction by participants were "large quantity" and "well-planned". Most items were rated lower on actual description than on ideal description. "Conformity", however, was generally rated lower on the ideal description than it was on the actual description. The age and educational level of the participants were variables which were likely to have an effect on this finding.

TABLE 6. Mean Discrepancy Scores for Attributes of Clothing or Wardrobe

Attributes of Clothing	Mean Discrepancy Score
Clean	0.1
Comfortable	1.0
Easy to care for	1.1
Serviceable	1.2
Color coordinated	1.3
Acceptable	1.3
Practical	1.3
Free for movement	1.4
Neat	1.4
Adequate and appropriate for my activities	1.5
Durable	1.5
Expresses my personality	1.5
In good repair	1.5
Suitable for me	1.6
Well-fitted	1.8
Fashionable	2.0
Versatile	2.1
Aesthetically pleasing to me	2.2
Variety of colors	2.2
Minimizes my physical imperfections	2.2
Becoming	2.3
Attractive	2.3
Enhances my physical attributes	2.3
Stylish	2.3
Variety of fabrics	2.3
Admired by others	2.3
Immaculate	2.3
Impressive	2.5
Variety of styles	2.6
Morale booster	2.7
Individualistic	2.8
Conforming	2.8
Well-planned	2.9
Large quantity	3.3

Satisfaction with Physical Appearance

Respondents as a whole indicated quite a high level of satisfaction with physical appearance (Table 7). Out of a possible score of 240.0 (high satisfaction), the mean satisfaction score was 159.9 with a range from 83.9 to 229.9.

TABLE 7. Distribution of Scores on Measure of Satisfaction with Physical Appearance

Score	Number	Percent
220-239	3	4.5
200-219	4	6.1
180-199	11	16.6
160-179	21	31.9
140-159	7	10.6
120-139	9	13.6
100-119	5	7.6
80- 99	6	9.1
Total	66	100.0

Analysis of the 24 individual components of the satisfaction with physical appearance measure showed that participants were generally more satisfied with some aspects of their physical appearance than with others (Table 8). Ears, neck, and ankles were the aspects which showed most satisfaction while most dissatisfaction was shown with thighs, waist, hips, weight, and bust.

Concern Over Weight

By summing the five aspects used to obtain a measure of concern over weight (bust, hips, thighs, waist, and weight), a possible range of 0.0 (high concern) to 50.0 (low concern) could be found on this measure. The sample of full-time homemakers demonstrated a range of scores from 2.2 to 47.8 with a mean score of 22.6 (Table 9).

TABLE 8. Mean Satisfaction Scores for Aspects of Physical Appearance

Aspect of Appearance	Mean Satisfaction Score
Ears	8.4
Neck	8.1
Ankles	8.1
Height	8.0
Mouth	8.0
Eyes	7.8
Arms	7.8
Feet	7.5
Facial shape	7.4
Shoulder width	6.9
Calves	6.8
Nose	6.8
Fingers	6.8
Hair	6.7
Complexion	6.7
Body frame	6.5
Knees	6.3
Teeth	6.2
Posture	6.1
Bust	5.3
Weight	4.7
Hips	4.5
Waist	4.4
Thighs	3.8

TABLE 9. Distribution of Scores on Measure of Concern over Weight

Score	Number	Percent
0.0- 9.9	13	19.7
10.0-19.9	19	28.8
20.0-29.9	13	19.7
30.0-39.9	13	19.7
40.0-49.9	8	12.1
Total	66	100.0

Scores on this measure were quite low, indicating a general concern over weight among the sample. In contrast to this, the personal measurements of the respondents indicated that only seven could be considered more than ten pounds overweight. This finding may be a reflection of the cultural emphasis on an ideal body resulting in a dissatisfaction with one's own physical attributes.

The five physical aspects used on this measure had mean scores ranging from 3.8 to 5.3 with a possible range from 0.0 to 10.0 (Table 10). These aspects had the lowest mean scores of the 24 aspects listed on the satisfaction with physical appearance measure. This finding can be partially explained by the fact that they are the aspects which are most obvious in terms of physical appearance and are most emphasized in discussing figure problems or weight control. In addition, they are the aspects which could be most readily changed. Other aspects, such as height, feet, or facial shape, may be less than ideal but show greater satisfaction, perhaps because people have learned to accept them because it is not realistic to plan major changes for them.

