



DISSERTATION

Investigating Clothing Code and Relationship between Clothing and Identity in Workplace

Submission in 2015

Xinzhu Song

ID number: 7787793

Declaration

I have read and understood the University of Manchester guidelines on plagiarism and declare that this dissertation is all my own work except where I indicate otherwise by proper use of quotes and references.

Acknowledgements

It was a long journey from confirming the topic to finally finishing this dissertation. There are a few people that I would like to express my gratitude.

Firstly, I would express my sincere appreciation to my supervisor, Dr. Yi Wang, for his patient instruction, helpful suggestions on this dissertation.

My appreciation also goes to my family, friends who have been encouraging and supporting me to finish my degree.

Finally, I want to thank all the people who participated in my research. Thank you all for providing me all the great value information.

Abstract

This dissertation explores how Chinese young professional employees perceive clothing code, understand the work clothing and use clothing to express work identities. This research employs mixture of quantitative approach and qualitative approach by sending self-completed questionnaire with open-ended questions. There are 166 participants involved in this research. The findings from this research demonstrate the existence of clothing code within Chinese young employees. Clothing does have a language like property and communicative function. But, clothing code and language are different as means of communication. In addition, this research applied identity theory and symbolic self-completion theory to explore the perceptions and the use of clothing in relationship to work identity. Moreover, this research aims to fill the gap in the knowledge of communicative function of clothing, the perceptions and the use of clothing in relationship to work identity with focus on Chinese young employees from the demographic perspective. Fashion retailers may benefit from this research in exploring new consumers and promoting work clothing better for Chinese young employees.

Keywords: Code, Work clothing, Work identity salience, Self-completion theory, Communication

Table of Contents

Declaration	I
Acknowledgements	II
Abstract	III
Table of Contents	IV
List of Tables	VIII
List of Figures	X
Chapter one Introduction	1
1.1 Introduction to language-like property and communicative function of clothing	1
1.2 Research context	2
1.3 Research problem	3
1.4 Research aim	4
1.5 Hypothesis	4
1.6 Research objectives	5
1.7 Research method	5
1.8 Research outcomes	6
1.9 Summary	6
Chapter Two Literature Review	7
2.1 Introduction	7
2.2 The functions of fashion and clothing	7
2.2.1 Material functions	8
Protection theory	8
Modesty theory	9
Immodesty theory	9
2.2.2 Cultural functions	11
Communication	11
Individualistic expression	11
Social worth or status	12

Definition of social role	13
2.3 Language-like property of clothing	14
2.3.1 Model of sign	14
2.3.2 Connotative meaning and denotative meaning of clothing	16
2.3.3 Syntagm in fashion and clothing	18
2.3.4 Symbol function in theory of product language	21
2.4 Theory about identity	28
2.4.1 Social identity theory	28
2.4.2 Identity theory	29
2.5 Symbolic self-completion	31
2.6 Work clothing	32
2.7 Summary	33
Chapter Three Research Methodology	35
3.1 Introduction	35
3.2 Research philosophy	36
3.2.1 Ontology	37
3.2.2 Epistemology	38
3.2.3 Research philosophy adopted	39
3.3 Research approach	39
3.3.1 Deductive approach	40
3.3.2 Inductive approach	41
3.3.3 Research approach adopted	42
3.4 Data Sources	42
3.4.1 Primary data	42
3.4.2 Secondary data	43
3.5 Data collection approaches	44
3.5.1 Quantitative approach	45
3.5.2 Qualitative approach	46
3.5.3 Data collection approach adopted	46
3.6 Data collection methods	47

