

## Consumer Characteristics Relating to Business Jacket Practices -Focus on Working Women in the U.S.-

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### 미국 직장여성들의 비즈니스 자켓 착용과 관련된 소비자 특성 분석

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#### Abstract

In the United States, professional dress codes for working women have changed over time since the 1970s. Considering the changes, from conservative and traditional business uniforms in the 1970s, business casual in the late 1980s through 1990s, and the current revival of tailored business suits, this study investigated working women's business jacket practices and their association with personal, psycho-social, and physical characteristics. Working women's job satisfaction and corporate culture were also examined in relation to business jacket practices. Research data were collected by implementing mail surveys to 1,500 randomly selected working women in the United States. Of the 1,500 distributed questionnaires, a total of 312 were returned, of which 265 were deemed usable, yielding a 20.8% response rate. For data analysis, descriptive statistics, such as frequency, percentage distribution, mean scores, standard deviations, and Canonical Correlation were tabulated. The respondents ranged in age from 22 to 65. The mean age of the respondents was 44 years( $SD=9.63$ ). Most respondents were married(77.4%), working full-time(81.4%), career-oriented(77.2%), Caucasian(89.8%), had at least one child(78.9%), and had a professional job(75.9%). Working women's age, number of children, self-confidence in dressing, perceived importance of clothing, body frame size, and visibility to superiors and public were positively associated with business jacket practices, while age of first child, family size, dress size, and job satisfaction were negatively associated with business jacket practices.

**Key words:** Business jacket, Working women, Canonical Correlation, corporate culture; 비즈니스 자켓, 직장여성, Canonical Correlation, 직장환경

#### I. Introduction

In the U.S., as women increasingly moved into powerful management positions during the 1970s, there was much discussion concerning women's professional appearance and power look in the work-

place. At the time, the discussion was based largely on the superordinate positions Caucasian men held at work and their plain, dark, and tailored clothing in the workplace. In an effort to conform to the male-dominant business world, women's professional appearance and power look echoed that of their male counterparts.

The 1990s saw increasing diversity in the work-

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force and a shift in corporate dress codes in the direction of more casual dress. This allowed for more flexibility and diversity in women's professional dress; however, it created controversy. Some suggested that an unchanging image tends to convey a sense of stability and is highly valued in most business environments (Kimle & Damhorst, 1997), while others recommended adding a jacket for creating a power look (Rucker, Anderson, & Kangas, 1999). Constructing a powerful appearance seemed to require different strategies when dress codes were relatively casual as compared to relatively formal.

In the new Millennium, lack of an explicit dress code and ambiguity in casual dressing led to the revival of business suits. The number of companies practicing a business casual policy began to decline from 97% in 1998 to 87% in 2000, and the decline continued (Jenkins, 2001; Kaplan-Leiserson, 2000; Peterson, 2002; Speer, 2004). At the same time there appeared to be an emphasis on physical attractiveness; therefore, working women's power look was more likely to be associated with facial attractiveness and slimness. Indeed, working women were now challenged with a new era of expectations in the workplace.

Working women in Korea are faced with similar challenges. A study of Korean working women's professional attire from the 1970s to the present, reveals that their socially acceptable business wardrobes and professional appearance echoed those of women in the U.S. Rapid world globalization has been closing the gap in time, location and cultural differences. According to Kim (2004), both business casual and conservative corporate cultures co-exist in the Korean corporate world as well. Depending on the particular corporate image companies intend to portray (e.g., Samsung Electronics Co. versus LG Electronics Inc.), their dress codes are written, maintained, and further reinforced. By the same token, working women's professional wardrobe is managed based on their intended professional image. Regardless of culture, every working woman has a desire to look professional in an attractive way. That was the basic assumption throughout the entire investigation process of this study.