TABLE 10. Mean Scores for Aspects of Appearance Indicating Concern over Weight

Aspect of Appearance	Mean Score
Thighs	3.8
Waist	4.4
Hips	4.5
Weight	4.7
Bust	5.3

Self-Esteem

The Self-Regard and Self-Acceptance scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory were used together as a measure of self-esteem. The range of possible scores was 0-42 with 42 representing high self-esteem. The mean score for this sample was 27.5 with a range from 12-37 (Table 11).

TABLE 11. Distribution of Scores on Measure of Self-Esteem

Score	Number	Percent
35-39	6	9.1
30-34	19	28.8
25-29	23	34.8
20-24	13	19.7
15-19	4	6.1
10-14	1	1.5
Total	66	100.0

Participation in Leisure-Time Activities

Forty-eight items were rated on a scale from one to five for a measure of participation in leisure-time activities. A range of scores from 48 (low participation) to 240 (high participation) was possible; the sample showed a range from 100 to 198 with a mean participation score of 144.5 (Table 12).

TABLE 12. Distribution of Scores on Measure of Participation in Leisure-Time Activities

Score	Number	Percent
175-199	4	6.1
160-174	12	18.2
145-159	14	21.2
130-144	23	34.8
115-129	10	15.2
100-114	3	4.5
Total	66	100.0

Relationships Among Variables

The ten null hypotheses were tested by computing correlation coefficients for each relationship. To be significant at the .05 level of confidence, the absolute value of the correlation coefficient had to be a value greater than .247. For the relationship to be significant at the .01 level, the absolute value of the correlation coefficient had to be greater than .316. Significant relationships were found in testing four hypotheses; six hypotheses failed to reach the necessary level of significance (Table 13).

In the following section, relationships between paired variables are discussed in light of the null hypotheses posed.

Satisfaction with Clothing and Satisfaction with Physical Appearance

H₀ 1: There will not be a relationship between satisfaction with clothing and satisfaction with physical appearance among full-time homemakers.

Satisfaction with clothing (demonstrated by a low discrepancy score on the actual-ideal clothing description measure) and satisfaction with physical appearance (indicated by a high score on the satisfaction with physical appearance measure) had a correlation coefficient of $-.436$ which was significant at the .01 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

A relationship between bodily and clothing satisfactions was expected because of the intimate connection between the two variables. Clothing covers but does not entirely hide the body. The physical appearance determines what size, style, and colors of clothing can

TABLE 13. Correlation Coefficients Among Variables

Satisfaction with Clothing	Satisfaction with Clothing 1.000	Satisfaction with Phys. App. -.436**	Concern over Wt. -.302*	Self- Esteem -.014	Participation -.158
Satisfaction with Physical Appearance		1.000	+.751**	+.032	+.094
Concern Over Weight			1.000	-.063	-.085
Self-Esteem				1.000	+.247*
Participation in Leisure-Time Activities					1.000

* Significant at the .05 level ($|r| > .247$)

** Significant at the .01 level ($|r| > .316$)

best be worn. Clothing can enhance or detract from the appearance of the body; the body affects how clothing will look as it is worn.

In discussing this relationship, it can be noticed that a number of phrases included on the clothing satisfaction measure were closely related to the body; for example, "enhances my physical attributes" or "well-fitted". Therefore, one who is dissatisfied with the body may also show a dissatisfaction with clothing because the clothing fails to significantly improve or enhance bodily features.

Satisfaction with Clothing Related to Concern Over Weight

H₀ 2: There will not be a relationship between satisfaction with clothing and concern over weight among full-time homemakers.

Satisfaction with clothing and concern over weight had a correlation coefficient of $-.302$ which was significant at the $.05$ level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

The five aspects of physical appearance used to measure concern over weight (bust, hips, thighs, waist, and weight) are those aspects of the body perhaps most closely related to the wearing of clothing. If there is dissatisfaction with the basic size and shape of the body, it can be expected that there will also be a dissatisfaction with the clothing that has to conform to that size and shape. It is interesting to note that this relationship was significant at the $.05$ level, whereas satisfaction with physical appearance was related to clothing satisfaction at the $.01$ level. This could mean that the more specifically and completely satisfaction with the body is measured, the stronger will be the relationship with clothing satisfaction.

