Gauging Eve: A Study on the Effect of Nonverbal Cues on the Attitudes Towards Women.

Students Research Project

Submitted By:

Ahana Lahiri

Deepshikha Prasad

Mrittika Chatterjee

Nayanika Kamaraj

Sidra Aaisha Siddiqui

Third Year Honours

Department of Psychology

Loreto College

Kolkata

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Supervised By:

Ms. Jhelum Podder

Assistant Professor

Department of Psychology

Co-Supervised By:

Dr. Sayantani Chatterjee

Assistant Professor and Head

Department of Psychology

Loreto College

Kolkata

PREFACE

Women all over the globe have been subjected to considerable amounts of prejudice. Men are considered to be the more powerful gender. Gender stereotypes have been so deeply rooted in our society that all positions of authority have been attributed to men, in the family setting and also in the workplace. Men tend to hold more powerful positions as military, social and political leaders. However, with the evolution of the society, its perceptions and attitudes towards women is also changing. Along with societal factors, it is also important to address some psychological factors that may influence one's attitude towards women. Thus, it is important to study attitude towards women in relation to nonverbal cues such as clothing, cosmetics and hair length.

Thus the present research aims to study the effect of nonverbal cues on the attitudes towards women.

Chapter 1, highlights the attitude towards women along with the variables used in the study.

A literature survey covering different facets of the life of women and the selected variables of the study is highlighted in Chapter 2.

Chapter 3 delineates the methodological plan and procedural details adopted for the present research work.

Chapter 4 highlights the results section. It depicts differences in the perception of men and women with respect to clothing, cosmetics and hair length and their attitude towards women. Correlational analysis for the entire sample is also provided.

Chapter 5 provides the necessary, relevant and logical explanations to the hypotheses of the present study along with supportive research evidences.

The conclusion of the study along with limitations, originality of the present work and the areas of further research are described in Chapter 6.

The following section provides the bibliography of books, journals, e-journals, articles and dissertations in alphabetical order. Last, but not the least, at the end, a set of Appendices has been supplemented.

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(Ahana Lahiri)   (Deepshikha Prasad)   (Mrittika Chatterjee)

(Nayanika Kamaraj)   (Sidra Aaisha Siddiqui)

ABSTRACT

People tend to form first impressions on the basis of many non verbal cues and these impressions tend to affect the attitudes that people have about others. The attitudes maybe towards particular genders and may contribute to gender stereotypes and prejudice. The present study aims to determine the effect of non verbal cues (clothes, cosmetics and hair length) on the attitudes towards women, specifically in the familial, social and employability domains. For the present study, a group of 60 young adults in the age group of 18-25 years were chosen and subdivided into two subgroups, one with 30 males and the other with 30 females. Their general attitude towards women was assessed using the Attitudes towards Women Scale. They were shown photographs of women models, which were standardised by the investigators, for both levels of the variables: Clothes (Formal and Informal), Cosmetics (With No Makeup and With Makeup) and Hair Length (Long and Short) and on the basis of these photographs were asked to respond to a scale constructed by the investigators consisting of positive and negative statements for the familial, social and employability domains. The objectives of the present study were to: (a) determine the significant difference between men and women with respect to the attitudes towards women. (b) determine the significant difference between men and women with respect to the perception of clothes, cosmetics and hair length. (c) determine the significant difference between the attitudes of men and women in the familial, social and employability domains. (d) determine the relationship of attitudes towards women with hair length, cosmetics and clothes. After the relevant calculations and analyses were done, it was found that females were more

egalitarian than men in their attitude towards women. Men were also more likely to focus their judgement on the bodily features and attire while women were more likely to focus on the made up appearance, facial beauty and feminine features. Women were more accepting of both extremes of Hair length and Cosmetics while men were more accepting of both extremes of Clothes. The present sample comprised of female college students and they were less supportive of gender-specialised marital roles and thereby had a more favourable attitude towards women in the familial and the employability domains. The effect of hair length on physical attractiveness and personality judgement was much weaker than the effect of facial traits. This study was conducted as an attempt to understand whether non verbal cues can be modified in order to produce desirable effects on behaviour or to create favourable attitudes.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND:

Through the late 1960s and early 1970s, gender research went through some fundamental development. Maccoby's (1966) book, *The Development of Sex Differences* which focused on theories of gender development remains to this day the foundations of research and theory on children's gender development. In 1972, Money and Ehrhardt's book, *Man and Woman, Boy and Girl*, talked about a provocative theory about gender identity and gender differentiation that continues to spark debate. Based on research with intersex patients, this book stated that social factors were more important than biological factors in gender identity and gender roles and brought nature-nurture issues to the forefront. The notion of 'gender role' was elaborated further by authors who used it as a term referring to the "socially defined, outward manifestations of gender", and "gender identity" as "one's personal experienced sense of gender".

In the 1970s scholars thought about the concepts of sex and gender. Unger's (1979) influential paper, *Toward a Redefinition of Sex and Gender*, asserted that the use of the term *gender* "serves to reduce assumed parallels between biological and psychological sex or at least to make explicit any assumptions of such parallels". Scholars became more selective in their use of the terms *sex* and *gender* and avoid framing research in ways that might hint at biological determinism on the basis of the ideas expressed by Unger (Poulin 2007).

Terminology issues have continued to be raised in the field: some researchers proposed other usages because of concern that separating "sex" and "gender" may presuppose knowledge of the origins of behaviors. (Deaux, 1993).

In the 1970s, scholars began to challenge conceptualizations of masculinity and femininity as representing bipolar opposites. Most notably, in a conceptual breakthrough with both theoretical and methodological ramifications, Constantinople (1973) and Bem (1974) argued that males and females possess both masculine and feminine qualities. This idea revolutionized the measurement of these characteristics. Bem (1974) also argued that having both masculine and feminine qualities—that is, being psychological androgynous—was optimal for psychological adjustment. Her research laid the groundwork for subsequent research on gender identity and framed much research over the following years (Marecek, Kimmel, Crawford & Hare- Mustin, 2003).

1.1 GENDER DIFFERENCES -

1.1.1 BIOLOGICAL APPROACH -

Since developmental researchers are interested in the origins of behaviors, hence, it is not surprising, that issues of nature and nurture are theoretically important and that great attention surround biological versus socialization approaches to understanding gender development (Ruble, Martin & Berenbaum, 2006). Biological arguments have long been made to justify gender inequality (Shields, 1975) and are often interpreted as deterministic. Nonetheless, with advancements in research methods and theories addressing biological mechanisms, this field of inquiry has gained acceptance and visibility (Ruble, Martin & Berenbaum, 2006). Current biological approaches do not imply determinism and instead

emphasize the ways in which biological and social factors interact to produce behavior. Some of the most active research in this area has been on girls with Congenital Adrenal Hyperplasia (CAH), a genetic disease in which the foetus is exposed to elevated levels of androgens. Researchers have found that girls with CAH tend to be masculinized in some aspects of their preferences and behaviour (Berenbaum and Snyder, 1995). Studies of prenatal exposure to normal variations in hormones such as testosterone (Cohen-Bendahan, van de Beek & Berenbaum, 2005), and cross-species comparisons (Alexander and Hines 2002; Wallen, 1996) have also become increasingly sophisticated and common.

Psychologists have always been interested in whether men and women are all that different. For example, it is almost cliché in Western cultures to state that women are more emotionally expressive than men; indeed, research has found support for this stereotype, such that women actually do smile more than men (LaFrance, Hecht, & Paluck, 2003). Similarly, men are frequently portrayed by the media as being involved in more violent behaviours than women. Although there is no large gender difference in the incidence of anger, men do use more risky and costly methods of aggression (Archer, 2004). Given the stereotypes that women are nice and supportive whereas men are domineering and aggressive, new theories have suggested that this good-bad gendered continuum might be evident in another social behaviour – intergroup prejudice. A strong argument can be made that women have a more prosocial orientation whereas men have a more competitive one. This is based on theories of social dominance, the observation that gender roles exert influence over men and women's behaviour, and the fact that men and women have physical differences (e.g., size, hormones).

1.1.2 SOCIALIZATION AND COGNITIVE APPROACH -

Another debate that has received considerable attention in the field has concerned socialization and cognitive approaches to gender development. This debate can be traced

back to Kohlberg's and Mischel's chapters in Maccoby's 1966 book, more recent reviews of empirical evidence has re-stimulated this discussion (Bandura and Bussey 2004; Bussey and Bandura 1999; Martin, Ruble & Szkrybalo, 2002, 2004). Both approaches emphasize socialization versus biological processes and highlight the shaping of children's behaviour to match cultural gender role norms. However, the socialization and cognitive perspectives differ in the degree to which they emphasize the role of the social environment, especially reinforcement and modeling of adults and peers, relative to cognitive developmental processes, such as the emergence of children's gender identity and knowledge of gender stereotypes. Despite the disagreements over relative contributions of socialization and cognitive processes, there are a number of similarities in these approaches, and both groups of theorists have conducted studies of cognitive and socialization factors. For instance, Bussey and Bandura (1999) describe some cognitive information-processing mechanisms, such as selective attention, forming cognitive representations, and forming plans of action, that mediate observational learning. Cognitive theorists describe the ways in which children interpret and respond to messages provided by socialization agents, such as peers (Ruble, Martin & Berenbaum, 2006).

1.2 PREJUDICE:

1.2.1 NATURE -

The Nature of Prejudice (Allport, 1954) provided one of the most influential frameworks for examining prejudice. Allport's work investigated the problem of prejudice through the formation of ingroups and the rejection of outgroups, differing individual attitudes and beliefs, and the societal climate and cultural factors of the time that influence people's thoughts about the outgroup. He discussed the social categories that are used by us

to structure the world around us (Allport, 1954) as well as current and past sources of information that influence our attitudes toward different groups (Esses, Jackson, & Armstrong, 1998). These social categories influence how we see and respond both to our respective ingroup and the outgroup (Brewer, 2007). According to Allport (1954), prejudice can be defined as "an antipathy based on faulty and inflexible generalisations. It may be felt, expressed, or directed to a group or any individual of that group".

Over the years, several personality characteristics have been linked to prejudice. For example, individual differences in empathy – the ability to feel the emotions experienced by others (Davis, 1994) are associated with prejudice. Increasing empathy and perspective taking reduces prejudice (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008) by minimising perceived dissimilarity and anxiety concerning the outgroup (Stephan and Finlay, 1999). Likewise, self esteem – an individual's evaluation of their own personal characteristics (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991) – has been found to influence prejudice. Evidence has revealed that individuals high in self esteem engage in more prejudice, perhaps because they are less concerned with their appearance to others (Aberson, Healy, & Romero, 2000).

1.2.2 PREJUDICE AND GENDER ROLE ISSUES -

According to the Social Dominance Theory, gender roles play an important part in shaping group-based prejudice. (Sidanius, Pratto, & Bobo, 1994). This theory states that prejudice is partly motivated by the desire to acquire more resources and status for one's own group. The Theory of Gendered Prejudice (McDonald, Navarrete & Sidanius, 2011) builds on this hypothesis that men's greater desire and ability to dominate over others manifests itself in intergroup prejudice. On the basis of the physical and social differences between men and women, it is hypothesised that underlying motivations for prejudice are

gender-specific. Men's prejudice is defined by aggression and dominance over groups whereas women's prejudice will be characterised by wariness and fearfulness of outgroups and more specifically, outgroup men.   Societies have created social hierarchies in which men are expected to achieve more than women (Sidanius, Pratto, & Bobo, 1994; Sidanius, Pratto, & Rabinowitz, 1994). Within the patriarchal framework, society views men as more powerful than women. Men are more likely to achieve more than women and, in addition to this social advantage, evolution has favoured men over women.

On the basis of Social Dominance Theory (Sidanius and Pratto,1999), men are expected to be more dominance-oriented and seek to maintain a system of hierarchy (Pratto, Sidanius, Stallworth & Malle, 1994). Within the social categories that are based on race or religion, a patriarchal society exists that views men as more powerful than women (Sidanius, Pratto, & Rabinowitz, 1994). Men hold more powerful positions as military, social and political leaders (Mani, 2009). In addition, men hold more hierarchical attitudes such as supporting ethnic prejudice and right wing political parties compared to women (Shapiro & Mahajan, 1986; Sidanius, Cling, & Pratto, 1991). Men's greater desire and ability to dominate others has been supported by the finding that, compared to women, men exhibit stronger social group preferences (Nosek, Smyth, Hansen, Devos, Lindner, Ranganath & Greenwald, 2007), desire hierarchical relationships (Sidanius, Pratto, & Bobo, 1994), and are more oriented toward ranking groups (Eisler & Loye, 1983). Men's greater engagement in intergroup competition and social dominance orientation has therefore been used to predict gender differences in prejudice.

Prejudice can be developed by implicit stereotypes and implicit attitudes that are developed due to prior exposure to stimuli that predispose the individual to feelings of favour or disfavour towards the stimuli.

1.2.3 ATTITUDE, PREJUDICE AND STEREOTYPES -

Often, Attitude, prejudice and stereotypes are used interchangeably in colloquial speech. However, there is a specific distinction between the three terms. Attitude, as defined by Eagly and Chaiken (1993), is "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour." A stereotype, on the other hand, is the cognitive component of the attitudes of a person towards a social entity which includes their beliefs about what the entity is like. Prejudice is the affective aspect of the attitude of an individual (Baron & Branscombe, 2006). Prejudice involves the negative feelings experienced by the prejudiced when they are exposed to, or think about, the members of the group that they are prejudiced against. (Brewer & Brown, 1998).

Gordon Allport (1954) has defined prejudice as a "feeling, favourable or unfavourable, toward a person or thing, prior to, or not based on, actual experience". A slang definition of prejudice has also been put forward by Allport (1954) as "being down on somebody that you aren't up on."

Women face discrimination and prejudice in almost all areas of life. In a study by Colleen Ward, there was no tendency on the part of the female subjects to rate female authored articles as less favourable in terms of style, content, professionalism, persuasion and profundity, however, the case with men was quite different. They were more likely to denigrate female authors in their competence and status (Ward, 1981).