The purpose of this study was not to make

suggestions regarding casual dressing or conservative dressing, but to identify associations between the characteristics of working women and their business jacket practices. In this study, business jacket practices were assessed by measuring working women's frequency of wearing business jackets to work each week and the number of business jackets owned by each individual, while working women's characteristics were assessed in terms of their personal, psycho-social, and physical characteristics as well as the corporate culture at work. Based on the prevalent business casual trend, current revival of business attire, and previous findings, business jacket has been selected as the sole representation of business attire (Douglas & Solomon, 1983; Molloy, 1996; Peterson, 2002; Speer, 2004). The studies consistently reported that women wearing skirted suits or jacketed dresses were judged as more professional than women wearing a variety of other combinations without a jacket.

## II. Review of Literature

### 1. Evolution of Women's Professional Appearance in the U.S.

#### 1) *Conformity in the 1970s*

As women have moved into powerful positions in business, they have had to deal with the incongruity of a female gender identity and a business identity. In the 1970s when women first began to enter management ranks, popular image consultant John Molloy (1977) recommended that women should adopt the highly restricted dress styling of men's business dress, with limited and timid modifications to identify the female gender of the wearer. Perhaps at the early stage of role acquisition, borrowing existing dress styles from men, who dominated the managerial ranks, seemed a safe strategy for women so new to the corporate role (Ogle & Damhorst, 1999). Even so, the workplace environment often operated against females, having different expectations for females as opposed to males (Molloy, 1977). For males, there has been minimal variation in business attire. An acceptable business wardrobe had been more defined, providing a reliable barometer. Females,

however, did not have the same benefit of a business uniform(Dillon, 1980).

### **2) Diversity in the 1990s**

In the 1990s, with the introduction of the business casual trend, diverse styles and styling details became acceptable and blended in with the conservative. Damhorst and Fiore(1993) found that for management interviews, personnel interviewers judged a surprising variety of collar styles, colors, fabrics, and jacket and skirt details as acceptable, as long as some degree of men's classic tailoring was present. Both uniformity and diversity were accommodated within the flexible code for women's interview dress.

### **3) Importance of Attractiveness in the 2000s**

Beginning in the late 1990s, a redefined term of attractiveness was added to women's professional appearance. People's preference for an attractive appearance is not new; however, a narrow range of attractiveness defined by physical characteristics such as facial attractiveness or thinness has become a social issue and an attribute working women are expected to possess(Rudd & Lennon, 1999). Studies show that attractive applicants are often hired over those who are considered unattractive and attractive employees are evaluated higher in terms of task performance(Breseman et al., 1999). Attractive employees are even offered significantly higher annual salaries than the salaries of unattractive employees(Hamer-mesh & Biddle, 1994). Not surprisingly, many women in the new Millennium undergo the process of dieting, exercise, and cosmetic surgery to make themselves look attractive(Unilever, 2004).

## **2. Working Women in the U.S.**

### **1) Demographics**

During the twentieth century, many female-related demographic and social changes occurred in the U.S. The most notable change in the labor force was the increasing participation of married females(Cohen & Bianchi, 1999). In particular, married females with young children more than tripled during the twentieth century(U.S. Census Bureau, 1999, 2004-2005).

More males and females were married at an older age and, consequently, had children at an older age. Also, the birth rate declined, resulting in a smaller number of children per family. As a result, more females remained in the labor force for a longer period of time. Taking into consideration the demographic changes among working females, this study sought to assess the association between selected personal characteristics(i.e., age, education, professional apparel expenditure, number of children, age of first child, age of second child, and family size) and business jacket practices of working females. The study was conducted based on the assumption that demographic changes in the female labor force may affect the professional wardrobe selection of females.

### **2) Psycho-Social Motivation Toward Work and Clothing**

The increase in women's participation in the labor force has led many researchers and marketers to focus on working females as consumers from various perspectives. Research findings indicate that working females behave differently from non-working females and professional females behave differently from non-professional females with regard to apparel selection, purchase and consumption patterns, and benefits sought(Cassill & Drake, 1987; Shim & Bickle, 1994; Shim & Drake, 1998; Shim & Kotsiopoulos, 1992). Cassill and Drake reported that the employment orientation of working females significantly influenced individual females' lifestyles and apparel evaluation, thereby affecting the way females spent their money and time. In addition, the evaluative criteria used in career dressing differed according to females' employment orientation. Females employed in higher occupational levels placed more importance on the garments' suitability and appropriateness for work than on the garments' price and fiber content. Davis and Lennon(1985) reported that self-monitoring affects consumer fashion opinion, leadership, and attitudes toward use of clothing. High self-monitors were more likely to (a) place greater importance on clothing, (b) use clothing to be socially appropriate, and (c) use clothing to draw attention. Based on previous findings, this researcher investigated the interrela-

tionship between working females' psycho-social motivation(i.e., self-confidence in dressing, self-monitoring, job satisfaction, and perceived importance of clothing) and business jacket practices.