Satisfaction with Clothing and Self-Esteem

H₀ 3: There will not be a relationship between satisfaction with clothing and self-esteem among full-time homemakers.

No relationship was found between satisfaction with clothing and self-esteem ($r = -.014$). The null hypothesis was not rejected.

A partial explanation of this result can perhaps be found in the fact that several of the items used to measure self-esteem were concerned with acceptance of oneself in spite of faults or inadequacies. A woman who accepts her own weakness could realize that her clothing is not as she would like it to be, without having this dissatisfaction affect her overall feelings of self-worth. This explanation does not imply that a person with high self-esteem would necessarily be expected to express dissatisfaction with clothing. It does, however, indicate that it is feasible for a person of high self-esteem to be either satisfied or dissatisfied with clothing and that dissatisfaction is not incongruent with high self-esteem.

Similarly, it would be possible for a person of low self-esteem to be either satisfied or dissatisfied with clothing. Low feelings regarding the self could be projected to low feelings concerning outward appearance. On the other hand, clothing could be used as a compensation for feelings of personal inadequacy. For example, a woman who believed she was less capable than others might use her extensive wardrobe as a means of feeling equal to or better than those around her.

Another factor affecting this result could be the type of items found on the clothing satisfaction measure. Many relate only to

clothing per se; such as "durable" or "easy to care for". Other items attach to the concept of clothing either social meaning or a relationship to the self (for example, "admired by others" or "morale booster"). If only the latter items were used to measure clothing satisfaction, a stronger relationship might be found with self-esteem.

Satisfaction with Clothing and Participation in Activities

H₀ 4: There will not be a relationship between satisfaction with clothing and participation in leisure-time activities among full-time homemakers.

No relationship was found between satisfaction with clothing and participation in leisure-time activities ($r = -.158$). The null hypothesis was not rejected.

This finding could be explained by the fact that a number of the activities listed were those which could be participated in within the home or which, although social in nature, did not require an extensive wardrobe (for example, "hunting and fishing"). Even if a woman were dissatisfied with her clothing and did not want to participate in social activities, the types of activities included in the measure could obscure that fact. It would be worthwhile to investigate the relationship between satisfaction with clothing and participation in those social activities in which appearance is an important factor.

The failure to find a relationship between these two variables correlated with the research by Rose (1959) cited earlier. He found that the self-concept was the critical factor in explaining social participation rather than factors more external to the self.

Satisfaction with Appearance and Concern Over Weight

H₀ 5: There will not be a relationship between satisfaction with physical appearance and concern over weight among full-time homemakers.

Satisfaction with physical appearance and low concern over weight had a correlation coefficient of .751 which was significant at the .01 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Although the correlation was very high, failure to find a perfect correlation between concern over weight and satisfaction with physical appearance could be explained by the fact that each bodily part or aspect is cathected to a different degree. Thus, a woman could be very satisfied with those five aspects used in measuring concern over weight but be very dissatisfied with several of the other factors on the physical appearance measure. This explanation is in agreement with research by Jourard and Remy (1957) and Kurtz (1969) who found that women have a highly differentiated body concept.

Satisfaction with Physical Appearance and Self-Esteem

H₀ 6: There will not be a relationship between satisfaction with physical appearance and self-esteem among full-time homemakers.

No relationship was found between satisfaction with physical appearance and self-esteem ($r=.032$). The null hypothesis was not rejected.

Much of the above discussion concerning satisfaction with clothing in relation to self-esteem is applicable here. There appears to be no simple relationship between appearance satisfaction and self-esteem. A person of high self-esteem could be either satisfied or

dissatisfied with physical appearance, as could a person with feelings of low self-worth. For example, a woman could express a desire to change her physical appearance but still have overall feelings of high self-esteem. In the same manner, a woman could express satisfaction with a beautiful physical exterior and yet have feelings of personal inadequacy in other areas.