Prejudice may be developed through competition between two groups. The realistic conflict theory states that prejudice stems from competition with out-groups for scarce resources (Campbell, 1965). According to Campbell (1965), conflict between two groups is the greatest when there is a conflict of interests which can only be resolved by victory of either of the

groups. Hence, when resources are scarce, the victorious and more influential group controls the resources and this leads to competition between the two groups. Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood and Sherif proved the realistic conflict theory by conducting the famous Robber's Cave Experiment (1954) in Oklahoma In the first week, the boys of both the groups developed attachment for their in-group, established norms, named their groups 'Rattlers' and 'Eagles', and designed flags and shirts for themselves (Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood and Sherif, 1961). Later, both the groups were brought together and made to compete with each other for various attractive prizes. The conflict between the groups increased from verbal taunting to sabotaging the out-groups cabins. At the end of the experiment, the children used favourable words to describe their own groups and negative words for the other group (Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood and Sherif, 1961).

1.2.4 SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY -

Prejudice towards out-groups can begin from a simple preference for their own in-group. People want to see the social group that they belong to positively which means more positively than other groups. This is the social identity theory. This leads them to reduce the status of the out-groups hereby raising the status of their own in-group. Turner (1975) explains the comparison between the groups as a "competition for positive identity". Their attitude towards the out-group is aimed at enhancing their own in-group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Perceivers reward stereotype conformists, while people who are non-conforming, specifically to gender stereotypes have to suffer difficulties like backlash and disapproval. Women are more likely to suffer from decreased chances of employment and more economic and financial sanctions if they "move into" male dominated sectors, are agentic and non-conforming to their gender stereotypes (Rudman & Fairchild, 2004).

1.2.5 GENDER DIFFERENCES IN SEXISM -

Men, however, are more likely to display less in-group bias than women, preferring their own gender (Rudman & Goodwin, 2004). In an Implicit Association Test, it was observed that both female and male subjects were more likely to have more favourable attitudes towards women. This is called the 'women and wonderful' effect. Women with more cognitive balance with their identity and self esteem had more in-group bias (Rudman & Goodwin, 2004).

Peter Glick and Susan Fiske (1996) conducted research on ambivalent sexism, which is a theoretical framework including two differing attitudes towards women, with hostile sexism and benevolent sexism on both sides of the same coin, both being equally damaging. Hostile sexism is aggressive sexism directed towards women who do not conform to societal standards and expectations of femininity. It includes lashing out at them and accusing them of emasculating men. Benevolent sexism, on the other hand, is the idea that women need to be protected and taken care of (Glick and Fiske, 2011). This is aimed towards maintaining the status quo in gender norms, towards maintaining the stereotype of soft and fragile women. The variables have been chosen for this study because clothing, facial makeup and hairstyle are one of the most important non verbal cues apart from body language, distance (proxemics) and physical environments/appearance, of voice (paralanguage) and of touch (haptics). They are used to make judgements about people in our everyday lives. For example, women in positions of power tend to keep shorter hair because they want to appear more assertive and dominant. Short hair is preferred for women in the workplace; Women with short hair are seen as intelligent, knowledgeable, mature, and confident. (Jorgensen, 2014).

Thus, these variables were chosen to study their effect on people's attitudes towards women.

1.3 VARIABLES USED IN THE STUDY:

Thus, the following variables have been chosen to highlight the effect of non verbal cues on the attitude towards women.

1.3.1 <u>CLOTHES: Formal and Casual -</u>

Clothes are cultural artefacts, embedded in current and historical sets of meanings, shaped by social and economic forces, reflecting current social and cultural concerns.(Twigg, 2009). "Clothing is an area of visual communication that is of great interest to scholars and the lay public alike. There are laws and ordinances that govern it and strict social norms for its appropriateness. Clothing is constantly used to measure and display status and a host of other social variables. Virtually everyone has expectations for what types of dress will be worn in specific social contexts and violations of those norms may elicit a range of responses from onlookers" (Dunbar & Segrin, 2012). Cars and clothing are both products which are high in visual display and recognized in our society as "saying something" about a person (Robertson, 1970). Psychology has long been interested in the meaning of clothing. William James (1983) placed clothing "just after the physical body (and before the immediate family) when he described the components of the material self". Clothing influences impressions of others (Albright, Kenny, & Malloy, 1988; Forsythe, 1990; Reid, Lancuba, & Morrow, 1997)

and how others are treated (Darley & Cooper, 1972; Suedfeld, Bochner, & Metas, 1971). One's own clothing can influence self-perception (Hannover & Ku¨hnen, 2002; Kellerman & Laird, 1982; Peluchette & Karl, 2007). "While our cave dwelling ancestors began wearing clothing for purely utilitarian reasons, one need only take a short journey through history to uncover how quickly the human race began to view clothing and other accoutrements of style as a means of creating a unique identity. In fact, how we dress is one of very few clear indicators of an individual's personality, self-image and at times, even his or her worldview." (Granger, 2014).

Crane (2000) says "Clothes are used to make statements about social class and social identity, but their principal messages are about the ways in which women and men perceive their gender roles, or are expected to perceive them." Allhoff (2011) says "Of course fashion is not always about or even primarily about individuality. It is also a powerful means of communicating group membership and social roles. Clothes we wear, along with hairstyles and other items of adornment can often do, whether we are aware of it or not, communicate our social and professional roles and status – for example, power dressing, fitness freak, etc. They may also communicate our religious and moral beliefs, and our aesthetic judgements." Even though an individual may not be providing verbal communication, their physical appearance provide nonverbal external cues. In clothing literature, the nonverbal cue of clothing style has often been a variable of analysis, and researchers on the topic have manipulated styles of clothing to see what each one communicates to a perceiver. (Angerosa, 2014). Non-verbal communication usually is accomplished through different types of nonverbal communication signals such as gesture, body language or posture, facial expression and eye gaze, object communication such as clothing, hairstyles or even architecture, vocal cues, etc. In fact, a significant amount of communication that goes on

between people is nonverbal. Thourlby (1978) states that "people make decisions about others' level of sophistication, level of success, economic level, educational level, trustworthiness, social position, economic background, social background, educational background, and moral character solely upon clothing". In addition, judgments about one's credibility, likability, interpersonal attractiveness, and dominance are affected by clothing (Molloy, 1988; Raiscot, 1986).

Researchers have reported that attire has an influential role in first impression formation (Buckley, 1983; Rucker, Taber & Harrison, 1981; Lennon & Miller, 1984); that there is a relationship between attire and personality (Aiken, 1963; Dubler & Gurel, 1984; Rosenfeld & Plax, 1977); that there are similar tendencies toward preferred clothing styles (DeLong & Larntz, 1980; Dillion, 1980; DeLong, Salusso-Deonier & Larntz, 1983); and that attire influences the credibility of individuals (Paek, 1986; Lang, 1986; Forsythe, Drake & Cox, 1984; Korda, 1975).

The social psychology of dress is concerned with how an individual's dress affects the behavior of self as well as the behavior of others toward the self (Johnson & Lennon, 2014). Applied to dress and appearance, our behavior relative to another person is influenced by that person's dress (Kaiser 1997) and the meaning that we assign to that dress. "We need to understand the significance of clothing choices regardless of our gender. Whether you are male or female, your fashion choices can affect both your self-image, the impression that you convey to others, and in turn, the way in which people behave towards you. They can influence everything from the outcome of a sports match" (Hill and Barton, 2005) "to an interviewer's impression of your ability to perform effectively in a job position" (Forsythe, 2006). Garments are items made by people and with the clear distinction in male and female, show the socially constructed nature of gender differences. They have functional

character, but also make statements about social class, economic status, attitudes and even the desire to comply with social norms or vary from them. (Arvanitidou and Gasouka, 2013). Crane (2000) argues that clothing plays a crucial role in gendering individuals. She claims that individuals do not choose clothing based on innate gender preferences, but rather are encouraged to wear clothes that will reinforce the gender roles society encourages them to play. Crane (2000) explains how the structure of clothing reinforces men's role over women by restricting women's bodies, leaving little time for meaningful social contributions and thus symbolizing "women's exclusion from male occupations and their economic dependence on husbands and male relatives". Cavallaro (1998) claims that if clothing can successfully "fashion" the individual by reinforcing the gender roles required of him or her, the individual may also be able to challenge those prescribed gender roles through the conscious manipulation of gender deviant clothing.

1.3.2 COSMETICS – With makeup and With no makeup.

Cosmetics are used to increase one's attractiveness. Attractive people tend to be successful at selling products (Reingen & Karnan, 1993), find it easy to find dating partners (Wax, 1957), easily influence people and get help (Patzer, 1983).

Use of cosmetic products is not just a new trend. People since the Egyptian era used paint to highlight and enhance their facial features by using red pigments on their cheeks and lips, by using eye paint and even working over their eyebrows with antimony (Umbach, 1991, as cited in Hang, T., 2010). Egyptians around 2000 B.C, created formulas for removing blemishes, wrinkles and age spots.

Romans extensively used cosmetics around the middle of the 1st century AD. They used kohl for darkening eyelids and eyelashes, chalk was applied for whitening one's

complexion and rouge was applied on the cheeks. They also used pumice for cleaning their teeth. Romans were willing to spend their time on their beauty, skin and hair routines (Umbach, 1991, as cited in Hang, T., 2010).

In ancient China, clothing and wearing cosmetics reflected one's social status. Most of the women wearing cosmetics in ancient China were ladies from the noble families, but not the common people (Hunt & Fate, 2009, as cited in Hang, T., 2010). Wearing cosmetics has become a usual and ordinary part of people's lives, not just in the Western countries but also in Asia-Pacific countries like Hong Kong, Singapore, India, and Japan. According to the Confederation of Indian Industries (CII), Indian beauty and cosmetic market size stands at US$950 with an annual growth rate of 15-20%. According to a study conducted by ASSOCHAM, around 68% of Indian young adults tend to use grooming products in order to boost their confidence. This trend of rising aspiration towards achieving a better appearance pertains to both men and women. ASSOCHAM in its article, 'Grooming, cosmetic products set for exponential growth in India', states that, men in the age group of 18 to 25 years spend more than women do, in context to grooming and personal care products. This has further led to a rise in the creation of grooming and personal care products designed especially for them. Rising Disposable income, increasingly complex grooming routines, competitive workforce environment and the influence of social media are some of the key factors resulting in an increased growth in the market size of this industry.

Abby Jean (2014) , states that henna has been used in India since the ancient times, as a hair dye and for decorating hands and feet. Henna is also used in North African cultures. As Murty Mandala describes, body decoration in ancient India was known as 'Angaraaga'. Women used a powder called Lodhra for the face and light Alaktaka colour for painting their lips. Instead of using the soap, an oily substance known as 'Phena' was used for cleansing the

body. Ingredients utilized for facial make-up were turmeric, ground flour, cream etc. Nails were painted using the leaves of goranti leaves. Herbs like, tulsi, turmeric, neem, saffron, sandalwood, and amla were used in masks and creams. Ancient Indians used oil pulling for dental hygiene and dry brushing their skin for lymphatic stimulation and exfoliation. Several recipes for face and body masks have been passed down since generations. In recent times, Indian women tend to rely on the products developed and manufactured by various cosmetic brands. This has led to the rise of the cosmetic industry in the country, although the ancient remedies have still somehow percolated down in the present makeup routines of several Indians.

"Success in the workplace may also be linked to use of cosmetics. Beautiful people of both sexes tend to have a higher earning potential than those who are below-average or average looking" (Korichi, Pelle-De-Queral, Gazano and Aubert, 2008). Cosmetics usage being associated with enhancing of one' attractiveness, its use is likely to have a positive impact on an individual's work life. According to Bilal, Talihun Shimels, Gelan and Osman, 2016, "people who were self-employed were found to be less likely to use both modern cosmetics and traditional herbal cosmetics as compared to government workers and the unemployed". This indicates that the working population pays attention to appearance and grooming, use of cosmetics being an important factor in this regard. Thus, brands like Lakme, Maybelline, L'Oreal, Revlon, etc. have made a stronghold in the Indian cosmetic industry, thereby reforming and redefining the same further indicating that people in India have started giving cosmetics an important role to cosmetics in their daily lives.

1.3.3 HAIR LENGTH – Short and Long

In mammals, hair refers to "the characteristic threadlike outgrowths of the outer layer of the skin (epidermis) that form the animal's coat or pelage" (Britannica, 2017). The main function of hair is to insulate the body by conserving heat. The variety of colours and patterns of hair also help in camouflage and in sexual attraction among members of a species. Human beings develop several different types of hair throughout the course of their development. Lanugo develops first and is a layer of downy hair that begins to grow in the third or fourth month of prenatal life and is shed either before or shortly after birth. During the first few months of infancy fine, short, unpigmented hair called down hair, or vellus, grows. At puberty, this hair is supplemented by terminal hair that is longer, coarser and more heavily pigmented. It develops in the armpits, genital regions, and, in males, on the face and sometimes on parts of the trunk and limbs. The hair of the scalp, eyebrows, and eyelashes are of a separate type and develop pretty early in life. On the scalp, the hair is usually densest and longest. (Britannica, 2017).

However since most of the insulation needs of humans are satisfied by clothing, human hair, especially the hair on the scalp or head hair, plays a more important role socially rather than physiologically. Hair provides important information about a person's self and group identity. "Inferences and judgments about a person's morality, sexual orientation, political persuasion, religious sentiments and, in some cultures, socio-economic status can sometimes be surmised by seeing a particular hairstyle" (Pergament, 1999). Women generally have longer head hair than men. They also spend much more time and money than men for styling and maintaining their hair (Manning, 2010).

It was found that by 5 to 7 years of age, most children understand that in spite of superficial changes, for example a girl's short haircut, gender remains permanent (Szkrybalo & Ruble, 1999). This is consistent with Ruble (1994) who suggested that when children

realise that gender is an important social category, their understanding of gender develops in three phases. In the first phase of construction, children are concerned with looking for and imbibing gender-relevant information. However, since their understanding of gender is still not fully complete they do not "react strongly to gender norm violations." On the contrary, during the second phase of consolidation, children develop a set of gender stereotypes and are very rigid in their gender beliefs. Finally in the last phase, integration, children are more flexible in the application of gender-related information and may show individual differences in their understanding of gender. Humans select partners or mates based on certain characteristics for which they have evolved preferences. One mechanism involved in mate selection is intersexual selection (Darwin, 1859). Intersexual selection implies that members of one sex desire certain characteristics in members of the opposite sex (Buss, 1996). Thus members of one sex who possess these characteristics have an advantage over other members in attracting potential mates. Women prefer men who have high economic capacity and high social status and who are ambitious, dependable, intelligent, healthy, and willing to commit. On the contrary, it is seen that men look for women who have a high potential to be reproductive, and so they prefer women who are young, healthy, and physically attractive (Buss, 1994).