3.6.1 Self-completed questionnaire	47
3.6.2 Open-ended questions	49
3.7 Data analysis methods	50
3.7.1 Stages in qualitative data analysis	50
3.7.2 Content analysis	51
3.7.3 Quantitative data analysis	52
3.8 Research design	53
3.9 Sampling	58
3.9.1 Definition and classification of sampling	58
3.9.2 Sampling technique adopted	58
3.10 Validity	59
3.11 Reliability	59
3.12 Summary	60
Chapter Four Results and Discussion	61
4.1 Participant characteristics	61
4.2 Clothing code	62
4.2.1 Clothing code interpretation	62
4.2.2 Clothing code with demographic characteristics	65
4.2.3 Comparison with McCracken and Roth’s research (1989)	66
4.3 Relationships between work identity and work clothing	67
4.3.1 Comparison with Kang et al.’s research (2011)	70
4.4 Work identity salience and work clothing	70
4.4.1 Comparison with Kang et al.’s research (2011)	73
4.5 Work identity completeness and work clothing	73
4.5.1 Comparison with Kang et al.’s research (2011)	75
4.6 Expectations from work clothing	76
4.6.1 Comparison with Kang et al.’s research (2011)	77
4.7 Other correlations between work clothing and work identity	77
.....	78
4.7.1 Effort on adopting proper work clothing	78

4.7.2 Importance of work clothing	79
4.7.2 Agreement with communicative function of work clothing	79
4.8 Demographic attributes with work clothing and work identity	80
4.9 Conclusion	82
Chapter Five Conclusion	84
5.1 Introduction	84
5.2 Contributions to academia	84
5.3 Contributions to fashion retailers	85
5.4 Limitations of this research	86
5.5 Further research suggestions	86
References	88
Appendices	101
Appendix 1	101
Appendix 2	109
Appendix 3	116
Appendix 4	120

List of Tables

Table 3. 1 Research Aims and Objectives	35
Table 3. 2 Reliability Statistics	60
Table 4. 1 Accuracy by Looks	62
Table 4. 2 Results for Stepwise Regressions of All Looks.....	65
Table 4. 3 Pearson Correlation about Work Identity Salience.....	71
Table 4. 4 Pearson Correlation about Effort on Adopting Proper Work Clothing	78
Table 4. 5 Pearson Correlation about Importance of Work Clothing	79
Table 4. 6 Pearson Correlation about Communicative Function of Work Clothing	80
Table 4. 7 Pearson Correlation about Gender.....	81

List of Figures

Figure 2. 1 The Structure of Chapter 2	7
Figure 2. 2 Veil in Muslim Culture	9
Figure 2. 3 Some Clothing Items Reveal More than Conceal the Body	10
Figure 2. 4 Non-conformists in Dress	12
Figure 2. 5 Saussure’s Linguistics Sign.....	14
Figure 2. 6 Saussure’s Linguistics Sign.....	15
Figure 2. 7 Order of Signification.....	17
Figure 2. 8 Syntagm and Paradigm Diagram in Fashion and Clothing	20
Figure 2. 9 Conceptual Model of the Theory of Product Language.....	21
Figure 2. 10 Conceptual Model of the Theory of Product Language: the Symbol Function ..	23
Figure 2. 11 Symbol Functions in Language of Fashion and Clothing.....	24
Figure 2. 12 A-D Symbol Functions in Concept Styles	26
Figure 3. 1 The Structure of Chapter 3	36
Figure 3. 2 Process of Deductive Logic	40
Figure 3. 3 The Inductive Development of Theory	41
Figure 3. 4 A Classification of Market Research Data	45
Figure 3. 5 Types of Questionnaire.....	48
Figure 3. 6 Stages of Qualitative Data Analysis	51
Figure 3. 7 Four Looks and Substitutions.....	56

Chapter one Introduction

This chapter consists of 7 parts: brief introduction of language-like property and communicative function of clothing, research context in semantics and clothing, work clothing and identities, research problem, research aim, research objectives, adopted research method and expected research outcomes.

1.1 Introduction to language-like property and communicative function of clothing

The functions of clothing diversify (Dunlap, 1928; Flugel, 1930, Schofield, 2005, Steffen, 2009), for instance, from the showing of modesty to immodesty, from the denotation of regional belongings or membership in some particular organizations to the expression of individual idiosyncrasy. These suggested functions of clothing can be considered as particular examples of one general phenomenon: clothing serves as a non-verbal medium of communication (Barnard, 2002; Davis, 1992) and that these suggested functions are just different messages which can be sent through clothing (Gibbins, 1969). Clothing is considered as a non-verbal medium of communication that expresses a wide range of social information (Rosenfeld and Plax, 1977; Schofield, 2005; Sproles, 1985), a visual symbolic representation of identity and a non-verbal expression of other personal characteristics (Johnson et al., 2002; Roach-Higgins and Eicher, 1992). It is suggested that fashion and clothing can be treated as being analogous to language (Barnard, 2002; Barthes, 1967, Lurie, 1992).