Satisfaction with Appearance and Participation in Activities

H₀ 7: There will not be a relationship between satisfaction with physical appearance and participation in leisure-time activities among full-time homemakers.

No relationship was found between satisfaction with physical appearance and participation in leisure-time activities ($r = .094$). The null hypothesis was not rejected.

As mentioned in the discussion concerning clothing satisfaction and participation, the failure to find a relationship between participation and satisfaction with physical appearance could be due to the non-social nature of many of the listed activities. Also, a number of activities, although outside social activities, would most likely involve family or close friends (such as "camping" or "informal contacts with friends"). These activities, because of the other participants, could afford the woman who was dissatisfied with her appearance situations in which she would be accepted for herself without primary emphasis on her appearance. If all the activities listed had been those involving the variable of social approval, dissatisfaction with appearance might be more closely related to participation.

Concern Over Weight and Self-Esteem

H₀ 8: There will not be a relationship between concern over weight and self-esteem among full-time homemakers.

No relationship was found between concern over weight and self-esteem ($r = -.063$). The null hypothesis was not rejected.

As with satisfaction with clothing and satisfaction with physical appearance, there is no simple relationship between concern over weight and self-esteem. A realization of one's inadequacy concerning weight and appearance could be congruent with high self-esteem. On the other hand, dissatisfaction with weight might be an outward reflection of low feelings concerning the self.

Because of the cultural emphasis on weight control, there may be an expressed concern over weight whether or not there is adequate reason for the concern. As indicated by the fact that a large number of normal-weight women in the sample indicated a concern over weight, it is likely that the concern is more superficial than it is a crucial factor in the self-concept. Therefore, expressed concern over weight would not necessarily be important enough to the individual to have an effect on self-esteem.

Concern Over Weight and Participation in Activities

H₀ 9: There will not be a relationship between concern over weight and participation in leisure-time activities among full-time homemakers.

No relationship was found between concern over weight and participation in leisure-time activities ($r = -.085$). The null hypothesis was not rejected.

The discussions concerning participation in relation to clothing and appearance satisfaction are relevant here. Also, if concern over weight is more a reflection of a cultural ideal than a deep personal concern, as discussed above, the concern would not have enough significance to affect behavior in other areas.

It would be interesting to distinguish between those whose concern over weight is more closely connected to their view of themselves and those whose concern may be more expressed than actually believed. These two groups could then be compared as to desire for participation in activities in which social approval is a salient factor.

Self-Esteem and Participation in Activities

H₀ 10: There will not be a relationship between self-esteem and participation in leisure-time activities among full-time homemakers.

Self-esteem and participation in leisure-time activities had a correlation coefficient of .247 which was significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

This finding is in support of Maslow's theories of self-actualization (1954, 1968). He stated that a person who has satisfied the esteem need is able to concentrate on the need for self-actualization which includes developing one's abilities, talents, and full potential. Those who have not satisfied their esteem needs will not have the desire to seek self-actualization and thus, will not be as frequent participators in activities which reflect the characteristics of self-actualization.

The relationship between self-esteem and participation might have been more pronounced if the activities included for testing were only

those which had demonstrated a strong relationship with self-actualization. The measure used in the study included activities such as "odd jobs at home" and "television" which do not necessarily demonstrate the activities a self-actualizing person would concentrate on.

To further explain the relationship between self-esteem and participation in activities, it is noted that characteristics of a person high in self-esteem include security in relationships with others and confidence in one's ability to deal with social situations. A person demonstrating these characteristics would be likely to feel free to participate in activities without fear of failure or threats from others.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to discover if relationships existed among the variables of satisfaction with clothing, satisfaction with physical appearance, concern over weight, self-esteem, and participation in leisure-time activities among a sample of full-time homemakers.

The measures for satisfaction with clothing, satisfaction with physical appearance, and concern over weight were developed for the study. The Self-Regard and Self-Acceptance scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory were used together as a measure of self-esteem, and an adaptation of a leisure participation and enjoyment scale was used to measure participation in activities. A short questionnaire was also developed for purposes of sample description.