Certain desirable characteristics cannot be directly observed like health and youth but can be inferred through other related characteristics like body shape and hair. Women's hair is an important signal of their desirable characteristics because it is visible and easily changeable (Hinsz, Matz & Patience, 2001). Healthy, shiny, and strong hair can signal overall physical health (Etcoff, 1999). Women whose hair are healthier are likely to keep their hair long (occupy more space in the visual field) to better signal their desirable characteristics to

potential mates (Hinsz, Matz & Patience, 2001). However, Swami, Furnham & Joshi (2008) found that short hair was rated as significantly more fertile than long hair.

Terry & Krantz (1993) found that women with longer hair are judged to have lower social forcefulness or power. The dimension of social forcefulness is dominated by assertiveness (aggression, courage) and social presence (dominance, extroversion and sociability). The researchers suggested that this finding may be because women's long hair softens the contours of the face and makes it appear more round and "baby-ish." Moreover young girls are more likely to have long hair than adult women. Since both these factors contribute to youthfulness, it reduces the social forcefulness of women with long hair.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE PRESENT RESEARCH:

1. To determine the significant difference between men and women with respect to the perception of hair length.
2. To determine the significant difference between men and women with respect to the perception of cosmetics.
3. To determine the significant difference between men and women with respect to the perception of clothes.
4. To determine the significant difference between the attitudes of men and women in the social life domain.
5. To determine the significant difference between the attitudes of men and women in the familial domain.
6. To determine the significant difference between the attitudes of men and women in the employability domain.
7. To determine the relationship of attitudes towards women with hair length, cosmetics and clothes.

CHAPTER 2

SURVEY OF RELEVANT

LITERATURE

2.0 Literature survey is an important step of any research activity. It provides us with information regarding the previous research endeavours undertaken in the present area of interest. thus it serves as a guiding force to determine the nature and direction of the present research study.

2.1 GENDER:

2.1.1 Roles and Differences:

Gender is the range of characteristics pertaining to, and differentiating between, masculinity and femininity. Gender roles are a set of societal norms stating the types of behaviors which are generally considered suitable, fitting, or necessary for people based on their actual or perceived sex or sexuality. One's personal experience of one's own gender is called gender identity. In most societies, there is a basic division between gender attributes

assigned to males and females, a gender binary to which most people adhere to and which includes expectations of masculinity and femininity in all aspects of sex and gender. These expectations may vary among cultures, while other characteristics may be common throughout a range of cultures.

There are many factors that cause gender similarities and differences in behaviour. Men and women differ in their social behaviour due to multiple influences affecting them. From a biological perspective, men and women differ in physical size, basal levels of hormones, and gonadal hormone exposure. From an evolutionary and social standpoint, gender differences are the result of sex-differentiated pressures on human ancestors. Different positions of men and women in social hierarchies affect sex differentiated behaviour. Even specific gender roles that we assume men and women fit into is also a result of the same.

At the core of gender differences in behaviour are the societal stereotypes about gender (Eagly & Wood, 2012). Stereotypes are considered to be based on kernels of truth (Prothro & Melikian, 1955) and participants are surprisingly accurate at judging gender differences that are found and supported in meta-analyses (Hall & Carter, 1999). However, there is an obvious feedback loop between the behaviours we expect of men and women and the observations that we make.

2.1.2 <u>Social Role Theory:</u>

Social role theory refers to the shared beliefs applied to people in certain roles. For example, a teacher is seen to be having the attributes of intelligence and kindness as she holds the role expectations of lessons and education. (Biddle, 1979). Based on this theory, gender roles beliefs are arguably formed based on the social roles we see men and women occupy (Wood & Eagly, 2010). Across cultures, men and women behave differently, and this creates

the stereotypes we have about each gender. According to gender stereotypes, men are more agentic – assertive, competitive, and dominant. In comparison, women are more communal – selfless, egalitarian, and emotionally expressive (Witt & Wood, 2010). Agency and communion are the predominant concepts that have emerged from the foundational studies of gender research. When the Implicit Association Test (IAT; Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998) is used to test the association between career and gender, individuals find it easier to associate female names with words such as "friendly', 'caretaker', and 'family' and male names with words such as 'leader', 'provide', and 'business' (Nosek, Banaji, & Greenwald, 2002). The roles we ascribe to each gender reflect the patterns of behaviour and social interactions we expect them to engage in. Beliefs about gender roles are therefore not arbitrary but rather reflect the innate attributes we associate with men and women. They are rooted in society's division of labour, whereby people observe men and women engaging in different roles (Eagly & Wood, 2012). In a society where certain tasks are primarily performed by men and women separately, we observe different types of activities that become attributes and personality traits of each respective gender. Gender roles may be defined as "expectations about what is appropriate for each sex" (Weiten, 1997,) and the expectations of appropriate personality characteristics for each sex (Holt & Ellis, 1998) Bem's (1974) Sex-Role Inventory measures masculine and feminine gender roles as two independent dimensions and is therefore also able to measure androgyny. It is a reliable self-report measure in which participants rate how they see themselves fitting into traditional gender roles. Such gender roles are developed from the observations we make in society and how we see ourselves with respect to stereotypical masculine and feminine traits. Because of their strong concordance with biological sex, traits then become viewed as inevitable, leading to the assumption that there are differences in nature between the genders. However this is a

fundamental error; assuming that people are what they do (Wood & Eagly, 2010). Correspondent bias refers to the cognitive process of inferring traits from observed behaviour. When we see someone behaving in a kind manner, we characterise the actor in terms of being a nice and caring person (Gilbert & Malone, 1995). As a society, we appear to be particularly apt at jumping from observations of a man or a woman and generalising this to the entire gender (Prentice & Miller, 2006). There are many possible ways that this can be observed. Women tend to be occupied in more nurturing or domestic roles, including teaching, nursing, and secretarial work (U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009). In comparison, men maintain occupations that foster assertive and task-oriented behaviours including managerial and business work (Wood & Eagly, 2010). The observation of men in higher status roles and women in lower status roles also contributes to this bias (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). Media portrayals and folklore also perpetuate a gender stereotype that, given repeated observation, becomes effortlessly merged with gender (Wood & Eagly, 2010).

2.1.3 <u>Identification:</u>

Gender roles not only influence people's self-concepts but they can become gender identities that people ascribe to (Wood & Eagly, 2010). Stereotypes begin to act as self-fulfilling prophecies (Eagly & Wood, 2012). Men and women begin to accept or internalize aspects of gender roles that provide a standard with which to regulate behaviour (Wood, Christensen, Hebl, & Rothgerber, 1997). There are two possible motivations for internalizing gender roles: self-regulatory and socially regulated. Conformity to gender roles can be a self-regulatory process where, for example, men who are more likely to hold masculine self-concepts may seek opportunities for leadership. In contrast, women's self-concepts based on

nurturance and compassion may lead them to behave in a more communal fashion (Wood, Christensen, Hebl & Rothgerber, 1997)

An individual's self-driven maintenance of an appropriate gender identity results in more positive feelings and an increase in self-esteem (Witt & Wood, 2010). People who feel that their gendered behaviour does not match their gender identity may feel negatively and aim to bring their behaviour in line with the desired standard (Wood & Eagly, 2010). Enhanced attention to the relevant standards and recall of information allows an individual to work on their gender schema (Bem, 1981). Taken together, the self-regulation of gendered behaviour allows an individual to pay attention to appropriate gender schemas and maintain self-imposed gender identities.

2.1.4 Norms and associated stereotypes:

There are external reasons as to why men and women conform to gender roles. Conformity to gender roles is commonly rewarded because it validates shared beliefs about gender and allows for easier social interaction (Wood & Eagly, 2010). Individuals who do not conform to gender identities tend to be treated harshly and penalised. Social consensus therefore creates a pressure to comply with social rules (Crandall & Stangor, 2005). Evidence for gender conformity is found in multiple domains. Girls report being less liked if they do not fit a feminine stereotype. (Kessels, 2005). Females are discriminated against in a feminised job setting because they are not seen as being sufficiently nice (Rudman & Glick, 2001), and gay men are viewed as violating gender norms surrounding a masculine male concept (Whitley, 2001).

The requirement of an explicit statement of gender norms is not needed as subtle cues can result in changes in behaviour. Research has found that mimicry, in the context of

affiliation, leads both men and women to conform to their respective gender stereotypes (Leander, Chartrand, & Wood, 2011). Participants who were mimicked increased their desire to associate with their partner, and so they conformed more to their gender stereotypes. This demonstrates that stereotypes can be perpetuated and accepted in a subtle manner.

The different behaviours and performances of men and women are affected by such stereotypes. For example, gender identification can moderate the stereotype threat effects research that has been found in men and women. Negative stereotypes about women and their abilities in STEM fields (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Maths) show a decrease in women's performance on maths tests (Spencer, Steele, & Quinn, 1999). In addition, individual differences in gender identification aggravate this effect: When gender identities were tied to test performance, women with higher levels of gender identification performed worse than lower identified women and men on a maths tests. When there was no link between gender identity and performance, men and women showed no difference on a maths test.

In the case of men being able to understand nonverbal cues or being a good communicator is considered a feminine stereotype. Men perform significantly worse than women when the performance of men on a social sensitivity test is deemed to be a test of their social skills (Koenig & Eagly, 2005). Men perform as well as women when there is no threat to their gender identity and the test is framed as a complex information processing test. This evidence demonstrates that gender roles not only proscribe the behaviours men and women should engage in but that gender identities then become central to both genders. Self-worth is tied either into a conformity to gender roles (Eagly & Chrvala, 1986) or the ability to overcome them (Crocker, Karpinski, Quinn, & Chase, 2003).

2.1.5 <u>Work-Family Balance:</u>

The absence of work-family conflict and the presence of work family facilitation is known as work family balance (Frone, 2003). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), described work-family conflict as an imbalance between the pressures of work and family duties (Frone, 2003).There are two dimensions to the aforementioned issue: a work-to-family conflict and a family-to-work conflict (Frone, 2003). Work-family facilitation is explained as family life or work becoming easier and enriched because of work or family (Frone, 2003).

Moreover, what constitutes work-family balance might be "a range of different distributions of attention, commitments, or outcomes that may differ from one person to another in accordance with individual preferences" (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). Such a definition is consistent with a person-environment fit. Balance seen from this perspective indicates that depending on what is prioritized by the individual in question, the overall attention given to work and family roles would give different results (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). Yet, further exploration might still be needed due to the limitations in the notion itself (Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003).

Duxbury, Higgans, Lee, and Lero's study (as cited by Gialanze & Giovanni in *International Journal of Gender and Women's Studies*, 2016)report that "not only are women now more likely to work outside the home, but it is now more common for men to fulfil more responsibilities within the home" (Mcelwain, Korabik, & Rosin, 2005). Even though changes in attitudes are reported towards more egalitarianism, "there remains an unequal household division of labour, often supported by men's and women's gendered beliefs about appropriate work and family roles" (Keene & Quadagno, 2004).

Bielby as well as Loscocco and Leicht's study (as cited by Gialanze & Giovanni in *International Journal of Gender and Women's Studies*, 2016) use the gender-similarity model to predict that "the convergence in men's and women's work and family demands should lead to a convergence in attitudes toward work and family responsibilities and feelings of work-family balance" (Keene & Quadagno, 2004). Contrary to this view, Ferree, Bielby and Bielby and Pleck's study (as cited by Gialanze & Giovanni in *International Journal of Gender and Women's Studies*, 2016) use the gender-difference model which focuses on the normative belief that men and women are different, picturing men as having the responsibility of a paid job and women taking care of the family (Keene & Quadagno, 2004). Overall, the latter has been more widely supported

There is an emergence of differences in gender preferences in the domains of work and family (Thornthwaite, 2002). In seeking a better balance between work and family, both males and females strongly express their predilection towards reduced hours of work (Thornthwaite, 2002). Interestingly though, unlike women, men seek shorter hours of work not because of the issue of parenthood or to allocate more time for familial responsibilities, "but rather to the desire of men to have more time for themselves and their own activities" (Thornthwaite, 2002). However, there were males who reasoned in a similar way to women in that they wanted to find more time to spend with their children (Thornthwaite, 2002).

According to the European Foundation (2000) it has been found that most working men would like to have female partners who work on a part-time basis, while only a small percentage of employed males desired that their female partners remain at home (Thornthwaite, 2002). "Women, more than men, prefer a part-time job with the reasons being: values associated with children's upbringing, having a partner who is actively employed, and having financial security" (Thornthwaite, 2002). Latta and O'Conghaille's

study (as cited by Gialanze & Giovanni in *International Journal of Gender and Women's Studies*, 2016) explain the negative perception that men have in regard to working part time jobs. Moreover, there are "financial restrictions, societal and cultural preconceptions of women's and men's roles, and differences in family support structures" (Thornthwaite, 2002).

Men appear to prefer paid work since they have been taught that they are not worthy enough to help with housework, whereas paid jobs gives them a sense of emotional fulfilment (Thornthwaite, 2002). Literature also looks at how genders perceive family life. Although changes in attitudes towards the commitment of gender equality are reported, studies reveal that "they also seem not to be practicing this equality in areas such as division of household labour" (Apparala, 1999). Moreover, the studying of the husbands' attitudes toward their involvement in household activities is far less researched, with the studies available showing inconsistencies (Apparala, 1999). In regards to the gender division of household tasks there are many theories. According to the gender perspective theory, the women's responsibility in familial concerns is due to this being considered the norm, which results in greater work-family conflict for women (Beek & Bloemberg, 2011). The social-role theory in Lam and Haddad's study (as cited by Gialanze & Giovanni in *International Journal of Gender and Women's Studies*, 2016) states that, "men's perceptions of what is suitable in terms of behaviour for men and women would define their contributions to family work" (Apparala, 1999). In fact, Feerre's study (as cited by Gialanze & Giovanni in *International Journal of Gender and Women's Studies*, 2016) reports that the work at home is still divided on the basis of gender (Apparala, 1999).

Cooking and cleaning are more time-bound compared to the tasks done by men, for example, house repair-work, which can be delayed. It has been seen that women usually

multitask more than men and are often responsible for most child-rearing responsibilities (Beek & Bloemberg, 2011). In a study conducted by White (as cited by Gialanze & Giovanni in *International Journal of Gender and Women's Studies*, 2016) argued that, "the fact that most mothers still carry the lion's share of the workload for child care and domestic chores, suggest that females are balancing a qualitatively and quantitatively different set of demands than males" (Graf, 2007).