### 3) *Physical Characteristics*

The function of fashion products(i.e., apparel, jewelry, shoes, etc.) is to enhance the human body and its overall appearance by manipulating the aesthetic qualities of fashion products. Different clothing styles, the business jacket in particular, may be chosen with the intention of hiding parts of the body perceived to be flawed(Sproles, 1979). As evidenced in Yoo(2003), individual figure differences characterized by height, bone size or structure, weight, and proportional body areas affect working women's clothing design preferences due to the interaction between the aesthetic qualities of clothing and the aesthetic qualities of the body. Therefore, it was postulated that working women's physical characteristics are associated with their business jacket practices.

### 4) *Corporate Culture at Work*

Rabolt(1984) found that working women's career dressing was influenced by sources closest to the career setting. Later studies also found that the corporate culture at work, such as implicit dress code and visibility to superiors and the public, influenced working women's professional apparel selection (Cassill & Drake, 1987; Forsythe, Butler, & Kim, 1991; Shim & Drake, 1988). Given the effect of changes in the corporate culture over the last three decades on professional dress(i.e., business attire in the 1970s, business casual in the 1990s, and revival of business attire in the 2000s), the current study investigated the association between corporate culture at work(i.e., size of the firm, conservativeness, years at firm, years in career, visibility to superiors and public, and implicit dress code) and business jacket practices.

Based on the reviewed literature, the following hypotheses were formulated.

Hypothesis 1: Working women's personal characteristics(i.e., age, education, pro-

fessional apparel expenditure, number of children, age of first child, age of second child, and family size) are related to business jacket practices.

Hypothesis 2: Working women's psycho-social motivation toward work and clothing(i.e., self-confidence in dressing, self-monitoring, job satisfaction, and perceived importance of clothing) are related to business jacket practices.

Hypothesis 3: Working women's physical characteristics(i.e., height, weight, body frame size, and dress size) are related to business jacket practices.

Hypothesis 4: Working women's corporate culture (i.e., visibility to superiors and public, implicit dress code, size of firm, conservativeness at work, years at firm, and years in career) is related to business jacket practices.

## III. Methods

### 1. Sample Selection

The population was defined as working females who were 25 years and older and whose names were in the database of National Demographics & Life-styles(NDL). A national cross-section of 1,500 working women was randomly drawn for the study by NDL. All subjects had an equal and independent chance of being selected for the sample.

### 2. The Questionnaire

A self-administered questionnaire was developed to elicit information regarding working women's (a) business jacket practices, (b) business jacket purchase and consumption, (c) personal characteristics, (d) psycho-social motivation toward work and clothing, (e) physical characteristics, and (f) corporate culture at work. Business jacket practices were assessed by the frequency per week of wearing business jackets to work(1 item) and the number of business jackets

in inventory(1 item). These variables were measured on an open-ended question format and treated as continuous variables.

Working women's business jacket purchase and consumption was also assessed in the questionnaire by asking participants to identify the seasons in which business jackets are most often worn, the apparel items most frequently worn with business jackets, whether business jackets are purchased as a suit or separate, preferred retail store type for purchasing professional apparel, and payment type used for purchasing professional apparel. These variables were included in the questionnaire for preliminary assessment of working women's business jacket purchase and consumption behavior. They were not part of the hypothesis testing.