Participants in the study were mothers of children enrolled in the Pre-School Story Hour Program sponsored by the Corvallis Public Library. Part of the test schedule was completed at the library; the remainder was completed at home and returned by mail. Sixty-six women completed all tests and met the established criteria for inclusion in the study.

The majority of the women were between the ages of 25 and 35, had a college education, and were married to men of high educational and occupational attainments. These factors must be recognized when generalizing from the results.

Four of the hypotheses tested achieved statistical significance. Clothing satisfaction was positively related to satisfaction with physical appearance (significant at the .01 level) and to low concern over weight (significant at the .05 level). The intimate connection between the body and the materials that cover it explains this finding.

Satisfaction with physical appearance was very highly correlated to low concern over weight (significant at the .01 level). This finding was expected because the aspects used to measure concern over weight are among the most crucial for appearance satisfaction.

Self-esteem was significantly related to participation in leisure-time activities (at the .05 level). Self-actualization theory, emphasizing the necessity of meeting esteem needs before fuller development of the self can occur, was supported by this finding.

Six hypotheses failed to achieve statistical significance. Satisfaction with clothing, satisfaction with physical appearance, and concern over weight were not found to be related to self-esteem or to participation in leisure-time activities. In discussing the failure to find relationships between the appearance variables and self-esteem, it was suggested that a simple relationship does not exist between aspects of appearance and self-esteem. It is possible for self-esteem to be related either to high or low appearance satisfaction. Concerning participation, it was suggested that the non-social aspect of many activities on the measure may have affected the failure to find a significant relationship.

It can be concluded that appearance and clothing satisfactions are closely linked and that satisfaction with the self is related

to amount of participation in leisure-time activities. It can also be concluded that the relationships among the variables of appearance, self-esteem, and participation are not yet clearly understood and require further investigation.

CHAPTER VII

RECOMMENDATIONS

A better understanding of human behavior can be found by relating the study of clothing and textiles to the social sciences. This study was an attempt to relate socio-psychological theories to the study of clothing with the goal of helping people better understand themselves and others.

From the results of the study, certain suggestions can be made. First, the close relationship between clothing and appearance satisfactions should not be overlooked. The study and teaching of clothing principles must take into consideration the total appearance of the individual. Improvements in clothing can raise satisfaction with appearance, as can improvements in physical appearance affect feelings regarding clothing.

The significant relationship between self-esteem and participation in activities suggests that self-esteem does affect behavior. The study of clothing and appearance as an expression of human behavior must take into account social and psychological factors, despite the fact that the relationship is not yet completely understood.

The results of the investigation should make this study a useful starting point and an impetus to other researchers. The research undertaken has suggested numerous possibilities for further investigation.

The same measures used in this research could be used to study other groups of homemakers -- those of a different age range or educational level, for example. The tests could also be done on

homemakers who work full-time to compare them with the full-time homemakers in this sample. Further comparisons could be made with college women and single working women.

The personal measurements given by the participants indicated that a relationship did not exist between actual weight and concern over weight. It was suggested that concern over weight may be more expressed than real. Further research could be done to understand the causes of concern over weight and develop a measure to distinguish real from superficial concern.

The failure to find a significant relationship between the appearance variables and self-esteem indicates a need for a better understanding of self-esteem. Continued cooperation with the social sciences is important in this regard to be aware of new findings which might be applicable to the study of clothing. In light of the present study, self-esteem might be better understood in relation to clothing by relating it only to those aspects of clothing which imply social meaning or are closely related to the concept of the self.

By differentiating among types of leisure-time activities, relationships with the appearance variables could be studied. Satisfaction with clothing, satisfaction with physical appearance and concern over weight could be studied in relation to individual activities, activities participated in with close relatives or friends, and activities involving social contact with those less intimately known in which clothing is an important factor. These different types of activities could also be studied in relation to self-esteem.

There needs to be continued interest and study in relating clothing and textiles to the field of social science. Human behavior will only be understood through research in all disciplines with the goal of improving the lives of people by a clearer understanding of their behavior.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

HANDOUT REQUESTING PARTICIPATION IN STUDY

Clothing & You!



??? CAN YOU HELP ???