2.1.6 <u>Occupation:</u>

Gender based prejudice is rampant in India, owing to the deep rooted ideas of patriarchy in Indian society (Raju, 2014). Work done by women mostly is disregarded as important; during census, the government did not consider women employees as the number of economically active persons in India for many years (Raju, 2014). Employment inequality is a serious issue as many women face greater difficulty securing employment and promotions with their male counterparts are offered better employment opportunities and pay (Jha and Nagar, 2015), which may be because of the bias against the feminine gender. In Netherlands, a study conducted by Friederike Mengel, Jan Sauermann and Ulf Zölitz (2017) revealed that although the study hours and grades of the 19,952 students involved in the study remained unchanged, the female professors were rated much lower in their teaching evaluations than their male colleagues. Moreover, male students rated the women professors 21% of standard deviation lower, while the women rated the same professors 8% of standard deviation lower. Research done by MacNell, Driscoll and Hunt (2015) confirm this finding.

Boring (2017) found that students tend to evaluate professors on gender stereotypical evaluation patterns. Male instructors were evaluated based on non-time consuming aspects,

like leadership skills, and female instructors on time consuming aspects like time spent on the preparation of the lesson.

Wong and Penner (2016) discovered that attractive individuals earn 20% more income than people who are considered averagely attractive. This gap is reduced through adequate grooming, suggesting that increasing physical attractiveness through grooming can increase one's income, leading women to opt for a more conventionally attractive and groomed look. However, this may lead to further discrimination. Women who were more feminine in their physical appearance, for example, with longer hair and makeup, were less likely to be deemed as scientists working on STEM research and more likely assumed to work as special educators by participants in a study conducted by Banchefsky, Westfall, Park and Judd (2016). This suggests that feminine women are considered less suited to scientific professions.

2.1.7 <u>Education:</u>

Beliefs like the kind mentioned above seem to take root early in life. It was discovered by Bian, Cimpian and Leslie (2017) that among 6 year old children, women were less likely to be considered "really, really smart" than men. This discourages children from pursuing activities and careers that require academic brilliance, like philosophy and physics, leading to underrepresentation of women in these fields, hence leading to this ideal held by people, of women not being as "smart" as men.

2.1.8 <u>Gender Discrimination:</u>

However, when heterosexual and homosexual men and women were asked to rate 45 heterosexual and homosexual men and women, the more feminine women were viewed as

more attractive by all participants, while masculinity was not a factor in determining men's attractiveness. (Rieger, Gygax, Linsenmeier, Knogl, Moskowitz & Bailey, 2009).

This kind of benevolent sexism is reflected in prison sentences also. Women are judged more favourably than men in their criminal behaviour and more lenient sentences are meted to attractive women (Ahola, Christianson and Hellström, 2009).

Apart from the feminine gender, challenges are also faced by non-binary gender, who do not conform to either of the masculine and feminine genders, and the transgender people. In Davidson's study (2016), results suggest that being non binary and transgender affect their employment opportunities negatively. It revealed transgender women as having worse experiences in the employment sector than transgender men and non-binary transgender people.

2.2 <u>CLOTHES: FORMAL AND INFORMAL.</u>

Understanding how clothing plays a role in person perception has been a recent focus of psychological research, and can have implications for various social situations involving impression formation. (Guy & Banim, 2000). "Along with all other nonverbal signals, clothing as probably the most prominent source of nonverbal communication transmits messages which are important aspects of communication" (Brown, 2007). "Clothing is considered a nonverbal source of communication in itself, which makes it an important aspect for communication analysis. It provides a plethora of information about a wearer without having to meet or talk to that person" (Howlett, Pine,Orakcioglu & Fletcher, 2013), making it a very impressionable tool. "Three constant themes stand out in clothing research: (1) Individuals form impressions of others based on clothing cues, (2) Observers behave differently toward people depending on the clothing they wear and (3) Individuals appear to

prefer clothing which communicates images similar to the images they have of themselves." (Feinberg, Mataro & Burroughs, 1992). Nielsen and Kernaleguen (1976) refer to clothing as a part of appearance that provides data for perceptions. Generally, clothing is frequently seen as diverse in nature. What you choose to wear may communicate a complex array of information about who you are to others around you (Howlett, Pine, Orakcioglu & Fletcher, 2013), even when you may or may not be trying to communicate with them. A lot of messages and meaning can be communicated through clothing (Dorrance, 2011).

Recent literature has begun to show how important clothing can be in perceptions of others in terms of workplace perceptions and personality. Morris, Gorham, Cohen, and Huffman (1996) showed that teaching assistants who were placed in three different clothing sets were perceived differently on measures of competence and sociability by the students, indicating that clothing can alter person perception. In this study, targets who were in less formal clothing sets were perceived as less competent but were more likely to be viewed as social whereas those who were dressed in more formal wear were thought of as more intelligent and competent but were not seen to be as interesting as those in the less formal conditions. In addition to clothing, gender has also been found to play a role in person perception in the workplace. For example, Morris, Graham, Cohen and Huffman (1996) found that women who wore formal clothing were not rated as significantly more competent than those in the semi-formal condition, but there was a clear distinction between the male groups under the same circumstances. That is, males were rated as significantly more competent as the degree of formal wear increased in each condition, without any kind of ceiling effect as was seen in the women's data; women were only seen as increasing in competence up to the semi-formal condition, but not beyond that. This shows that the effect

that clothing has on perceptions differs greatly between men and women. (Morris, Gorham, Cohen, & Huffman, 1996).

In line with previous research, findings suggest an association between more formal attire and perceived competence in the job role (Barrett & Booth, 1994; Gherardi, Cameron, West & Crossley, 2009). Competence, confidence, and credibility are judged in the first 12 seconds of an interaction, which is, at least in part, influenced by the clothes one is adorning (Bixler & Scherrer Dugan, 2000).

Casual attire was the least confidence inspiring because of its unkempt appearance. Other studies have shown a preference for formal dress (e.g., suit and tie for male physicians; blouse and skirt/tailored trousers for female physicians with minimum make-up and jewelry) rather than casual attire (e.g., jeans, t-shirt) (Gjerdingen, Simpson, & Titus 1987; Gonzalez Del Rey & Paul, 1995; McKinstry & Wang, 1991; Swift, Zachariah, & Casy, 2000). Less formal attire conveys compassion, friendliness, and approachability in the physician (Gledhill, Warner, & King, 1997), but also incompetence and a failure to inspire patient confidence (Gherardi, 2009). In a study aimed to identify how person perception and social identity impact first impressions made by clothing, while looking at the differences between the professional and casual styles, "the professional model was rated as more confident, successful and intelligent than the casual model". (Angerosa, 2014). "Professional attire is likely considered a more proper form of dress, while the casual style of jeans and t-shirt is a rather plain choice of attire that doesn't say too much about the person wearing it. However, the casual model was seen as friendlier and more likely to lead an exciting life" (Angerosa, 2014). "Analyzing the professional style, when the model was in the professional style she was seen as more hardworking, intelligent, trustworthy and successful. Overall, the model dressed in the professional style was seen as less friendly and less likely to lead an exciting

life than both the casual and trendy models. This can be due to the fact that professional wear is sometimes perceived as more serious" (Angerosa, 2014).

"Comparing the responses from the males and the females of the professional model, we found that the responses were not significantly different from one another and that both genders were actually rather similar in their responses. Reid, Lancuba and Morrow (1997) found that females rated other females in professional wear higher than men did. Next we looked at the male and female responses to the casual model. Although there appeared to be a slight difference in the way both genders rated the model as the females rated this model higher than the males did, no significant difference was found. Although there was not much of a significant difference in responses, females tended to have higher ratings which goes along with Hamid (1969) and Reid, Lancuba and Morrow's (1997) finding that women tend to rate less harshly than men." (Angerosa, 2014).

2.3 <u>COSMETICS: WITH MAKEUP AND WITH NO MAKEUP.</u>

As women tend to grow up, transformations keep occurring within their lifestyle. Due to the concept of traditional gender roles, women are expected to be concerned about their own appearances (Drakuli, 1993, 1996). Most women, place importance on being evaluated positively. Many techniques can be used to enhance the aesthetics of one's appearance. Wearing cosmetics can be considered as one of the many different ways for enhancing one's appearance. Faces are often very important when interacting with others because an impression is often formed and based on facial features (Tuk, Verlegh, Smidts & Wigboldus, 2008). Moreover, facial characteristics tend to influence human judgments owing to whether they are attractive or not (Fink & Neave, 2005). Hence, wearing cosmetics as a substance to improve and alter the appearance quickly and temporarily, can be an important strategy.

As the luminance differences increase, the judgement of facial attractiveness of a female increases. Furthermore, such an effect can be created as well as altered by the use of cosmetics, i.e. darkening the eyes, by contouring the face, by highlighting the high points of one's face and so on. Full and well-defined lips are considered as healthier and more attractive. Mulhern, Fieldman, Hussey, Leveque and Pineau (2003) suggested that cosmetics can be used in different ways, implying that different levels of makeup can be done to manipulate the facial characteristics, thereby becoming a useful tool to enhance one's attractiveness. They tried evaluating separate contributions of three vital cosmetic products (including, foundation, eyes makeup and lip makeup). This shows that using different products to create different makeup looks can be an effective way to enhance and highlight one's best facial features.

According to Mulhern, Fieldman, Hussey, Leveque & Pineau (2003) and Winter (2005), using foundation helps to cover blemishes, protects the skin from drying out, giving it a soft, smooth and healthy look. For eye makeup, eyeliner, eyeshadow and mascara are often paired together. Eyeliner gives shape to the eyes and accentuates them. Eye shadow is used to highlight the lid and give it some colour. Mascara is used to lengthen, darken and thicken the eyelashes. The combination of the three can change the appearance of the size of the eyes. As for the lip make-up, lipsticks, lip pencils and gloss help in shaping and colouring the lips.

It may be apprehended that there would be different types of beauty standards across different cultures, due to different and varied conventions. However, Fink & Neave (2005) showed that judging and rating the attractiveness of females among different racial groups did not appear to be too different. Indicating that, raters were able to agree as to who, or who is not attractive between and within cultures.

Robertson, Fieldman and Hussey (2008) claim that wearing cosmetics seems to be like a psycho-physical mask, which helps in manipulating facial features, so as to present a more positive impression to others. Thus, it is supported that cosmetics usage can help enhance attractiveness of oneself as a better self-presentation. According to Graham and Jouhar (1981), both females and males rated the female targets with facial make-up as people who were cleaner, tidier, more feminine, more physically attractive, more secure, sociable, interesting, confident, organized and popular. Cox and Glick (1986) discovered that increased usage of makeup positively correlates with the perceptions of attractiveness, femininity, and sexiness but negatively or does not correlate with likeability, morality, emotionality, and decisiveness. Moreover, increased cosmetic usage negatively correlates with women's ability in women-dominated jobs and either negatively or does not correlate with women's ability in non-gendered jobs.

Patzer (1985) proposed that attractive individuals are perceived as more successful in both work and school setting and are considered to be happier, and as ones having higher salaries than the less attractive individuals. This suggests that individuals can use cosmetics to increase their attractiveness, which in turn is likely to positively affect other dimensions of their lives.

A study conducted by sociologists, Nicolas Gueguen and Celine Jacob in 2012, at the Universite de Bretagne-Sud in France, says that on average, those waitresses who wear red lipstick received tips 50% of the time from male customers. The tips were larger than those waitresses who wore other colours of lipstick or no lipstick; those groups were tipped only 30% of the time, the study adds.

However, red lipstick had no impact on the tipping behaviour of female customers, at all. It is assumed that the rise in tips made by male customers could be attributed to red lips being "associated with an indication of estrogen levels, sexual arousal and health." Sociologists believe that the study's results had practical implications for female employees by indicating the use of a specific lipstick colour.

In a study conducted by Dr. Alex Jones (2016), to understand what causes women to rank other women wearing makeup as more dominant, it was found that women are more likely to feel jealous of others wearing makeup. "I wouldn't say that they look threatening as in physically intimidating, but it's more of a social dominance," explained Dr. Jones. "So women wearing makeup might seem more intimidating in terms of the things they could achieve and that they might be better than you or invoke jealousy."

Although, increased use of cosmetics can have detrimental effects on the perception of a woman's prowess in the workplace. Kyle and Mahler (1996) conducted research to determine if cosmetic usage and women's hair colour affected people's perception of their credentials and abilities in a professional setting. According to their findings, female applicants who wore more or glamorous makeup were considered to be less capable than female applicants wearing little or no makeup. Further, females wearing no makeup were assigned a higher starting salary than those wearing light to moderate amounts of makeup, indicating that the key here lies in the intensity of the look that one wants to carry off, rather than the mere usage of the cosmetic products.

This area is in the want of recent researches that focus primarily upon the use of cosmetics and the stereotypes associated with its use. Hence, the present research aims at

focussing upon this dimension in context to stereotypes and prejudices held by individuals in the Indian context.

2.4 <u>HAIR LENGTH: SHORT AND LONG.</u>

Rose Weitz describes hair as "part of a broader language of appearance, which, whether or not we intend it, tells others about ourselves" (Weitz, 2004). Head hair is considered similar to dressing style as it can be modified, styled and given meaning with ease. Women use their hair to establish a group identity and also to express their personal identity to others (Manning, 2010).

Brebner, Martin, & Macrae (2009) found that hairstyle is most often used as a facial cue for gender stereotyping, that is, categorising people according to gender. As a result, there are many stereotypes that exist based on hair, especially hair length. For instance, women with shorter hair are more likely to be perceived as "masculine" whereas women with longer hair are more likely to be perceived as "feminine" (Manning, 2010). This stereotype seems to be a cross-cultural stereotype or an archetype (Bereczkei & Meskó, 2006).

In a study conducted by Eyssel and Hegel (2012) in Germany it was found that gender stereotypes affect the social perception of not only humans but also of robots. The short-haired robot was perceived as more masculine than the long-haired robot. Moreover, the short-haired masculine robot was perceived to be more "agentic" whereas the long-haired feminine robot was perceived to be more "communal." In the dimension of agency were traits like authoritative, assertive, determined, aggressive, cold, organized, confident, hard-hearted, dominant, tough and in the dimension of communion were traits like affectionate, empathetic, delicate, friendly, sincere, family-oriented, sensitive, cooperative, affable, polite, and sentimental. The male robot was also considered more suitable for typically male tasks while

the female robot was considered more suitable for typically female tasks. Typical male tasks included transporting goods, repairing technical equipment, guarding a house, steering machines, handcrafting, servicing equipment while typical female tasks included child care, household maintenance, after-school tutoring, patient care, preparing meals, elderly care.