Demographic variables such as age, marital status, ethnicity, education, family size, number of children, age of first child, age of second child, and professional apparel expenditure were included to assess respondents' personal characteristics. The age, family size, number of children, age of children, age of first child, and age of second child variables were measured on an open-ended question format and were treated as continuous variables. The marital status variable consisted of (1) single, never married, (2) divorced, (3) married, (4) widowed, (5) separated, and (6) cohabiting. The variable was treated as a nominal variable. The ethnicity variable consisted of (1) Caucasian, (2) African-American, (3) Hispanic, and (4) Asian, and was treated as a nominal variable. The education variable consisted of (1) less than high school, (2) some high school, (3) high school diploma or equivalent, (4) some college work, (5) associate degree, (6) bachelor's degree, (7) post-graduate professional training, (8) some graduate work, (9) master's degree, (10) doctoral degree, (11) post doctoral work. The variable was treated as an ordinal variable with magnitude. The professional apparel expenditure variable was measured as a percentage contribution of total annual household income and consisted of (1) 10% or below, (2) 11%-20%, (3) 21%-30%, (4) 31%-40%, (5) 41%-50%, (6) 51%-60%, (7) 61%-70%, (8) 71% or more. The variable was treated as an ordinal variable with magni-

tude.

Psycho-social motivation toward work and clothing was assessed through employment status(full time versus part time), employment orientation(just-a-job versus career), job satisfaction(JS hereafter), self-confidence in dressing(SCD hereafter), self-monitoring(SM hereafter), and perceived importance of clothing(PIC hereafter). JS, SCD, SM, and PIC were measured using multiple items on a 7-point Likert scale, with 7 representing strong agreement and 1 representing strong disagreement. Eight items for JS were adapted from Bagozzi(1980), Dubinsky and Hartley(1986), and Lucas, Babakus, and Ingram (1990). The items measuring SCD(3 items) and PIC (6 items) were adapted from Rabolt(1984), and 11 items measuring SM were adapted from Snyder (1974) and Lennox and Wolfe(1984).

Information concerning the respondents' physical profile was assessed via height, weight, body frame size, and dress size. The height, weight, and dress size variables were measured on an open-ended question format and were treated as continuous variables. The body frame size variable measured the respondents' bone/wrist size in general and consisted of (1) extra-small, (2) small, (3) medium, (4) large, and (5) extra-large. The variable was treated as an ordinal variable with magnitude.

Corporate culture at work was assessed through size of the firm, conservativeness at work, male and female ratio, years at firm, years in career, number of customers/clients encountered daily at work, visibility to superiors and public, and implicit dress codes. The size of the firm variable was measured in categories ranging from small to large and was treated as an ordinal variable with magnitude. The conservativeness variable was measured on a 7-point Likert scale, with 7 representing extremely conservative work environment and 1 representing not at all conservative environment. The variable was treated as a continuous variable. The male and female ratio variable was measured as an open-ended question. Subjects filled out blanks indicating the percentage ratio of males to females at work. Since each ratio totaled 100%, only one of the variables, either the male ratio or the female ratio, was used for canonical correlation

analysis to eliminate multicollinearity. This variable was treated as a continuous variable. Years at firm, years in career, and number of customers/clients encountered daily at work were measured on an open-ended question format. These variables were treated as continuous variables. Visibility to superiors and public (2 items, VSP hereafter) measured subjects' degree of interaction with superiors and public, while implicit dress code(1 item, IDC hereafter) measured presence of an unwritten but expected dress code at work. The items for both variables were adapted from Rabolt (1984) and measured on a 7-point Likert scale, with 7 representing strong agreement and 1 representing strong disagreement. The variables were treated as continuous variables.

A pilot study was conducted to test for and clarify ambiguity in wording, comprehension of the instructions and terminology, and fatigue. A convenience sample of 43 subjects was recruited. A drop-off/pick-up method of distribution was used to deliver the questionnaire. Based on the analysis of the pilot study, the final questionnaire was prepared.

### 3. Data Collection

Collection of the research data followed a partial adaptation of Salant and Dillman(1994) for implementing mail surveys. A total of 1,500 questionnaires were mailed to randomly selected representatives of working women in the United States in 1999. The mailings were limited to three, instead of the four recommended by Salant and Dillman, to reduce costs and the possibility of irritating non-respondents. Participation was voluntary and respondents were informed of the confidentiality of the investigation. In an attempt to increase the response rate, the researcher informed respondents of a drawing for a \$100 money order for those returning a completed questionnaire.