If clothing is typically selected by the wearer, he will be judged by his wearing (Gibbins, 1969). Accordingly, the selected clothing will be expected to transmit some messages between wearer and beholder in particular context through a particular code (Gibbins, 1969, McCracken and Roth, 1989). Thus, there must be some sharing

information (code) between wearer and beholder about the message which particular clothing conveys (Barnard, 2002; Davis, 1992; Gibbins, 1969, McCracken and Roth, 1989). So, it is important to investigate how consumers understand clothing and use clothing to express messages. Retailers can explore potential consumers as well as provide the clothing that consumers want if retailers can understand clothing from the perspective of consumers. This research focuses on using clothing to communicate identities in workplace.

1.2 Research context

In language, semantics is the study of words' meanings (Aitchison, 2003; Huang, 2007; Leech, 1981; Saeed, 1997) and words have both connotative meaning and denotative meaning (Brownell et al., 1984; Chandler, 2007). Every word has a definitional and obvious meaning called the denotative meaning (Chandler, 2007; Fiske, 1990). In addition, every word also has implied meanings with emotional and cultural associations called the connotative meanings (Brownell et al., 1984; Lyons, 1977). Connotations are associated with individuals' class, age, gender culture and experience (Chandler, 2007). For example, *cold* and *warm* denote temperature literally, while, *cold* and *warm* connote remoteness and intimacy respectively (Brownell et al., 1984). Miscommunication may occur when encoder and decoder do not share the same connotative meaning of a word.

Like language, clothing can be interpreted from the view of semantic level. As for clothing, there is a code between wearer and beholder about the message which particular clothing conveys (Barnard, 2002; Davis, 1992; Gibbins, 1969, McCracken and Roth, 1989). The term 'code' is defined as the knowledge of the clothing messages that must be shared by the wearer and beholder, so that wearer could create message and beholder could understand it (McCracken and Roth, 1989). Individuals use clothing to communicate and enact different identities in the workplace; appearance labour may occur (Peluchette et al., 2006). Appearance labour refers to

any “dissonance between what individuals believe that they are expected to wear and what they would prefer to wear” (Peluchette et al., 2006, pp. 50). For instance, individual’s role transition such as from a university student to a full-time employee and make decisions about which identities to communicate and what clothing to wear to show those identities (Kang et al., 2011).

The importance a person put on his work identity affects the salience of identity for him and the extent that he use dress to communicate that identity (Kang et al., 2011). The choice of the clothing for work may reflect the salience of a work identity and the perceived level of completeness in a work identity (Kang et al., 2011).

Workplace is a significant context to analyze how employees use clothing to communicate their work identities. Firstly, clothing influences and manages others’ perceptions (Damhorst, 1990; Peluchette et al., 2006). Secondly, clothing could help employees to shape not only others’ perceptions but also self-perceptions (Kwon, 1994). Thirdly, the contemporary employees and their clothing choices are worth analyzing because contemporary employees seem to have a relationship with clothing that is different to previous generations of employees (Kang et al., 2011).

This research focuses on the language-like and communicative properties of clothing. In addition, the investigation focuses on the young professional employees’ perceptions and the use of clothing in relationship to their work identities.

1.3 Research problem

The office wear and business casual wear markets will grow fast due to the rising number of working women in China (International Trade Centre, 2011). Clothing is important to communicate identity. Thus, exploring the existence of clothing code, the communicative properties of clothing with focus on Chinese young employees and the Chinese young professional employees’ perceptions and use of clothing in

relationship to their work identities is important for apparel retailers.