Women's hair can also act as a cue of reproductive potential and may be used by women to indicate to potential mates that they possess desirable characteristics. Hinsz, Matz, & Patience (2001) found that single women without children (high reproductive status) had significantly longer and better quality hair compared to married women of child-bearing age (high relationship status), who had significantly shorter and poorer quality hair. Thus, women might keep their hair long in order to attract mates (Hinsz, Matz, & Patience, 2001).

It has been found that long hairstyles improve the attractiveness ratings as well as the perceived femininity of women. This may be because long hair frames the face in such a way that it reduces the size of the jaw and hides the low, less pronounced cheeks which are considered unfavourable in ratings of feminine attractiveness. Therefore, long hair may make women appear more attractive by hiding their "disadvantageous facial traits" (Meskó & Bereczkei, 2004). Long hair is also more likely to be associated with mature qualities like femininity, intelligence, dominance and health whereas short hair is related to personality traits like honesty, caring and emotionality (Bereczkei & Meskó, 2006).

Very little research has been done regarding women's hair length and the stereotypes associated with it. However since hair serves as a cue for gender stereotyping, the present research has focussed on the relationship between hair, in particular hair length, and the attitudes towards women.

After completion of the relevant literature survey in the next chapter, the methodological

details adopted for the present study will be discussed.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.0 After delineating the objectives of the present study, along with the related literature survey, in the earlier chapters (I and II), it is necessary to study in depth the methodological details of the present study which aims to see the relationship of the different factors with attitude towards women.

Gender roles are based on the different expectations that individuals, groups, and societies have based on their sex and on each society's values and beliefs about gender. They are the product of the interactions between individuals and their environments, and they give individuals cues about what kind of behaviour is believed to be appropriate for which sex. Appropriate gender roles are defined according to a society's beliefs about differences between the sexes.

One of the first social scientists to distinguish the concept of gender from the concept of sex was Ann Oakley (1972). According to her, "gender parallels the biological division of sex into male and female, but it involves the division and social valuation of masculinity and femininity." In other words, gender is a concept created by humans socially,

through their interactions with one another and it relies heavily upon biological differences between males and females. Since the concept of gender has been created socially, gender is referred to as a social construction. The social construction of gender is demonstrated by the fact that individuals, groups, and societies ascribe particular traits, statuses, or values to individuals purely because of their sex but there are differences across societies and cultures, and over time within the same society.

Research in the area of attitude towards women continues and measuring such attitude goes back many decades. In the 1980s, researchers talked about the generational differences (Slevin & Wingrove ,1983; Wingrove & Slevin, 1982), personality correlates (Loo & Logan, 1982), occupational preferences (Haworth, Povey, & Clift, 1986), women at work (Madill, Brintnell, Macnab, Stewin, & Fitzsimmons, 1988), and gender relationships (Smith, Resick, & Kilpatrick, 1980). Slevin and Wingrove (1983) found out the "similarities and differences among three generations of women in attitudes toward the female role in contemporary society", using the abbreviated 25-item Attitude towards Women Scale . It was seen that the younger generation, 103 college undergraduates, were more liberal than the two older generations. The college undergraduates and their mothers displayed similar views about women and employment. However, due to changes in society, particularly the influence of the Women's Liberation movement, the younger generation were able to point out the difficulties with their fathers regarding "marital relationships and obligations and vocational, educational, and intellectual roles" (Slevin & Wingrove, 1983).

3.1 The variables selected in the study have been operationally defined as :

- CLOTHES: Formal and Casual.

Clothes may be categorized as formal or informal (casual). Women certainly have more choices when it comes to formal dressing. In India, Saree comprises of formal attire for women at the workplace and can make any woman look elegant, regardless of her physical appearance. (Verma, 2013). The casual category represents clothes designed for relaxed, unceremonious public outings, events and sports as well as domestic situations. Casual clothes include daytime apparel such as shirts, plaid shirts, polo shirts, sweatshirts, jeans and shorts. Denim skirts, blue jeans, windbreakers, capri and cargo are current typical casual styles. (Boswell, 2007).

For the present study, two conditions were chosen, Formal and Casual clothes. For Formal clothes condition, Sari was chosen. For the condition with casual clothes, Jeans and T- Shirt were chosen.

- COSMETICS: With Makeup and with No Makeup.

It is a common notion that wearing cosmetics is an effective and efficient way to alter facial characteristics. It helps enhancing the facial attractiveness in order to enable one to make a desired impression upon others (Wax, 1957).

Cosmetics actually are the substances that are used to enhance the beauty of the human body. The U.S. Food and Drug Administration (2009), Food, Drug and Cosmetic Act defines cosmetics as the products (except soap) which are intended to be applied on the external part of human body for cleansing, beautifying, promoting attractiveness or altering the features (such as skin, lips, eyes, nails and hair) and appearance. The function of using cosmetics is understandable as it tends to play a vital part with respect to the standards of beauty in the contemporary societies.

For the present study, two conditions were chosen, with makeup and with no makeup. The first condition included makeup applied to the eyes, cheeks and lips. For the condition with no makeup, only moisturizer was applied on the face. (Guèguen, 2008)

- HAIR LENGTH: Short and Long Hair.

Rose Weitz describes hair as "part of a broader language of appearance, which, whether or not we intend it, tells others about ourselves" (Weitz, 2004) Women generally have longer head hair than men. They also spend much more time and money than men for styling and maintaining their hair. There are many stereotypes about women based on their hair (Manning, 2010).

For the present study, two lengths of hair were chosen: long and short. They have been operationally defined by Ingrid Banks in her book, "Hair Matters: Beauty, Power, and Black Women's Consciousness." She however has used "hairstyle" to refer to length of hair. Short hair has been defined as hair that has been "cut close to head", hair that reaches "above neck" or hair that reaches the "upper neck." Long hair has been defined as hair that reaches "past shoulders" (Banks, 2000).

3.2 METHOD

3.2.1 Sample:

For the purpose of the study the sample consisted of one group of the age range: 18-25 years, which was subdivided into two groups, with a total number (N) of 30 subjects in each group (30 males and 30 females). The socio economic range of selected group was middle class (family's monthly income Rs 20,000 to Rs 40,000 approximately) and upper middle class (family's monthly income is more than Rs 40,000).

The two sub-groups were matched on the basis of age, sex, socioeconomic status and medium of education. Purposive random sampling along with the Snowball Technique

was used as the sampling method. The subjects are selected on the basis of the following criteria:

INCLUSION CRITERIA FOR THE SELECTION OF SUBJECTS:

1. Age Range: 18-25 years divided into two groups as mentioned above.

2. Nationality: Indian

3. Educational Qualification: Undergraduate and Graduate

4. Medium of education – English.

5. Socio Economic Status: Middle Class and Upper Middle Class

6. Marital Status: Unmarried

EXCLUSION CRITERIA FOR THE SELECTION OF SUBJECTS:

1. Subjects falling in the age range below 18 and above 25.

2. Subjects who are not Indians.

3. Subjects belonging to low socio economic classes.

4. Subjects who are non-graduates.

5. Subjects having any language other than English as medium of education.

6. Subjects who are married.

3.2.2 Research Hypotheses:

1. There will be a significant difference between men and women with respect to attitude towards women.

2. There will be a significant difference between men and women with respect to the perception of hair length.

3. There will be a significant difference between men and women with respect to the perception of cosmetics.

4. To determine the significant difference between men and women with respect to the perception of clothes.

5. There will be a significant difference between the attitudes of men and women in the social life domain.

6. There will be a significant difference between the attitudes of men and women in the familial domain.

7. There will be a significant difference between the attitudes of men and women in the employability domain.

8. There will be a significant relationship of attitudes towards women with hair length, cosmetics and clothes.

3.2.3 Tools Used:

A brief description of the tools used for the present research has been listed below:

3.2.3.1. CONSENT FORM

A Consent form was presented to each subject before answering the questionnaire which comprised of the information that -

1. Their participation is voluntary and that they are free to withdraw at any given point of time.

2. The responses will be kept strictly confidential.

3. The data collected by them will be used in future research.

4. Agreement to take part voluntarily in the above research project.

3.2.3.2 INFORMATION SCHEDULE

The information schedule used for the present research comprised of the following items to find out the preliminary details of the subjects and whether they met the selection criteria mentioned above for qualitative analysis :

Name, Age, Sex, Educational Qualification, Socioeconomic status, Number of Working Family Members, Occupation along with three statements to be ranked for qualitative analysis – How is household work distributed among family members?, Name some suitable jobs for females, Name some suitable jobs for males.

3.2.3.3 ATTITUDE TOWARDS WOMEN SCALE (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp,1973).

Description:

The instrument which has been labelled the Attitude Towards Women Scale (AWS), consists of 25 items, each of which has four response alternatives, ranging from agree strongly to disagree strongly.

Scoring:

Each of the items is given a score from 0 to 3, with 0 representing the most traditional and 3 the most contemporary, pro-feminist response. (Spence, Helmlreich and

Stapp, 1973). In scoring the items, option A was given a score of 0, option B a score of 1, option C a score of 2 and option D a score of 3; except for certain items where the scale was reversed. A high score indicates a pro-feminist, egalitarian attitude while a low score indicates a traditional and conservative attitude. Correlation coefficients between the original 55-item AWS and the 25-item AWS were found to be no lower than 0.956 for either of the samples. (Gamst, Liang & Der-Karabetian, 2011).

History:

A 25-item shorter form of the same test was developed. For each of the original 55 AWS statements, an item analysis was performed on the data from 241 female and 286 male students in Introductory Psychology at the University of Texas, who were tested during 1971-72 academic year. The 25 items which, by inspection had distributions which maximally discriminated among quartile for both sexes, and which had the highest biserial correlations were selected for the short version. (Spence, Helmlreich and Stapp, 1973).

The scale was factor analyzed using the SPSS (Nie, Bent and Hull, 1970) principal axis routine. The scale proved to be essentially unifactorial, with the first unrotated factor accounting for 67.7% of the variance for females and 69.2% of the variance for males.

(Spence, Helmlreich and Stapp, 1973).

Reliability:

This study investigated the reliability of the 55-item, 25-item, and 15-item, Attitudes Toward Women Scales. A sample of 43 female college students, their mothers, and their grandmothers was used in Study 1. Five hundred eleven male and female college students were tested for Study 2. Cronbach alpha and Spearman-Brown split-half reliabilities were assessed for the 55, 25, and 15 scales in Study 1, and three-week test-retest, alpha and split-half reliabilities for the 15-item scales were determined in Study 2. In Study 1, the obtained alpha and split-half reliabilities for the 55-item scale were .92 and .93, respectively. For the 25-item scale, they were .89 and .86, respectively. For the 15-item scale, they were .85 and .86, respectively. In Study 2, the pretest alpha, pretest split-half, and test-retest reliabilities for the 15-item scale were .81, .83, and .86, respectively. (Daugherty and Dambrot, 1986).

3.2.3.4 SCALE DEVELOPED BY RESEARCH INVESTIGATORS :

Another scale was developed by the investigators, where for each level of Formal-Informal, Makeup-No Makeup and Short Hair - Longhair, five photographs were taken. photographs were then presented to raters who are experts in their fields who chose one photograph from the five displayed. Two photographs were chosen for each variable, one for each level were chosen. For each of the domains of Social, Familial and Employability, three positive and three negative statements were constructed and these were shown to the raters along with the photographs and one out of the three positive and one of the three negative statements were chosen by them. Hence, finally two statements were chosen from each domain.

The scoring pattern was 4, 3, 2, 1, 0 for positive statements, and 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 for negative statements.

3.2.4 Procedure

To conduct the present study, female volunteers were contacted who were within the age group of 18 to 25 years old. They were informed about the purpose and course of the study and about the use of their photographs as well as given consent forms which declared that their photographs will be destroyed after the study and that they will not be shared with any third party or for commercial purposes. The variables selected for the study were clothing, make-up and hair length. Each variable had two levels, formal and informal clothing, without make-up and with make-up, and short hair and long hair. For each level of the variables, five photographs were taken. There were a total of 30 photographs that were taken. These photographs were then presented to three raters who are experts in the field of psychology who chose one photograph from the five displayed. Finally, six out of the thirty photographs were selected.

The Attitude Towards Women Scale was taken as a reference scale and 3 domains were selected from the scale by grouping of the 25 items under broad aspects of familial, professional and social life. Following this, for each of the three domains, three positive and three negative statements were constructed and these were shown to the three raters along with the photographs and one out of the three positive and one of the three negative statements, for the familial, professional and social domains, were chosen by them. Hence, finally six statements were selected.

For conducting the study, consent was taken from 30 male and 30 female subjects that fit the inclusion criteria. Before data collection, the researchers introduced themselves and briefly described the purpose of the research. They were asked to sign the consent forms and were assured that the information given by them will be kept strictly confidential and will

only be used for research purposes. After the information schedule was filled, the 25 item AWS questionnaire was administered. After this, the six photographs of the women for all the six variables of informal and formal dressing, with no make-up and with make-up, and with short hair and long hair, were shown to the subjects for four seconds and then they were asked to rate the statements provided on a five point Likert scale on the basis of their perception of the women in the photographs. Instructions were given clearly and repeated multiple times, when required. The scales were answered in this way by the 30 subjects and then statistical analysis was conducted.

3.2.5 Precautions

1.   All the respondents were asked to sit comfortably. The questionnaire was administered to them in the same sequence. The respondents were assured that it was not a test, there was no right and wrong answers. The research purpose was clearly stated.

2.   Complete confidentiality was assured to participants so that they could answer freely and frankly.

3.   While the selected tools were administered, it was ensured that all the respondents were relaxed and willing to participate. However, they were not forced to give data.

4.   There was no time limit for the questionnaire and they were instructed to finish answering the questions as fast as they could and honestly as well.

5.   During the testing session, if the respondents faced any difficulties, it was clarified by the researcher without any extra cue.

3.2.6 Sampling:

Purposive Random Sampling overlapping with the Snowball technique.