WHAT: Research on Clothing

WHO: Janet Olstrom, Graduate Student
Dept. of Clothing, Textiles,
and Related Arts
Oregon State University

WHERE: Corvallis Public Library

WHEN: Next Week! May 20th, 21st
During Children's Story Hour

!!! T H A N K S !!!

APPENDIX B

TEST SCHEDULE INSTRUCTIONS

- A. Attached to tests completed at library
- B. Attached to tests completed at home

TEST SCHEDULE INSTRUCTIONS

- A. Please complete the following tests as accurately as you can and place them in the boxes provided as you leave.

Complete the material in the mailing envelope after you return home and mail it to me as promptly as you can.

Thank you so much for your help and cooperation!

- B. Complete this material at home and mail it to me. Because much effort and expense has been put into this study, I will appreciate your cooperation in returning the mailing envelope. Thank you very much!

APPENDIX C

SATISFACTION WITH CLOTHING MEASURE

- A. Real Description of Clothing
- B. Ideal Description of Clothing

PART A. For each of the following words or phrases, place a check on the scale at the point which best indicates a description of your clothing or wardrobe.

	Definitely does not describe my clothing	Very accurate description of my clothing
Acceptable to others	_____	
Adequate and appropriate for my activities	_____	
Admired by others	_____	
Aesthetically pleasing to me	_____	
Attractive	_____	
Becoming	_____	
Clean	_____	
Color coordinated	_____	
Comfortable	_____	
Conforming	_____	
Durable	_____	
Easy to care for	_____	
Enhances my physical attributes	_____	
Expresses my personality	_____	
Fashionable	_____	

	Definitely does not describe my clothing	Very accurate description of my clothing
Free for movement	_____	_____
Immaculate	_____	_____
Impressive	_____	_____
Individualistic	_____	_____
In good repair	_____	_____
Large quantity	_____	_____
Minimizes my physical imperfections	_____	_____
Morale booster	_____	_____
Neat	_____	_____
Practical	_____	_____
Serviceable	_____	_____
Stylish	_____	_____
Suitable for me	_____	_____
Variety of colors	_____	_____
Variety of fabrics	_____	_____
Variety of styles	_____	_____

Definitely does
not describe my
clothing

Very accurate
description of
my clothing

Versatile

| _____ |

Well-fitted

| _____ |

Well-planned

| _____ |

PART B. Place a check at the point on the scale which best indicates how much you would like the following words or phrases to describe your clothing or wardrobe.

	Definitely <u>would not</u> like it to describe my clothing	Definitely <u>would</u> like it to describe my clothing
Acceptable to others	_____	_____
Adequate and appropriate for my activities	_____	_____
Admired by others	_____	_____
Aesthetically pleasing to me	_____	_____
Attractive	_____	_____
Becoming	_____	_____
Clean	_____	_____
Color coordinated	_____	_____
Comfortable	_____	_____
Conforming	_____	_____
Durable	_____	_____
Easy to care for	_____	_____
Enhances my physical attributes	_____	_____
Expresses my physical attributes	_____	_____
Fashionable	_____	_____
Free for movement	_____	_____
Immaculate	_____	_____

	Definitely <u>would not</u> like it to describe my clothing	Definitely <u>would</u> like it to describe my clothing
Impressive	_____	_____
Individualistic	_____	_____
In good repair	_____	_____
Large quantity	_____	_____
Minimizes my physical imperfections	_____	_____
Morale booster	_____	_____
Neat	_____	_____
Practical	_____	_____
Serviceable	_____	_____
Stylish	_____	_____
Suitable for me	_____	_____
Variety of colors	_____	_____
Variety of fabrics	_____	_____
Variety of styles	_____	_____
Versatile	_____	_____
Well-fitted	_____	_____
Well-planned	_____	_____

APPENDIX D

SATISFACTION WITH PHYSICAL APPEARANCE MEASURE

Place a check at the point on the scale which best indicates your feeling about each of the following aspects of your physical appearance.