1.4 Research aim

Investigating how Chinese young professional employees perceive clothing code, understand work clothing and use clothing to express their work identities is important for retailers. The wish to communicate identities affects the consumption of clothing (Kang et al., 2011). Thus, it is important to explore the communicative function of clothing and the use of clothing in relationship to work identity from the perspective of Chinese young employees.

1.5 Hypothesis

1. Based on the McCracken and Roth's (1989) research, the code for interpreting clothing may exist in Chinese young employees as well.
2. According to the social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982), the identity theory (Stryker, 1980) and the importance of clothing in constructing work identity (Rafaeli et al., 1997), individuals with salient work identities may spend more efforts on choosing "correct" clothing to communicate work identities within Chinese young employees.
3. Based on the symbolic self-completion theory (Wichlund and Gollwitzer, 1982) and the researches done by Crane et al. (2004) and Kang et al. (2011), the importance of choosing work clothing may decrease when the feeling of identity completeness increases within Chinese young employees.
4. Based on the researches about work clothing (Dellinger, 2002; Kang et al., 2011; Peluchette and Karl, 2007; Rafaeli et al., 1997), Chinese young employees may have clear expectations for outcomes about what they wear in workplace as well.

1.6 Research objectives

The first objective is to examine and review the existing academic literatures on language-like property and communicative function of clothing, identity, symbolic self-completion and work clothing.

Secondly, this research examines whether or not clothing interpretation is informed by a code with focus on the Chinese young professional employees

Thirdly, this research examines Chinese young professional employees' perceptions and use of clothing in relationship to their work identities.

Finally, this research aims to fill the gap in the knowledge of communicative function of clothing, perceptions and use of clothing in relationship to work identity with focus on Chinese young employees from the demographic perspective.

1.7 Research method

This part briefly illustrates the data collection and the participant selection about this research. As for the data collection, this research adopted mixture of quantitative approach and qualitative approach by sending self-completed questionnaire with open-ended questions. Quantitative approach is used to develop a general idea about clothing code as well as the correlations between work clothing and identity. While, qualitative approach is used to support the correlations and examine their attitudes and feelings of proper work clothing. There are 166 participants are involved in this research. This research uses purposive sampling technique, since the proper participants are the people who were employed full time in professional occupation that do not need to wear uniforms in China. The questionnaire involved three parts: demographic questions, clothing code and clothing at work in relationship to work identity.

1.8 Research outcomes

There are three expected outcomes of this research paper:

Firstly, the relationship between Chinese young employees' perceptions, use of clothing and their work identities will be evaluated.

Secondly, the research findings evaluate the findings of Kang et al.'s research about relationships between work clothing and work identities and self-perceptions.

Finally, a report can be draw from this paper and the fashion retailers and managers will benefit from the report in promoting work clothing better for Chinese young employees.

1.9 Summary

This research aims to explore communicative function of clothing and the use of clothing in relationship to work identities from the perspective of Chinese young employees. A mixture of quantitative approach and qualitative approach by sending self-completed questionnaire with open-ended questions are employed. The objectives of this research are to explore whether or not clothing interpretation is informed by a code and the use of clothing in relationship to work identities. Also, this research aims to fill the gap in the knowledge of communicative function of clothing, perceptions and use of clothing in relationship to work identities with focus on Chinese young employees from the demographic perspective.

Chapter Two Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter will review the existing fashion (functions of fashion and clothing) and identity (social identity and identity theory, symbolic self-completion, work clothing) concepts that are related to this thesis. Also, the existing linguistic concepts used in fashion area for achieving a better understanding (linguistic sign, denotative and connotative meaning, syntagm relation, symbol functions) will be illustrated. It is expected that literature review will provide a deeper insight into how linguistic concepts applied in fashion area and how clothing related to communication, identity and perceptions. Also, it aims to identify gaps in the existing literature for further research. Here is the structure of this chapter, see Figure 2.1.