3.2.7 Analyses

3.2.7.1 SCORING, TABULATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSES

Data for the Attitudes toward Women Scale were scored according to the scoring schedule for the questionnaire. The statements prepared by the investigators were also scored using a 5 point Likert Scale with reverse scoring of the negative statements and direct scoring of the positive statements. The scores assigned to the different categories on the Likert Scale were 0, 1, 2, 3 and 4. All the scores were tabulated and statistical analyses were conducted which are presented in the chapter, "Results".

3.2.7.2 METHODS OF ANALYSES

Data was analysed using the methods described below:

A. Descriptive Statistics: Computation of mean, standard deviation (S.D.) and correlation.

B. Inferential Statistic: Computation of "t" test.

3.2.7.3 PLAN OF DATA ANALYSES

Level of Variables	Purpose	Mode of analyses
Bivariate	Descriptive	Mean, Standard Deviation and Correlation
	Testing inter-group	

	difference in the selected variables	t-test

The "Results" of the study will be described in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.0 The data obtained from the subjects of the present study were scored and then they were properly tabulated. On the basis of the distribution of the scores and the objectives of the study, appropriate statistical techniques were utilised to analyse the scores and the results of the quantitative analysis have been presented in this chapter.

To understand the nature of the difference between men and women with respect to their attitude towards women and their perception of the selected variables of cosmetics, clothes and hair length, descriptive and inferential statistics were calculated in the form of Mean, Standard Deviation, and 't' test. The same descriptive and inferential statistics were calculated for the Familial, Social and Employability domains to find a significant difference existed between the men and women for the same.

The objective was to ascertain whether significant gender differences existed among the selected variables, domains and the Attitudes towards women. Correlation was used to determine whether any significant relationship existed between the subjects' Attitude towards Women and the variables of Cosmetics, Hair Length and Clothes. The findings are as follows:-

TABLE 4.1: Means, Standard Deviations and 't'-values obtained by the Men (N=30) and Women (N=30) on the selected variables and Attitude Towards Women

		Men		Women		
		Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-value
Attitude Towards Women		61.2	8.896	65.13	9.168	-1.686
Clothes	Informal	17.33	2.106	16.23	1.888	2.13
	Formal	16.97	2.297	16.6	2.634	0.575
Cosmetics	With No Makeup	13.97	2.93	14.13	2.98	-0.218
	With Makeup	14	3.151	15.8	2.759	-2.354
Hair Length	Short Hair	15.53	3.159	16.23	3.481	-0.816
	Long Hair	15.6	3.756	17	3.948	-1.407

- ❖ Table 4.1 does not show any significant difference between men and women with respect to their Attitude towards Women and the perception of Clothes, Cosmetics and Hair Length.

- ❖ Women scored higher than men on the Attitudes towards Women Scale.

- ❖ Women also scored higher on both the levels of the variables, Cosmetics and Hair Length and thus had a more favourable attitude towards these variables.

- ❖ Men scored higher than women on both the levels of the variable, Clothes and thus had a more favourable attitude towards this variable.

TABLE 4.2: Means, Standard Deviations and 't'- values obtained by the Men (N=30) and Women (N=30) on the Familial, Social and Employability domains

	Men		Women		
DOMAINS	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	t - Values
Social	31.2	5.632	31.0667	5.87181	0.9
Familial	30.1	5.08107	31.1	5.64679	-0.721
Employability	32.3667	3.62447	34.0667	5.33003	-1.445

- ❖ Table 4.2 reveals no significant difference between men and women in the familial, social and employability domains.

- ❖ There was a insignificant difference between men and women in the social domain.

❖ Women scored slightly higher than men in the familial and employability domains and this implies that they had a slightly more favourable attitude towards these domains.

TABLE 4.3: Correlation between Attitudes Towards Women and the selected variables

		Clothes		Cosmetics		Hair Length	
		Informal	Formal	With no makeup	With makeup	Short Hair	Long Hair
	Attitude towards Women	0.108	0.117	0.094	0.097	0.211	0.23
Clothes	Informal	1	.396**	0.159	0.098	0.125	0.21
	Formal	.396**	1	0.03	0.069	.344**	.360**
Cosmetics	With no makeup	0.159	0.03	1	.467**	0.252	0.04
	With makeup	0.098	0.069	.467**	1	.367**	.363**
Hair Length	Short hair	0.125	.344**	0.252	.367**	1	.706**
	Long hair	0.21	.360**	0.04	.363**	.706**	1

$**p<0.01$

❖ Table 4.3 reveals no significant correlation between Attitude towards Women and any of the selected variables.

❖ However, positive correlation was found between Attitude towards Women and the variables: Informal Clothes, Formal Clothes, With no makeup, With makeup, Short Hair and Long Hair.

❖ The variables which were found to have significant positive correlations with one another are as follows:

➔ Informal and Formal Clothes;

➔ Formal Clothes and Short Hair;

➔ Formal Clothes and Long Hair;

➔ With no makeup and With makeup;

➔ With makeup and Short Hair;

➔ With makeup and Long Hair;

➔ Short Hair and Long Hair.

The following chapter, Discussion, aims at explaining these results.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.0 The results obtained in the present study, as described above, are discussed and logically interpreted below.

5.1 Analysis of the scores obtained by the 30 male and 30 female subjects in the Attitude towards Women Scale reveals the mean of the scores obtained by the women to be higher (M=65.13) than the means of the male subjects (M=61.2). Table 4.1 reveals that there is no significant difference between the scores of the male and female subjects, as the t test value was found to be -1.686. Therefore, it is observed that females are more egalitarian than men in their attitude towards women, however, the difference is not significant. This difference is reflected in the study conducted by Henion, Navarette & McDonald (2012) which proposed the "male warrior hypothesis". Men have throughout history have been the perpetrators of war against the out groups. This might indicate the tendency of the male population to be more biased against the out group, which in the present study, is the women. This explains the lower score of the men in the Attitude towards Women Scale. Moreover, women have been proven to be more accepting of outgroups, for example, the lesbian, gay, bisexual and

transgender community (Steffens & Wagner, 2004; Wills & Crawford, 2000; Finlay & Walther, 2003).

Table 4.1 also displays the mean scores of the subjects with regard to their appearance. The men scored a higher average (M=17.33) compared to the average of women (M=16.23) in both the conditions of informal clothing (a pair of jeans and a tee shirt) and formal clothing (sari), where the mean score for men was 16.97 and 16.6 for the women. The women scored higher in variables of cosmetics, with makeup and without makeup (M=14.13 and M=15.8, respectively) compared to men (M=13.97 and M=14, respectively) for the same variable. Archer, Iritani, Kimes & Barrios (1983) analyzed photographs from newspapers and magazines in the United States and discovered that photos of men tended to emphasize their faces and photographs of women gave greater emphasis to their bodies. It revealed that men are more likely to focus their judgement on the bodily features and attire (for example, the kind of clothing) and women are more likely to pass judgements based on the made up appearance like the hair length and cosmetics use on the face. The female subjects also had higher mean scores for longer and shorter hair (M=16.23 and M=17, respectively) than the male subjects (M=15.53 and M=15.6, respectively). This might indicate that the women in the present sample are more likely to be accepting of both extremes of appearance, short and long hair, and the presence and absence of makeup.

Table 4.2 of the results shows that the t-value for the social domain was 0.9, for the familial domain it was -0.721 and for employability domain it was -1.445. These t-values were not statistically significant but women scored slightly higher than men in the familial (M=30.1 for men and M=31.1for women) and employability (M=32.3667 for men and M=34.0667 for women) domains which implies that they had a slightly more favourable attitude about women with respect to both of these domains. However, there was a

insignificant difference between men (M=31.2) and women (M=31.0667) in the social domain. It was found by researchers using "repeated cross-sections of the US population that women's support for gender-specialised marital roles declined from the 1960s through the 1990s" (Brewster & Padavic, 2000; Brooks & Bolzendahl, 2004). Moreover, it was found that women who were more educated were significantly less supportive of gender specialised marital roles than their peers who had completed fewer years of schooling (Cunningham, 2008). Since the present sample included female college students, they may have been less supportive of gender-specialised marital roles thereby having a more favourable attitude towards women in both the familial and the employability domain. They may also have been more supportive of women in both the familial and employability domains since they have a more egalitarian attitude and are more accepting as described previously in this chapter.
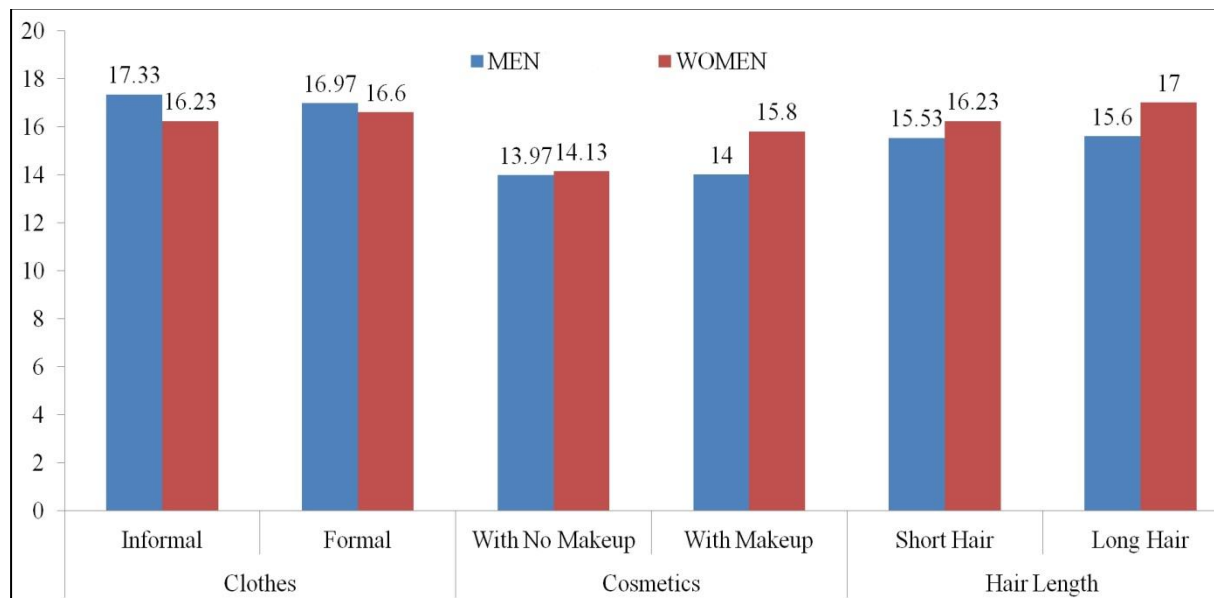

Figure 5.1: Graph showing the Mean obtained by the present sample on the selected variables.
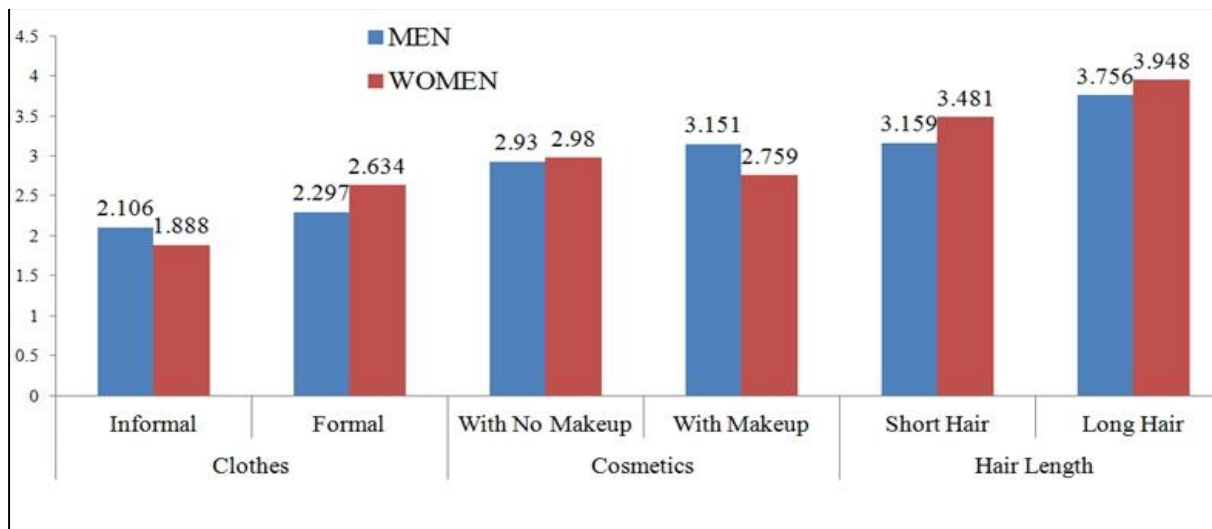
Figure 5.2: Graph showing the Standard Deviation scores obtained by the present sample on the selected variables.
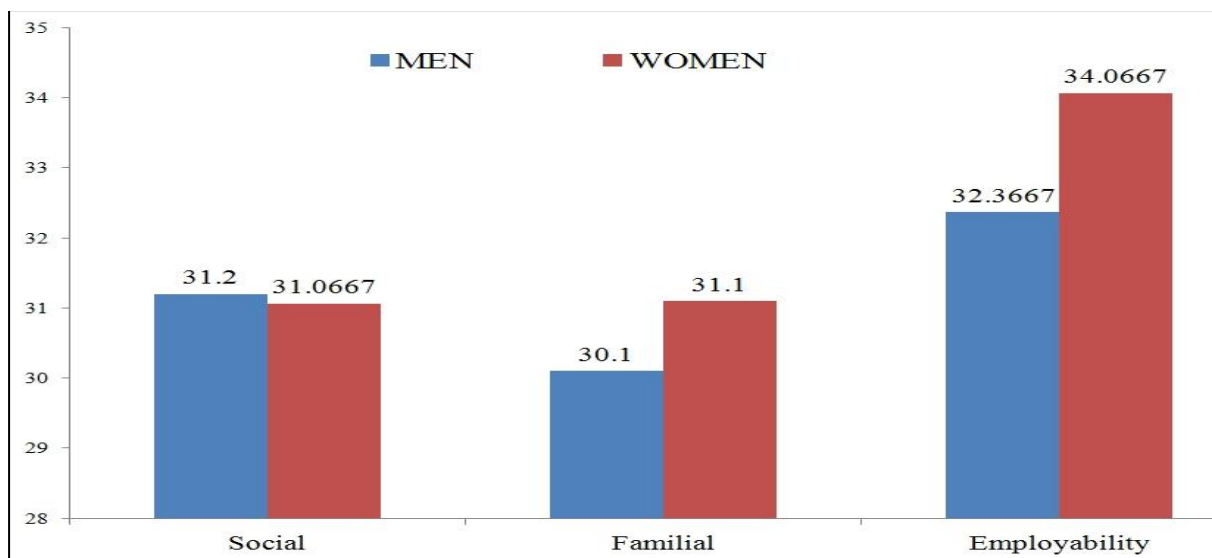