	Would change if could	Happy with, feel fortunate
Ankles	_____	_____
Arms	_____	_____
Body frame	_____	_____
Bust	_____	_____
Calves	_____	_____
Complexion	_____	_____
Ears	_____	_____
Eyes	_____	_____
Facial shape	_____	_____
Feet	_____	_____
Fingers	_____	_____
Hair	_____	_____

	Would change if could	Happy with, feel fortunate
Height	_____	
Hips	_____	
Knees	_____	
Mouth	_____	
Neck	_____	
Nose	_____	
Posture	_____	
Shoulder width	_____	
Teeth	_____	
Thighs	_____	
Waist	_____	
Weight	_____	

APPENDIX E

SELF-ESTEEM MEASURE

ITEMS SCORED FROM THE PERSONAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY

Self-Regard

P01 Item
Number

- 7 1. a) I am afraid to be myself.
 b) I am not afraid to be myself.
- 16 2. a) I sometimes feel embarrassed by compliments.
 b) I am not embarrassed by compliments.
- 31 3. a) It is possible to live life in terms of what I want to do.
 b) It is not possible to live life in terms of what I want to do.
- 32 4. a) I can cope with the ups and downs of life.
 b) I cannot cope with the ups and downs of life.
- 38 5. a) I live in terms of my wants, likes, dislikes and values.
 b) I do not live in terms of my wants, likes, dislikes and values.
- 39 6. a) I trust my ability to size up a situation.
 b) I do not trust my ability to size up a situation.
- 40 7. a) I believe I have an innate capacity to cope with life.
 b) I do not believe I have an innate capacity to cope with life.
- 48 8. a) I often feel it necessary to defend my past actions.
 b) I do not feel it necessary to defend my past actions.
- 60 9. a) It is important that others accept my point of view.
 b) It is not necessary for others to accept my point of view.
- 68 10. a) I feel free to be myself and bear the consequences.
 b) I do not feel free to be myself and bear the consequences.
- 78 11. a) Self-interest is natural.
 b) Self-interest is unnatural.
- 118 12. a) I am assertive and affirming.
 b) I am not assertive and affirming.
- 121 13. a) It is a good idea to think about your greatest potential.
 b) A person who thinks about his greatest potential gets conceited.
- 128 14. a) I am self-sufficient.
 b) I am not self-sufficient.

P01 Item
Number

- 132 15. a) I feel certain and secure in my relationships with others.
b) I feel uncertain and insecure in my relationships with others.
- 149 16. a) I can feel comfortable with less than a perfect performance.
b) I feel uncomfortable with anything less than a perfect performance.

Self-Acceptance

P01 Item
Number

- 3 1. a) I feel I must always tell the truth.
b) I do not always tell the truth.
- 5 2. a) I feel that I must strive for perfection in everything that I undertake.
b) I do not feel that I must strive for perfection in everything that I undertake.
- 12 3. a) I feel guilty when I am selfish.
b) I don't feel guilty when I am selfish.
- 14 4. a) For me, anything is possible if I believe in myself.
b) I have a lot of natural limitations even though I believe in myself.
- 22 5. a) I accept my weaknesses.
b) I don't accept my weaknesses.
- 24 6. a) Sometimes I am cross when I am not feeling well.
b) I am hardly ever cross.
- 26 7. a) I am afraid of making mistakes.
b) I am not afraid of making mistakes.
- 28 8. a) My feelings of self-worth depend on how much I accomplish.
b) My feelings of self-worth do not depend on how much I accomplish.
- 29 9. a) I fear failure.
b) I don't fear failure.

P01 Item
Number

- 37 10. a) I find that I have rejected many of the moral values I was taught.
b) I have not rejected any of the moral values I was taught.
- 41 11. a) I must justify my actions in the pursuit of my own interests.
b) I need not justify my actions in the pursuit of my own interests.
- 42 12. a) I am bothered by fears of being inadequate.
b) I am not bothered by fears of being inadequate.
- 48 13. a) I often feel it necessary to defend my past actions.
b) I do not feel it necessary to defend my past actions.
- 50 14. a) Criticism threatens my self-esteem.
b) Criticism does not threaten my self-esteem.
- 63 15. a) I welcome criticism as an opportunity for growth.
b) I do not welcome criticism as an opportunity for growth.
- 65 16. a) I hardly ever gossip.
b) I gossip a little at times.
- 66 17. a) I feel free to reveal my weaknesses among friends.
b) I do not feel free to reveal my weaknesses among friends.
- 70 18. a) I hesitate to show my weaknesses among strangers.
b) I do not hesitate to show my weaknesses among strangers.
- 71 19. a) I will continue to grow only by setting my sights on a high-level, socially approved goal.
b) I will continue to grow best by being myself.
- 72 20. a) I accept inconsistencies within myself.
b) I cannot accept inconsistencies within myself.
- 77 21. a) I try to be sincere but sometimes fail.
b) I try to be sincere and I am sincere.
- 87 22. a) People should always repent their wrong-doings.
b) People need not always repent their wrong-doings.
- 107 23. a) When I really love myself, everybody will love me.
b) When I really love myself, there will still be those who won't love me.