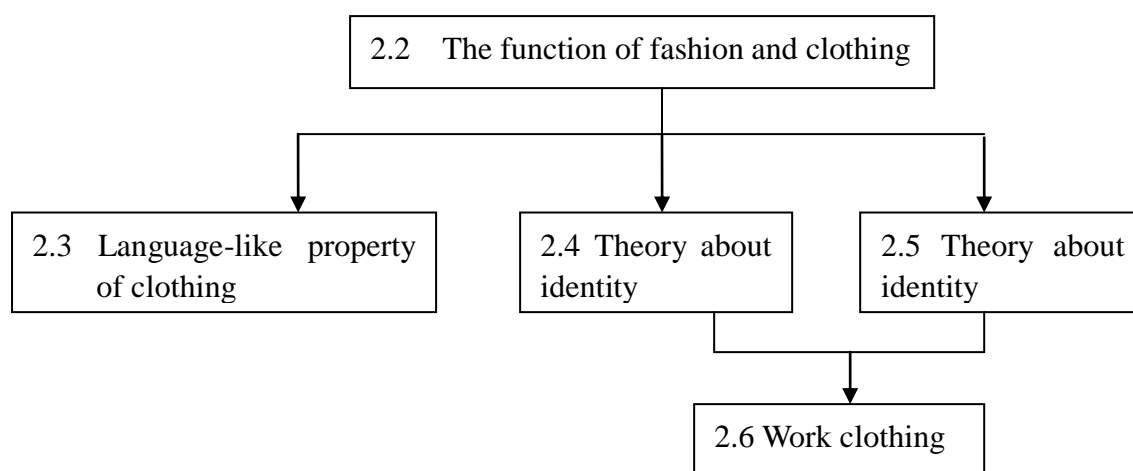


Figure 2. 1The Structure of Chapter 2

2.2 The functions of fashion and clothing

Generally speaking, the functions of fashion and clothing can be divided into 2 parts: material functions and cultural functions (Barnard, 2002). Material functions refer to protection, modesty, immodesty and adornment (Barneard, 2002; Solomon and Rabolt,

2009). While, cultural functions are connected with communication (Barnard, 2002). However, material functions also have cultural functions, such as the ways are chosen to protect and dress in a culture also reflect the ways they communicate their identities (Barnard, 2002). In addition, the material functions are changing and differ from culture to culture (Barnard, 2002).

Early studies indicated that people wear clothing to protect the body from harm, weather and insects (Bush and London, 1960; Dunlap, 1928; Sanborn, 1927). In addition, Solomon and Rabolt (2009) group the motivations of wearing clothing into 4 segments: modesty, immodesty, protection and adornment. However, Rouse (1989) indicated that the functions of clothing are protection, modesty, attraction and communication. Similarly, clothing is also considered to build self esteem and self identity, attract opposite sex, arousal of emotions and communicate to others (Banister and Hogg, 2004; Barnard, 2002; Daters, 1990; Lurie, 1992; Solomon and Schopler, 1982).

2.2.1 Material functions

Protection theory

The protection function implies clothing is used as a barrier between the environment and the body, to protect the people from weather (sun, wind, cold and so on) (Rouse, 1989; Solomon and Rabolt, 2009). In addition, people also wear clothing or accessories in order to get good luck or for spiritual needs, it is more like psychological protection instead of physical protection (Flugel, 1930; Solomon and Rabolt 2009). Conversely, clothing also protects body from dangerous occupation animals or enemies (Barnard, 2002; Flugel, 1930). However, people make different responses to the physical and psychological needs in different culture areas (Flugel, 1930; Rouse, 1989).

Modesty theory

The modesty theory means that people wear clothing to cover the private parts of their bodies (Flugel, 1930; Solomon and Rabolt, 2004). People find ways to cloth their bodies because they recognised naked as shameful, and it stems from the Biblical story of Adam and Eve and the fig leave (Rouse, 1989; Solomon and Rabolt, 2009). However, modesty is not universal in all cultures and changing with time, a part of body should be covered in one culture is acceptable to be exposed in another culture, such as the veils worn by women in Muslin culture (see Figure 2.2) and the acceptable exposure of swimsuit today (Kaiser, 1997; Solomon and Rabolt, 2009).