Figure 5.3: Graph representing the Mean obtained by the sample on the selected Domains
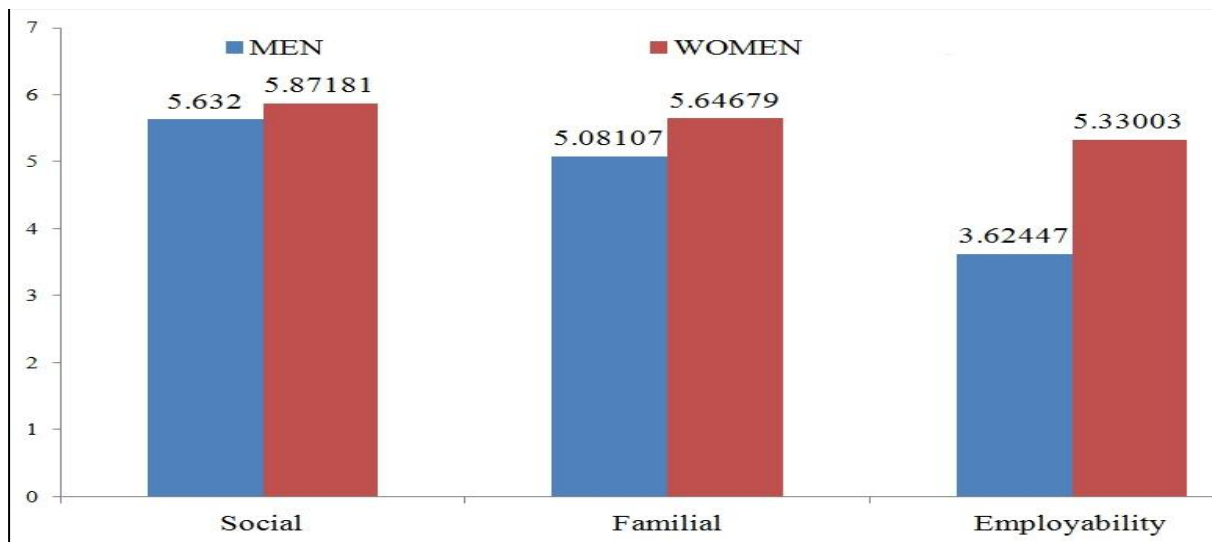
Figure 5.4: Graph representing the Standard Deviation scores obtained by the sample on the selected domains.

5.2 PROFILE OF MEN:

From Table 4.1 and figure 5.1, it can be seen that men scored higher than women for both the dimensions of the variable of Clothing, while women scored higher on the other two variables of Hair length and Cosmetics. The results indicate that men tend to focus less on women's faces when it comes to comprehension of non-verbal cues, while women tend to focus more on the facial beauty and feminine features, thereby scoring higher with respect to the variables of Hair Length and Cosmetics. The focus area of judgement thus differs in case of men and women, which is corroborated by the findings of Archer, Iritani, Kimes & Barrios (1983), who discovered that men seem to emphasize the body and attire during formation of judgements and women, on the other hand, seem to focus more on the facial and hair features. Furthermore, men scored lower on the Attitude Towards Women Scale. Women often tend to pinpoint non-verbal cues more minutely and accurately than men. This has been supported by the findings of Miller and Perlman (2009),who discovered that, women are

more adequately equipped to comprehend non-verbal cues naturally. According to these researchers, women being the more emotionally mature and sensitive, have a higher capacity to accurately pinpoint nonverbal communication.

Table 4.2 and figure 5.3 reveals that men scored lower on the employability domain and the familial domain, with negligible difference in their scores in the social domain. Men thus show a slightly less favourable attitude towards the employability and familial domains than women.

According to Mansfield (2006), "Men who exhibit the traits of traditional masculinity are considered to possess hegemonic masculinity. In order to aspire to this social classification, there is a particular set of core features that a man must demonstrate. These include: power/strength, rationality, heterosexuality, risk-taking, dominance, leadership, control, and repression of emotions." Hollandsworth & Wall (1977), found that men report themselves as more assertive than women on items dealing with bosses and supervisors. They also report themselves as being more outspoken when stating opinions and as taking the initiative more readily in social contacts with members of the opposite sex. This maybe the reason behind men scoring slightly higher than women in the social domain, although there was a negligible difference. These findings further indicate that men in order to demonstrate their traditional masculine role tend to consider themselves as more dominant, assertive and outspoken and thus they may be less likely to rely on nonverbal cues, which in turn are considered as a less dominant form of communication. Further, men being more power and dominance oriented, are likely to be less accepting of women's dual roles as in the employability and familial domain.

Table 4.3 reveals no significant relationship between Attitude towards Women and any of the selected variables, although the correlations between Attitudes towards Women

and all the other variables were positive (Informal (r =0.108), Formal (r = 0.117) Clothes ; With makeup (r =0.094) and With no makeup (r =0.097); Short hair, (r =0.211), Long hair (r =0.23)) used for the research. From Table 4.3, it can also be seen that there was a significant positive correlation between Informal and Formal clothes(r=0.396); Formal Clothes and Short Hair(r=0.344); Formal Clothes and Long Hair(r=0.360); With makeup and Short Hair(r=0.367); With makeup and Long Hair(r=0.363); With no makeup and With makeup (r=0.467); Short hair and Long hair. (r= 0.706). Studies show that women are overall more expressive, tentative, and polite, while men are more assertive, and power-hungry (Basow & Rubenfield, 2003). This may have been the reason behind men being more assertive in their responses thereby choosing one extreme of the variable over the other and not being flexible enough to accept both the extremes. On the other hand, women were found to be more accepting of both the extremes i.e, when they rated women with makeup as favourable, they also rated women with no makeup as favorable.

5. 3 PROFILE OF WOMEN:

From the Results Table 4.1 it can be seen that women scored higher than men on the Attitude Towards Women Scale. Numerous studies have found changes in attitudes toward women's roles between the 1970s and the 1990s (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004; Brewster & Padavic, 2000; Spence & Hahn, 1997; Thornton & Young-DeMarco, 2001; Twenge, 1997).

From Figure 5.1 it is also seen that women have higher scores than men in the variables of Hair Length and Cosmetics. This shows that women are more focused on facial beauty. According to the cosmetics industry, cosmetics play a very important role and is considered to be an essential part of what many women consider important about their outward appearance. Many women feel inadequate in terms of their self-esteem and self-

confidence, which can affect their evaluation of personal beauty (Scott, 2007). Cosmetics products, such as mascara, blush, foundation, and eyeshadow, are quick to apply, impermanent, and may improve one's appearance in accordance with societal or personal beauty ideals, thus improving self-confidence (Miller & Cox, 1982). According to Lerner, Karabenick, and Stuart (1973), what a woman observes in the mirror is used by her to measure her worth as a human being.

Many women believe that wearing makeup can invoke one's self-image (LaBelle, 1988). Furthermore, according to Beausoleil (1992), many women report that they have different ways to apply their makeup depending on what they are expecting to do during a given day. Beausoleil also mentioned that women often partake in specific appearance practices to differentiate between natural looks and looks for special occasions and day and night looks. Makeup styles at any point in history enhance women's features to look like the ideal beauty. It has been found that media shapes, rather than reflects, societal perceptions of the female body, and that women's body image fulfillment is subjective, influenced by exposure to fashion magazines and other media (Turner, Hamilton, Jacobs, Angood & Dwyer, 1997).

From Table 4.2 and Figure 5.3, it can be seen that there was no significant difference between men and women in the familial, social and employability domain. Men and women obtained a negligible difference in the social domain. However women scored slightly higher than men in the familial and employability domains. There has been an increase in the percentage of women in the active work population in many countries around the world, including ours. As a consequence, we have seen the proliferation of dual-income families where role expectations toward men and women, both in their work activities and their domestic responsibilities, have radically changed. There has been many positive effects of

women's integration into the workforce, like the increase in a nation's productivity, the wealth and consumption power of families, the financial independence of women, and an improvement of gender equity. However women have experienced difficulties in the form of pressure on family time.

Most women in recent times are wearing multiple hats in their attempts to balance both career and family responsibilities. Concern about family can interfere with work to a great extent and worries about work issues can also be exhibited in the family front. A study that has been conducted by Rodgers (1992) with the sample consisting of employees of Fortune companies; 28 percent of the men and 53 percent of the women reported that work-family stress affected their ability to concentrate at work hence revealing that more than half the women and almost a third of the men reported that work/family stress affected their ability to concentrate on the job. Life at work becomes difficult for working women. Pleck's (1977) research suggests that family-to-work spillover is stronger for women and the work-to-family spillover is stronger for men. Research has shown that female respondents in all parts of the world are pressured for time, rarely have time to relax and feel stressed and overworked most of the time, but women in emerging countries feel the strain even more so than women in developed countries. In Nielsen's Survey (as cited by Delina and Raya in International Journal of Commerce, Business and Management, 2013) women in India (87%) are most stressed/pressured for time. The effect of work-life conflict on the health of working women has been shown by many studies. A survey was conducted on 103 corporate female employees from 72 various companies/organizations across 11 broad sectors of the economy which focused on the issues of corporate female employees. One of their significant finding is that high psychological job demands like long working hours, working under deadlines and without clear direction it leads to 75 percent of the working females to suffer from depression

or general anxiety disorder than those women with the lowest level of psychological job demands (Ahmad, 2009).

Table 4.3 showed no significant correlation between Attitude Towards Women and any of the selected variables although the correlations among all of them were positive.

Women's role in society has been intensively debated in the last decades (Sanduleasa & Matei, 2011). Since 1975, the importance given to ensuring basic human rights increased along with the development of directives that have supported the principle of equality between women and men in relation to working conditions, training and promotion, social security, access to goods and services, maternity protection and parental leave. In 1997, the Treaty of Amsterdam included the gender component in all European Community policies, stating that the principle of equal treatment is a fundamental right. Since then, Member States have formulated and promoted various policies and measures to combat inequality, drawing attention to the importance and the need to increase female labour market participation rates.

From Table 4.3 and Figure 5.3, it can be seen that there was a significant positive correlation between Informal and Formal clothes(r=0.396); With no makeup and With makeup (r=0.467); Short hair and Long hair. (r= 0.706). The results indicate that when women viewed one extreme of the variable as favourable, they also viewed the other extreme of the variable as favourable, i.e when they rated women with short hair as favourable, they also rated women with long hair as favourable.They may be said to be more accepting of both the extremes.

It was also seen from the table, that there was no significant correlation between the general attitude towards women (observed from AWS) and the specific variables (Informal (r =0.108), Formal (r = 0.117) Clothes ; With makeup (r =0.094) and With no makeup (r =0.097); Short hair, (r =0.211), Long hair (r =0.23)) used for the research. "Nonverbal

communication has an impact with gender and cultural differences. There are different views from society of males and females. Males are portrayed as aggressive, controlling, and having a take-charge attitude. Women are seen as sensitive, emotional, and passive. There is a difference how males and females communicate verbally and nonverbally. Women are more expressive when they use non-verbal communication, they tend to smile more than men and use their hands more. Men also come off as more relaxed, while women seem tenser. Men are more comfortable with close proximity to females, but women are more comfortable with close proximity with other females. In terms of interpreting non-verbal signals, women are better than men are." (Coggins, 2006). Considering nonverbal communication women gain an upper hand over their male counterparts as women interpret nonverbal communication better than men. (Mohindra and Azhar, 2012).

Table 4.3 also revealed positive and significant correlations between Formal Clothes and Short Hair (r=0.344); Formal Clothes and Long Hair (r=0.360); With makeup and Short Hair (r=0.367); and With makeup and Long Hair (r=0.363). Since the Formal clothes and With makeup conditions were significantly correlated with both Long and Short hair lengths, it may be assumed that Hair Length did not play a major role in influencing the perceptions of the respondents; the variables, Cosmetics and Clothes were the major determinants of perception or were the major cues. This is in accordance with a study in which it was found that facial attractiveness is more influential in generating associations than hairstyle as highly attractive faces elicited much higher scores on desirable personality traits than less attractive women with similar hair length. In other words, the effect of hair length on physical attractiveness and personality judgement is much weaker than the effect of facial traits (Bereczkei & Meskó, 2006).

The conclusion is discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

6.0 The discussion of the findings of the present study has led to the summary of the work and to draw the following conclusions.

The objectives of the present study was to draw a comparative profile of young adults, males and females, in terms of nonverbal cues of Clothing, Cosmetics and Hair Length with respect to attitude towards women.

For the purpose of the present study, one group was selected - a group of young adults consisting of 60 individuals in the age group of 18-25 years, with one subgroup of males consisting of 30 individuals in the age group of 18-25 years and the other subgroup of females consisting of 30 individuals belonging to the age group of 18-25 years.

A number of scales were used to assess the above mentioned selected variables. For collecting information regarding different socio-demographic variables about the respondents, an Information Schedule appropriate for the present research purpose was used. Other than this, Attitudes Towards Women Scale – by **Spence, Helmreich & Stapp (1978)** was used. Another scale which was developed by the investigators, where for each level of Formal-Informal, Makeup-No Makeup and Short Hair - Longhair, five photographs were taken. Photographs were then presented to raters who are experts in their fields who chose one photograph from the five displayed. Two photographs, one for each level was chosen. For each of the domains of Social, Familial and Employability, positive and negative statements along with the photographs were finally selected on the basis of the ratings of the raters.

The data collected was scored using the appropriate scoring keys provided with each scale. After scoring, the raw scores were statistically analyzed using different measures of

descriptive and inferential statistics. The samples in the present study were collected from college students. Purposive random sampling along with snowball technique was used as the sampling method. The statistical analyses done after scoring the data comprised of Mean, Standard Deviation, t test and Correlation. Mean, Standard deviation and Correlation are Descriptive Statistics and t test is Inferential Statistics. 't' test was computed to determine significant difference between male and female with respect to Attitudes towards Women and nonverbal cues. Correlation was computed for the entire sample consisting of 60 individuals to determine the magnitude and direction of relationship of attitude towards women with various domains of Clothing, Cosmetics and Hair Length.