P01 Item
Number

- 128 24. a) I am self-sufficient.
 b) I am not self-sufficient.
- 134 25. a) I can accept my mistakes.
 b) I cannot accept my mistakes.
- 150 26. a) I can overcome any obstacles as long as I believe
 in myself.
 b) I cannot overcome every obstacle even if I believe
 in myself.

APPENDIX F

PARTICIPATION IN LEISURE-TIME ACTIVITIES

Indicate your participation in the listed leisure-time activities by circling a number from 1 to 5 according to the following scale:

1. Never
2. Rarely
3. Occasionally
4. Fairly often
5. Frequently

If the activities are seasonal (for example, picnics), indicate how often you participate while it is in season.

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1. Amateur dramatics |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 2. Amusement parks and halls |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 3. Art work (individual) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 4. Attending large social functions (balls, benefit bridge, etc.) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 5. Attending small social functions (dinner parties, etc.) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6. Book reading for pleasure |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 7. Camping |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 8. Card playing |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9. Church and related activities |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 10. Classes (college, for credit) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 11. Classes (evening, adult education) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 12. Collections (stamps, coins, etc.) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 13. Conversation with family |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 14. Dancing |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 15. Entertaining at home |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 16. Fairs and exhibitions |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 17. Gardening, flower arranging, etc. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 18. Hunting and fishing |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 19. Indoor individual recreation or sports (bowling, gym, etc.) |

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 20. Indoor team recreation or sports (basketball, volleyball, etc.) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 21. Informal contacts and discussions with friends |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 22. Knitting, sewing, crocheting, etc. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 23. Lectures (not class) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 24. Literary writing (poetry, essays, stories, etc.) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 25. Magazine reading for pleasure |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 26. Movies |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 27. Newspaper reading |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 28. Odd jobs at home |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 29. Organizations or club meetings as a leader
(as for younger group) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 30. Organizations or club meetings as a member |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 31. Outdoor individual sports (golf, skating, hiking, tennis, etc.) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 32. Outdoor team sports (baseball, hockey, etc.) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 33. Participation in musical organizations
(choir, band, orchestra) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 34. Photography |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 35. Picnics |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 36. Playing musical instrument or singing
(individual) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 37. Shopping |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 38. Sitting and thinking |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 39. Spectator of sports |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 40. Symphonies or concerts |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 41. Telephone visiting |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 42. Television |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 43. Theater attendance (plays, dramas, etc.) |

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 44. Traveling or touring |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 45. Using public library |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 46. Visiting museums, art galleries, etc. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 47. Volunteer work, social services, etc. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 48. Writing personal letters |

APPENDIX G

SAMPLE DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Are you currently employed outside the home? Yes _____ No _____
Hours per week: _____

2. Present marital status:

_____ single _____ separated _____ apart from husband because of military
_____ married _____ divorced service or similar reason

3. Husband's occupation: _____

4. Husband's education - check last grade or year completed:

_____ less than high school diploma _____ two years of college
_____ high school diploma _____ three years of college
_____ post-high school business or technical training _____ college diploma
_____ one year of college _____ post-graduate work

5. Your education - check last grade or year completed:

_____ less than high school diploma _____ two years of college
_____ high school diploma _____ three years of college
_____ post-high school business or technical training _____ college diploma
_____ one year of college _____ post-graduate work

6. Age: _____

7. Number of children: _____ Ages of children: _____

8. Height: _____ Bust: _____ Hips: _____

Weight: _____ Waist: _____ Wrist: _____