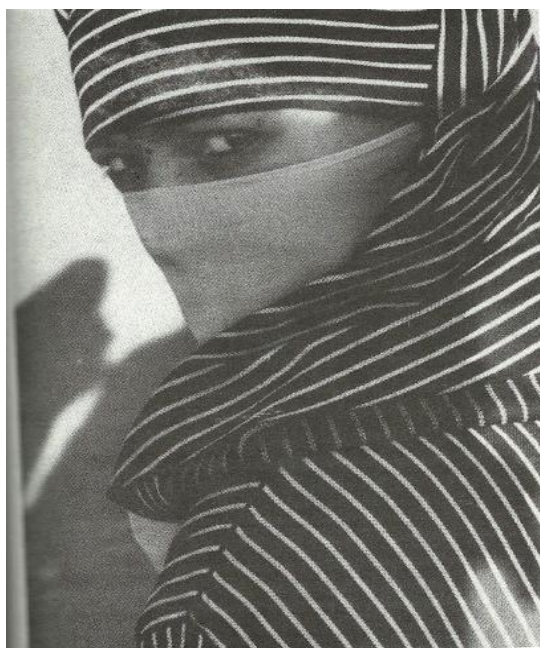


Figure 2. 2 Veil in Muslin Culture (Kaiser, 1997, pp.525)

Also, Brown (cited in Roach and Eicher, 1965) argued that due to the conception of modest clothing diverse in different cultures, there is no necessary connection between modesty of clothing. The different understandings of modesty may be found even within the same culture (Barnard, 2002).

Immodesty theory

On the other hand, the wearing of clothing is often used to draw attention to particular

parts of the body rather than repel attention, such as tight sweaters and jeans are not only cover body but also draw attention to the body, see Figure 2.3 (Solomon and Rabolt, 2009).

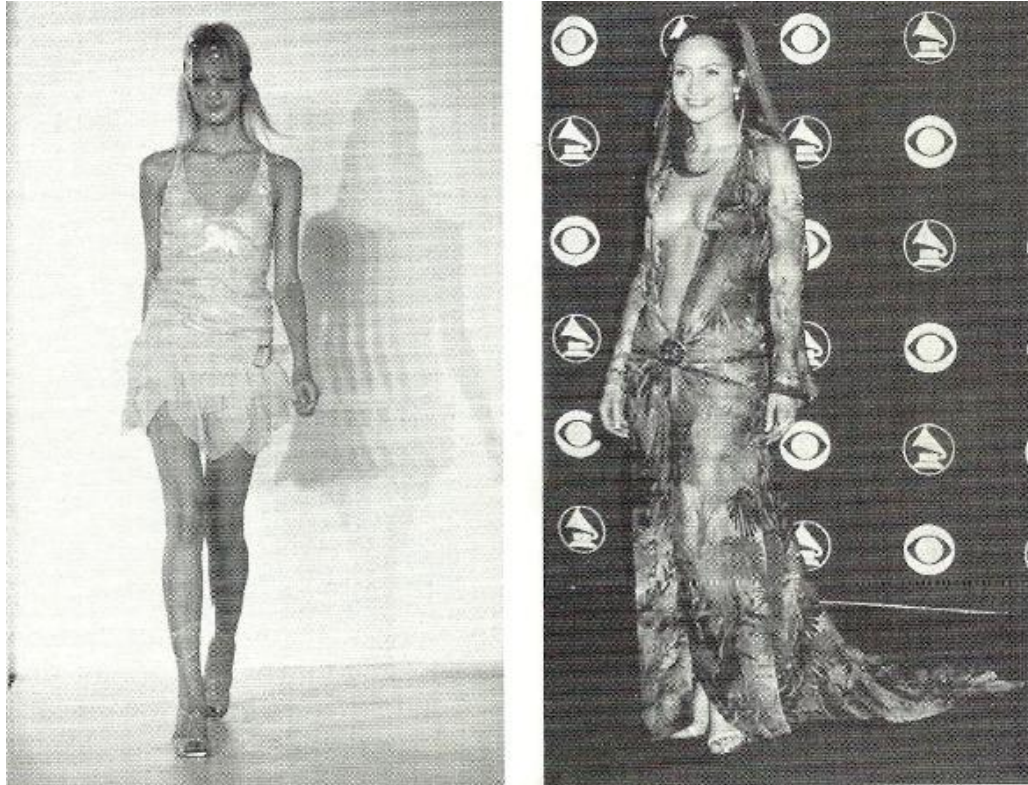


Figure 2. 3 Some Clothing Items Reveal More than Conceal the Body (Solomon and Rabolt, 2009, pp.118)