The conclusions drawn from the present study may be summarized as follows:

1. t test does not show any significant difference between men and women with respect to their Attitude towards Women and the perception of Clothes, Cosmetics and Hair Length.

2. Women scored higher than Men in the Attitude Towards Women Scale. Women also scored higher on both the levels of the variables Cosmetics and Hair Length which shows that they have a favourable attitude towards these variables. Men scored higher on both the levels of the variable Clothes and thus have a favourable attitude towards this variable.

3. t test does not show any significant difference between men and women in the familial, social and employability domains.

4. Women scored slightly higher than men in the familial and employability domains which shows that they have a slightly more favourable attitude towards these domains.

5. Positive correlation was found between Attitude towards Women and the variables: Informal Clothes, Formal Clothes, With no makeup, With makeup, Short Hair and Long Hair.

6. However there was no significant correlation between Attitude Towards Women and any of the selected variables.

7. The variables which were found to have significant positive correlations with one another are as follows:

❖ Informal and Formal Clothes;

❖ Formal Clothes and Short Hair;

❖ Formal Clothes and Long Hair;

❖ With no makeup and With makeup;

❖ With makeup and Short Hair;

❖ With makeup and Long Hair;

❖ Short Hair and Long Hair

6.1 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. In the present study women had a higher mean than men on the Attitude Towards Women Scale. This implies that females are more egalitarian than men in their attitude towards women.

2. Men had a higher mean than women on both the levels of the variable Clothes - Formal clothing and Informal clothing. This implies that men are more likely to focus their judgement on the bodily features and attire. Men tend to focus less on women's faces when it comes to comprehension of non-verbal cues.

3. In the present study it can be seen that women scored higher than men in both the levels of the variable Cosmetics- Makeup and No Makeup as well as in both the levels of the variable Hair Length- Short Hair and Long Hair. This indicates that women are more accepting of both extremes of appearance - short and long hair, and the presence and absence of makeup. Women tend to focus more on the facial beauty and feminine features, thereby scoring higher with respect to the variables of Hair Length and Cosmetics. Women often tend to pinpoint non-verbal cues more minutely and accurately than men.

4. Women scored slightly higher than men in the familial and employability domains however there was an insignificant difference between men and women in the social domain. Since the present sample comprised of female college students it can be seen that they were less supportive of gender-specialised marital roles and hence have a more favourable attitude towards women in the familial and the employability domain.

5. There was a significant positive correlation between Informal and Formal clothes; With no makeup and With makeup; Short hair and Long hair. This implies that when women viewed one extreme of the variable as favourable, they also viewed the other extreme of the variable as favourable.They may be said to be more accepting of both the extremes.

6. Positive and significant correlations were found between Formal Clothes and Short Hair , Formal Clothes and Long Hair , With makeup and Short Hair and With makeup and Long Hair. Since the Formal clothes and With makeup conditions were significantly correlated with both Long and Short hair lengths, it may be assumed that Hair Length did not play a major role in influencing the perceptions of the

respondents. This implies that the effect of hair length on physical attractiveness and personality judgement is much weaker than the effect of facial traits.

6.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY:

Any research cannot contribute completely without having certain limitations and providing scope for further research. Similarly, the present study also has its flaws which may be addressed and corrected in the future. Some of these limitations can be summarised as follows:-

1. For the present study a sample of 60 adults (30 males and 30 females) was used. So it was not a very large sample.

2. Photographs of models were shown to the subjects for rating but having real life models for rating may have increased the ecological validity of the present study.

3. The present sample consisted of individuals from middle and upper middle class only. Thus the attitudes of individuals from other socioeconomic classes could not be assessed, thereby making the responses less generalisable.

4. A research investigator was present while the subjects answered the questionnaires and rated the photographs. This may have affected the responses of the subjects.

5. The present study included only two levels for each of the three variables which may have limited the findings and the generalisability of the research.

The present study was time bound and it was therefore not possible to overcome the limitations mentioned above. However, it provides the scope for future research in this field.

6.3 ORIGINALITY OF THE PRESENT RESEARCH WORK:

The newness of the present research may be summarized as follows:-

1. The present study is solely carried out in an Indian sample. The variables chosen for the study and the method used, have also not been the focus of previous Indian studies.

2. The present study focuses on variables that are not bodily features (like height, weight, etc) but on non verbal cues that are liable to change, which might affect attitude formation.

6.4 AREAS OF FURTHER RESEARCH

The researchers believe that the present study has opened different arenas that are yet to be studied. The different studies which can be conducted in this area may consist of :-

1. More domains, like marital, parental and educational life of women, as areas of interest.

2. More genders, including transgenders and other non-binary people other than only males and females, for comparative purposes.

3. More variables, other than the ones studied in the present research, like presence of tattoos, piercings, intermediate degrees of hair length and makeup, different textures of hair, etc.

4. Social situations which requisites different attires, degrees of makeup and hair styles, so that different attitudes towards women in different social contexts may be assessed

5. Other age groups of younger children and older people, for comparison.

Thus, the described scope for further research and studies and the information obtained highlights the importance of the present study. The evolution of attitudes towards women, held by young adults, is ever-changing and is affected by the non verbal cues like the cosmetics, clothes, etc. at least to an extent. This research shows how far these attitudes have evolved and it illustrates the effects of non verbal cues on the attitudes towards women and the difference between men and women in their perception of hair length, cosmetics and clothes. It also highlights the difference between the attitudes of men and women in the social, familial and employability domains.

CHAPTER 7

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CHAPTER 8

Appendices

Appendix A

CONSENT FORM A: FOR CLOTHING

You are invited to be a voluntary model in this study. The purpose of this research is to study the effect of degree of cosmetic use, dressing style and length of hair on the attitudes of men and women towards women. In this study you will be photographed under two different styles of clothing. These photos will be rated by 60 participants.

Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary. You have the right to refuse, terminate or withdraw from the experiment at any time with any reason. You will not face any penalty or negative consequences. I would be grateful if you can participate in the study.

All the information and data will be kept strictly confidential. All the relevant information obtained, including the photographs, will only be used in this study and will be destroyed after the procedure. The photographs will not be used for any commercial purposes. These photographs will only be used for this study, and not for any other study. You will not receive a copy of the research conducted. If you have any queries or want further information about this research, feel free to contact the supervisors or the investigators of this research.

Investigators   Supervisors

Ahana Lahiri   Jhelum Podder
Deepshikha Prasad   Sayantani Chatterjee
Mrittika Chatterjee   Loreto College
Nayanika Karmaraj
Sidra A. Siddiqui
Bachelor of Arts (Hons. In Psychology)
psych.research.2017@gmail.com

If you decide to participate, please give your signed authorization to indicate the willingness of your participation in this research.

Name: _____

Age: _____

Gender: _____

Email: _____

Signature: _____

APPENDIX B

CONSENT FORM B: FOR MAKE UP

You are invited to be a voluntary model in this study. The purpose of this research is to study the effect of degree of cosmetic use, dressing style and length of hair on the attitudes of men and women towards women. In this study you will be photographed under two different conditions of cosmetic use. These photos will be rated by 60 participants.

Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary. You have the right to refuse, terminate or withdraw from the experiment at any time with any reason. You will not face any penalty or negative consequences. I would be grateful if you can participate in the study.

All the information and data will be kept strictly confidential. All the relevant information obtained, including the photographs, will only be used in this study and will be destroyed after the procedure. The photographs will not be used for any commercial purposes. These photographs will only be used for this study, and not for any other study. You will not receive a copy of the research conducted. If you have any queries or want further information about this research, feel free to contact the supervisors or the investigators of this research.

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Deepshikha Prasad   Sayantani Chatterjee

Mrittika Chatterjee   Loreto College

Nayanika Karmaraj

Sidra A. Siddiqui

Undergraduate (Hons. In Psychology)

psych.research.2017@gmail.com

If you decide to participate, please give your signed authorization to indicate the willingness of your participation in this research.

Name: _____

Age: _____

Gender: _____

Email: _____

Signature: _____

APPENDIX C

CONSENT FORM C: FOR HAIR LENGTH

You are invited to be a voluntary model in this study. The purpose of this research is to study the effect of degree of cosmetic use, dressing style and length of hair on the attitudes of men and women towards women. In this study you will be photographed. These photos will be rated by 60 participants.

Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary. You have the right to refuse, terminate or withdraw from the experiment at any time with any reason. You will not face any penalty or negative consequences. I would be grateful if you can participate in the study.

All the information and data will be kept strictly confidential. All the relevant information obtained, including the photographs, will only be used in this study and will be destroyed after the procedure. The photographs will not be used for any commercial purposes. These photographs will only be used for this study, and not for any other study. You will not receive a copy of the research conducted. If you have any queries or want further information about this research, feel free to contact the supervisors or the investigators of this research.

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Nayanika Karmaraj
Sidra A. Siddiqui

Undergraduate (Hons. In Psychology)
psych.research.2017@gmail.com

If you decide to participate, please give your signed authorization to indicate the willingness of your participation in this research.

Name: _____

Age: _____

Gender: _____

Email: _____

Signature: _____

APPENDIX D

CONSENT FORM FOR SUBJECTS

CONSENT FORM

Title of Research Project: Gauging Eve: A Study on The Effect of Non Verbal Cues on the Attitude Towards Women.

Name of Researchers: Ahana Lahiri, Deepshikha Prasad, Mrittika Chatterjee, Nayanika Kamaraj and Sidra Aaisha Siddiqui.

Name of Supervisors: Dr. Sayantani Chatterjee and Ms. Jhelum Podder.

Please put your initials in the box

1. I understand that my participation in the study is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw anytime without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences. In addition, should I not wish to answer any question or questions, I am free to decline.

2. I understand that my responses will be kept strictly confidential. I give my permission for members of the research team to have access to my anonymised responses. I understand that my name will not be linked with the research materials and I will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that result from the research.

3. I agree for the data collected from me to be used in future research.

4. I agree to take part voluntarily in the above research project.

_____   _____   _____

Initials of the participants   Date   Signature

To be signed and dated by the researcher once confirmed

_____   _____   _____

Researcher   Date   Signature

APPENDIX E

INFORMATION SCHEDULE

1. INITIALS: _____

2. AGE: _____

3. SEX: _____

4. EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS:
   _____

5. SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS: (Please tick-)
   a) <u>Middle Class</u>: family's monthly income: Rs. 20,000- Rs. 40,000
   b) <u>Upper Middle Class</u>: family's monthly income: Rs. 40,000

6. NUMBER OF WORKING FAMILY MEMBERS:
   a) <u>Female</u>: _____
   b) <u>Male</u>: _____

7. OCCUPATION: (Also mention if working in an internship)
   _____
   _____

8. HOW IS HOUSEHOLD WORK LIKE CLEANING, DUSTING, WASHING DISHES AND CLOTHES, COOKING DISTRIBUTED AMONGST YOUR FAMILY MEMBERS?:

9. NAME SOME SUITABLE JOBS FOR FEMALES:

10. NAME SOME SUITABLE JOBS FOR MALES:

APPENDIX E

INSTRUCTIONS: Please express your feelings about each statement by indicating whether you **(A) agree strongly, (B) agree mildly, (C) disagree mildly, or (D) disagree strongly.**

1. Swearing and obscenity are more repulsive in the speech of a woman than of a man.

   ☐ A   ☐ B   ☐ C   ☐ D

2. Women should take increasing responsibility for leadership in solving the intellectual and social problems of the day.

   ☐ A   ☐ B   ☐ C   ☐ D

3. Both husband and wife should be allowed the same grounds for divorce.

   ☐ A   ☐ B   ☐ C   ☐ D

4. Telling dirty jokes should be mostly a masculine prerogative.

   ☐ A   ☐ B   ☐ C   ☐ D

5. Intoxication among women is worse than intoxication among men.

   ☐ A   ☐ B   ☐ C   ☐ D

6. Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share household tasks such as washing dishes and doing the laundry.

   ☐ A   ☐ B   ☐ C   ☐ D

7. It is insulting to women to have the "obey" clause remain in the marriage service.

   ☐ A   ☐ B   ☐ C   ☐ D

8. There should be strict merit system in job appointment and promotion without regard to gender.

   ☐ A   ☐ B   ☐ C   ☐ D

9. A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage.

   ☐ A   ☐ B   ☐ C   ☐ D

10. Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers.

    ☐ A   ☐ B   ☐ C   ☐ D

11. Women earning as much as their spouse should bear equally the expense when they go out together.

☐ A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D

12. Women should assume their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men.

☐ A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D

13. A woman should not expect to go to exactly the same places or to have quite the same freedom of action as a man.

☐ A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D

14. Sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters.

☐ A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D

15. It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and for a man darn socks.

☐ A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D

16. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in the bringing up of children.

☐ A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D

17. Women should be encouraged not to go for close relationship with anyone before marriage, even their fiancés.

☐ A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D

18. The husband should not be favoured by law over the wife in disposal of family property or income.

☐ A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D

19. Women should be concerned with their duties of childbearing and house tending rather that with desires for professional or business careers.

☐ A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D

20. The intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men.

☐ A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D

21. Economic and social freedom is worth far more to women than acceptance of the ideal of femininity which has been set up by men.

□ A   □ B   □ C   □ D

22. On the average, women should be regarded as less capable of contributing to economic production than are men.

□ A   □ B   □ C   □ D

23. There are many jobs in which men should be given preference over women in being hired or promoted.

□ A   □ B   □ C   □ D

24. Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades.

□ A   □ B   □ C   □ D

25. The modern girl is entitled to the same freedom from regulation and control that is given to the modern boy.

□ A   □ B   □ C   □ D

APPENDIX F

PHOTOGRAPHS USED IN THE STUDY

FORMAL CLOTHES

INFORMAL CLOTHES

WITH MAKEUP   **WITH NO MAKEUP**

SHORT HAIR

LONG HAIR

APPENDIX G

POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE STATEMENTS BASED ON THE FAMILIAL, SOCIAL AND EMPLOYABILITY DOMAIN

STATEMENT	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
She would be a responsible homemaker					
She would be an irresponsible homemaker					
She is independent					
She is aggressive					
She is competent at her job					
She is not intelligent					