### 4. Statistical Analysis of Data

Descriptive statistics, including frequency, percentage distribution, mean scores, and standard deviations, were tabulated to describe the sample during the preliminary assessment. Cronbach's alpha coeffi-

cients for the seven instruments tested exhibited high reliability: SCD( $\alpha=.85$ ), SM( $\alpha=.82$ ), PIC( $\alpha=.83$ ), JS ( $\alpha=.88$ ), and VSP( $\alpha=.88$ ).

Canonical correlation analysis was chosen for the hypotheses testing because of its capacity to make multivariate correlation comparisons. Canonical correlation analysis focuses on the correlation between a linear combination of the variables in one set and a linear combination of the variables in another set. Then, it determines each pair of linear combinations having the largest correlation. The pairs of linear combinations are called the canonical variables, and their relationships are called canonical correlations. The results present pairs of linear combinations(e.g., V1 and W1, V2 and W2, etc.) in the order of largest correlation, along with F-statistics. It is a rule of thumb that the pair with the highest F-value(i.e., V1 and W1) is used for the hypothesis testing.

For this study, Canonical correlation measured the association between working women's business jacket practices and their characteristics. As explained in the questionnaire section, continuous variables(e.g., age, number of children, and age of first child, etc.) and ordinal variables with magnitude(e.g., education and professional apparel expenditure, etc.) were included for hypotheses testing. Specific variables tested are explained in the result section, under each hypothesis testing. To minimize measurement unit size variations among variables, Standardized Canonical Coefficients were used.

## IV. Results

### 1. Description of Sample

Of the 1,500 questionnaires distributed, a total of 312 questionnaires were returned by the respondents, of which 265 were deemed usable, yielding a 20.8% response rate. The respondents' characteristics are summarized below.

The respondents ranged in age from 22 to 65. The mean age of the respondents was 44 years( $SD=9.63$ ). Approximately half of the respondents(46.7%) had a bachelor's degree or higher. The majority of the respondents were married(77.4%), working full-time(81.4%),

career-oriented(77.2%), Caucasian(89.8%), had at least one child(78.9%), had a professional job-professional/technical, manager/administrator, and sales worker

(75.9%), and had two to four family members(78.1%). The respondents had an average height of 5 ft 4 in. (SD=1.45) and an average weight of 154.9 lbs (SD

**Table 1. Corporate culture in the work place**

Characteristics	n	%	Characteristics	n	%
Size of the Firm/Corporation			Years in the Firm/Corporation		
Small	81	30.7	Less than 1 year	23	8.7
Medium	70	26.5	1-2 years	42	16.0
Large	110	41.7	3-5 years	57	21.7
Other	3	1.1	6-10 years	54	20.4
No response	1	0.3	11-15 years	43	16.3
Conservativeness of the Firm/Corporation			16-20 years	21	8.0
1 (Not at all conservative)	14	5.3	21-25 years	11	4.2
2	19	7.2	More than 26 years	13	5.0
3	28	10.6	No response	1	0.4
4	89	33.7	Years in Current Career		
5	46	17.4	Less than 1 year	20	7.5
6	40	15.2	1-2 years	39	15.0
7 (Extremely conservative)	28	10.6	3-5 years	68	26.0
No response	1	0.4	6-10 years	65	24.8
Male Ratio			11-15 years	37	14.1
10% or below	64	24.6	16-20 years	10	3.8
11%-20%	19	7.3	21-25 years	14	5.3
21%-30%	22	8.4	More than 26 years	9	3.5
31%-40%	41	15.8	No response	3	1.2
41%-50%	43	16.5	Number of Customers/Clients Daily Encounter		
51%-60%	30	11.6	No interaction	20	7.8
61%-70%	15	5.8	1-10	102	39.6
71%-80%	17	6.5	11-20	47	18.3
81%-90%	5	1.9	21-30	28	10.9
91%-100%	4	1.6	31-40	10	3.9
No response	5	1.9	41-50	14	5.4
Female Ratio			More than 50	37	14.6
10% or below	7	2.8	No response	7	2.7
11%-20%	14	5.4	Number of Supervisors/Colleagues Daily Encounter		
21%-30%	17	6.5	No interaction	20	7.6
31%-40%	31	12.0	1-10	169	64.6
41%-50%	41	15.8	11-20	36	13.7
51%-60%	39	15.0	21-30	13	5.0
61%-70%	18	6.9	31-40	9	3.4
71%-80%	32	12.3	41-50	7	2.7
81%-90%	21	8.1	More than 50	8	3.2
91%-100%	40	15.4	No response	3	1.2
No response	5	1.9			