Also, clothing and fashion are used to attract opposite sex, women intend to use clothing to make themselves more attractive to male because men select life partner according to the woman's attractiveness throughout history (Rouse, 1989). While, men use clothing to show and enhance their social status due to women select life partner on the basis of man's ability (Rouse, 1989). Thus, women use clothing to show sexual attractiveness while men use clothing to show social status in order to attract opposite sex (Barnard, 2002).

2.2.2 Cultural functions

Communication

There are a lot of researches on the communicative properties of products, like cars, houses and so on; these products can express a wide range of demographic information and social identities about the owners (Durgee, 1986; Sellerberg, 1976; Solomon et al., 2002; Solomon and Rabolt, 2009). Clothing is also considered as a medium of communication which can express a wide range of social information (Adams, 1973; Roach and Eicher, 1965; Rosenfeld and Plax, 1977; Schofield, 2005; Sproles, 1985). Clothing communicates a person's position in that social order (Barnard, 2002). Clothing could bind a community together symbolically and the social agreement on clothing also reinforces other social bonds (Roach and Eicher, 1979). The unifying function of clothing communicates the membership of a particular group (Barnard, 2002; Steffen, 2009).

Protection, modesty and immodesty are also communicating cultural groups and social orders to both those other members of the group and to those outside the group, for example, the veils worn by women in Muslim culture mentioned above (Barnard, 2002; Kaiser, 1997; Solomon and Rabolt, 2009). Holman (1980) classified the functions of clothing from the viewpoint of social-psychology. In addition, Roach and Eicher (1979) discussed the communicative function of clothing from the viewpoint of anthropology.

Individualistic expression

The clothing may be used to express, disguise and reflect mood (Roach and Eicher, 1979). Some people want to alter their moods by buying new clothes, more and more people enjoy the feelings when they wearing new clothes because they show the uniqueness and a different appearance to others (Barnard, 2002).

In addition, Simmel (1971) and Roach and Eicher (1979) argued that fashion depends

on the balance between conformity in society and preservation of self-identity and individuality. Clothing could make individual differentiate from others, keep self-identity and express uniqueness (Barnard, 2002; Solomon and Rabolt, 2009). However, keeping individual and unique requires high level self-esteem and acceptance from others, especially for adolescence (Miller, 2001). For example, Andrew Martinez attended class nude at the University of California at Berkeley which obviously could be considered as so individual from others, but he was banned from school finally, see Figure 2.4 (Miller, 2001).

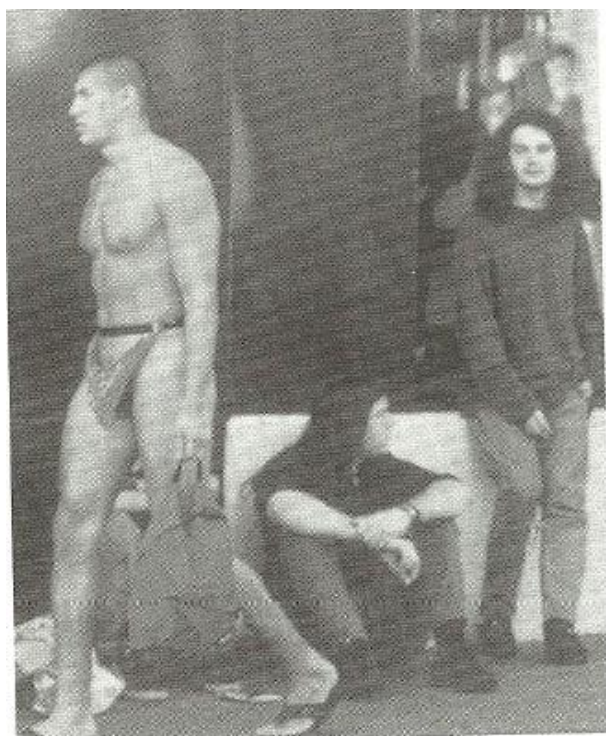


Figure 2. 4 Non-conformists in Dress (Miller, 2001, pp.208)