Note: The percentage total for each characteristic may not add up to 100 due to the rounding. The no response rate was excluded from the frequency and percentage calculation.

=36.69). Approximately half of the respondents (46.4%) had a medium-sized body frame as defined by the respondents subjectively. The average dress size purchase was size 12 ( $SD=5.57$ ).

Working women wore business jackets to work 2-3 times a week ( $M=2.54$ ,  $SD=1.38$ ). The majority (76.0%) of the respondents wore jackets during the winter season, followed by fall (20.9%). The average number of jackets in inventory was approximately 10 ( $M=9.9$ ,  $SD=11.2$ ). More than half of the respondents wore business jackets with skirts (54.3%), while approximately 42% of the respondents wore jackets with pants. More than half of the respondents (61.1%) purchased business jackets as separates rather than as part of a suit.

<Table 1> provides a summary of corporate culture at work. The majority of the respondents (78.5%)

indicated that they interact with the public or clients. A majority (83%) indicated they interact with superiors. More than half (57.6%) of the respondents indicated that there is an unwritten but expected dress code at work. The average size of the firms or corporations was "Medium" ( $M=2.1$ ,  $SD=0.87$ ). The respondents indicated a moderate level of conservativeness at work ( $M=4.4$ ,  $SD=1.6$ ). The average length respondents had worked in their current job ( $M=8.87$ ,  $SD=7.84$ ) and career ( $M=8.3$ ,  $SD=7.32$ ) was 9 years.

## 2. Hypotheses Testing

Canonical correlation analysis identified two linear combinations, with only one being significant. The canonical linear combination found to be significant had a Likelihood ratio of .59 [ $F(42, 458)=3.28$ ,  $p<$

**Table 2. Summary of canonical correlation analysis**

Variables	Standardized Canonical Coefficients for the "VAR" Variables (V1)	Standardized Canonical Coefficients for the "WITH" Variables (W1)
Frequency of wearing business jackets to work per week	0.8129*	
Number of business jackets in inventory	0.3185*	
Age		0.4691*
Education		0.1587
Professional apparel expenditure		0.1700
Number of children		0.2848*
Age of first child		-0.5058*
Age of second child		0.0818
Family size		-0.2815*
Self-confidence in dressing		0.3725*
Self-monitoring		-0.0715
Job satisfaction		-0.2441*
Perceived importance of clothing		0.3291*
Height		-0.1166
Weight		0.1297
Body frame size		0.4582*
Dress size		-0.3589*
Visibility to superiors and public		0.4493*
Implicit dress code		0.1996
Size of firm		0.1783
Conservativeness at work		0.0884
Years at firm		0.1127
Years in career		-0.1575

Note: Canonical correlation between V1 and W1 was .58, and the likelihood ratio was .59 ( $p<.0001$ ). Variables with asterisk (\*) are considered to be significant variables for the linear combination V1 and W1.



.0001] with canonical correlation of .58. For proper interpretation of the summarized results, one should remember that canonical correlation provides multivariate correlation comparisons between two sets of variables. In other words, the significant canonical linear combination is between two sets of variables, not between the individual variables reported as significant. The correlation coefficient for each variable, reported in <Table 2>, indicates the degree of contribution each variable makes to the linear combination as well as the direction of its association.

**1) Hypothesis 1: Working women's personal characteristics are related to business jacket practices.**

Seven variables(i.e., age, education, professional apparel expenditure, number of children, age of first child, age of second child, and family size) were included for the analysis. There were four personal characteristics found to be associated with business jacket practices(BJP hereafter): age of the respondents, number of children, age of the first child, and family size. The age of the respondents was positively related to BJP. The age of the first child was negatively correlated with BJP. In other words, the younger the age of the first child, the more business jackets were owned by working women, resulting in more being worn to work. This finding may especially be true for respondents having a young first child at home. The family size was negatively correlated with BJP. With a small family size, respondents may have more discretionary income to spend on their professional wardrobe. Consequently, more business jackets are owned by females with small families, resulting in more jackets being worn to work by them than by females with large families. Based on the evidence above, Hypothesis 1 was accepted.

**2) Hypothesis 2: Working women's psychosocial motivation toward work and clothing are related to business jacket practices.**

Four variables(i.e., self-confidence in dressing, self-monitoring, job satisfaction, and perceived importance of clothing) were included for the analysis. Three variables were found to be related to BJP: self-

confidence in dressing(SCD hereafter), job satisfaction(JS hereafter), and perceived importance of clothing(PIC hereafter). SCD and PIC were positively related to BJP. Respondents with high confidence in selecting professional attire and putting together a professional appearance were more likely to wear business jackets to work. From the findings, one can postulate that respondents who did not often wear business jackets to work did not have confidence in dressing for work. PIC was positively related to BJP. Respondents who placed high importance on professional clothing were more likely to wear jackets to work. The result is consistent with previous findings(Douglas & Solomon, 1983; Molloy, 1996). Indeed, many think that clothing, a jacket in particular, plays an important role in portraying a professional image. JS was negatively correlated to BJP. Respondents who were highly satisfied with their jobs were less likely to wear jackets to work. In other words, respondents who wore jackets to work more frequently were less satisfied with their jobs. Based on the statistical evidence, Hypothesis 2 was accepted.

**3) Hypothesis 3: Working women's physical characteristics are related to business jacket practices.**

Height, weight, body frame size, and dress size were included for the analysis. The results exhibited a positive correlation between body frame size and BJP and a negative correlation between dress size and BJP. The larger their body frame, the more likely women were to wear business jackets to work. Thurston, Lennon, and Clayton(1990) reported that thin women convey a stronger professional image than larger women. In an effort to convey a stronger professional image, respondents with larger body frames may wear business jackets more frequently than those with smaller body frames. Regarding dress size being inversely correlated with BJP, working women who wear large dress sizes may have difficulty finding well-fitted jackets. They may have a greater desire to cover up their body and to portray a professional image by using a jacket. However, limited options available in the market may prevent large women

from purchasing and wearing jackets. Based on the evidence above, Hypothesis 3 was accepted.

**4) Hypothesis 4: Working women's corporate culture is related to business jacket practices.**

Six variables (i.e., visibility to superiors and public, implicit dress code, size of firm, conservativeness at work, years at firm, and years in career) were included for the analysis. Visibility to superiors and public (VSP hereafter) was the only variable found to be associated with BJP. The association was positive. In other words, respondents who worked closely with superiors and the public were more likely to wear jackets. The result suggests that respondents may use business jackets as a tool to convey an authoritative, powerful, and professional image. It also implies that female employees may tend to dress up when they interact with superiors and public. Based on the evidence, Hypothesis 4 was accepted as well.

## V. Discussion and Implications

In an attempt to assess working female consumers' business jacket practices, the researcher identified several key variables related to working females' clothing behavior. Variables found to be associated with business jacket practices were summarized. Positive or negative association was indicated by P or N in the parentheses, respectively: age of the respondents (P), number of children (P), age of the first child (N), family size (N), self-confidence in dressing (P), job satisfaction (N), perceived importance of clothing (P), body frame size (P), dress size (N), and visibility to superiors and public (P).

The negative association between business jacket practices and job satisfaction found in this study supports the survey results by the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) and the Levi Strauss Co. In a nationwide poll of human resource managers, they found that casual dressing at work increases employee job satisfaction. With a current movement toward "dress up Thursday," initiated by men's business apparel retailers and image consultants in the U.S., further investigation on dress code in relation to

job satisfaction is necessary to determine the causal-effect relationship between job satisfaction and casual dressing. If a business casual policy indeed causes employee job satisfaction, there will be many dissatisfied employees when companies adopt dress up Thursday in the future.

The findings of this study have many implications for marketers, retailers, designers, and manufacturers who target working female consumers. Although this study involved working women in the U.S., the results could be tailored to most working women in the world, with added attention to ethnicity-specific factors. As the world increasingly becomes a global community, more similarities than dissimilarities in the characteristics of various ethnic consumer groups become apparent. For those of us living in a highly technologically advanced society dealing with constantly changing fashion, the term *community* seems to be better defined by shared values, interests, lifestyle, and fashion than by mere geographic location. Designers, regardless of their physical location, can incorporate business jacket styles that camouflage young working mothers' physical changes after child birth. For young working mothers who may have time constraints but still strive to look professional, designers can create strategically planned, easy put on and off ensembles and already prepared total ensemble coordinates with accessories. Marketers and retailers, who target working females, could promote their products by providing professional image consultation on-site as well as on the Internet. Working females are, indeed, an excellent consumer group to target because they have discretionary income to spend on business related activities including apparel purchases.

Information shared with Korean apparel marketers, retailers, designers, and manufacturers could be useful in designing garments specifically targeting American working women and in creating marketing and promotional schemes for launching a new brand in the U.S. The findings will also raise awareness among image consultants, human resource managers, and consumers who are interested in women's professional appearance management and job satisfaction in Korea. Finally, Korean apparel experts in higher education will benefit from the added body of

knowledge in American working women's characteristics that are associated with professional clothing behavior. Further research may examine whether there are differences between American and Korean working women in their professional clothing behavior. This study was conducted with an assumption that there is no difference between the two cultures. If there are differences, they may have to do with styling details highly influenced by prevailing fashion, not with the culture. This needs to be further investigated.

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## 요 약

본 연구는 미국에서 1980년대 후반기 부터 시작되어, 1990년대를 지나오면서 활성화되었던 비즈니스 캐주얼과, 2000년대를 시작하면서 재활성화 되기 시작한 전통적이고 보수적인 직장복 스타일을 배경으로, 미국 직장여성들의 비즈니스 자켓 착용정도를 그들의 개인적, 인구통계적, 사회경제적, 사회심리적, 신체적 특성과 관련하여 비교 연구하였다. 직장의 근무 환경과 직장에 대한 만족도 또한 비즈니스 자켓 착용정도와 관련하여 비교 검토하였다. 연구대상자는 미국에 거주하는 25세 이상의 직장여성들이었으며, 자료는 1999년도에 Database 회사인 National Demographics & Lifestyles(NDL) 에서 무작위로 추출한 1500명의 직장여성들에게 우편을 통한 설문지 조사로 수집되었다. 자료분석에는 빈도, 백분율, 편차, 표준편차를 비롯한, Canonical Correlation이 사용되었다. 분석결과에 의하면, 자료수집에 참여한 미국 직장여성들의 평균 연령은 44세 였으며, 대부분이 기혼 여성들이었으며(77.4%), 전문직에 종사하고 있었으며(75.9%), 적어도 1명 이상의 자녀가 있었다(78.9%). 가설검증결과에 의하면, 미국 직장여성들의 비즈니스 자켓 착용정도에 관련된 요소들은 직장여성들의 (1) 연령, (2) 자녀수, (3) 첫째 자녀의 연령, (4) 가족 사이즈, (5) 의복 착용에 대한 자신감, (6) 직장만족도, (7) 의복의 중요성, (8) 체격 사이즈, (9) 의복 사이즈, (10) 직장상사와 대중과의 교류 정도를 이었다. 그 중에서도, 직장 여성들의 첫째아이의 연령, 가족 사이즈, 직장만족도, 의복 사이즈들은 비즈니스 자켓 착용 정도와 부정적인 상관관계를 보여 주었다.