Social worth or status

Clothing also can indicate social worth or status and people often make judgment about others' social worth or status according to the clothing they are wearing (Barnard, 2002; Michelman, 2001). Social status is closely related with achieved features like occupational prestige, marital status or educational background which are changeable and ascribed features such as gender, race, age or family position which are unchangeable (Barnard, 2002; Kaiser, 1997; Lurie, 1992; Michelman,

2001).

In all the cultures, clothing is used to differentiate male from female without consideration of fashion (Barnard, 2002; Kaiser, 1997). In addition, the changing in marital status, such as from single to married, will be marked by special clothing in all cultures (Barnard, 2002). For instance, the white wedding dress for female is typically used to indicate from single to married in most western countries (Barnard, 2002). Moreover, Japan also specified different fibres for each social class to make sandals during the period of 1600-1867 (Roach and Eicher, 1979).

Definition of social role

The social status is defined how people behave to occupy the position of status or roles (Barnard, 2002). Social role is associated with their social status and refers to the expectations of how to behave (Barnard, 2002). For example, the status of policeman is accompanied by the role of policeman and policeman is expected to behave in a certain way which is different from others.

Clothing could be used to indicate people's social roles, the clothing can be considered as a sign to indicate people's occupations and they are expected to behave in a certain way (Barnard, 2002; Kaiser, 1997). Different people wearing different types of clothing make social interaction more easily, for instance, the clothing worn by nurse, doctor and patient in hospital indicate their roles; thus, people could easily recognise who they need to communicate with (Barnard, 2002). However, sharing the knowledge of social roles and clothing is necessary, so, people could behave properly towards them without embarrassment (Barnard, 2002; Davis, 1992; Gibbins, 1969). In addition, the different types of clothing associated with social role may reflect the difference of power, income and status, such as clothing for the political Party, white-collar and blue-collar (Barnard, 2002; Chen, 2001; Michelman, 2001).

2.3 Language-like property of Clothing

2.3.1 Model of sign

With reference to Saussure's Semiology (1983), language is a system of signs which consists of signifier and signified. Saussure (1983, pp.66) argued that "a linguistic sign is not a link between a thing and a name, but between a concept (signified) and a sound pattern (signifier)", see Figure 2.5.

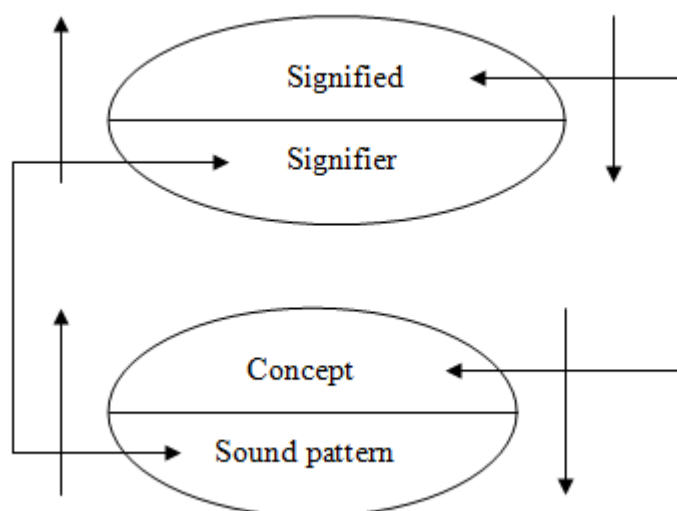


Figure 2. 5 Saussure's Linguistics Sign (Adapted from Saussure, 1983)

Saussure considered the theory of sign with language; signifier is the sound or written form of a word, while the signified is the mental concept of the signifier (Saussure, 1983). Signifier and signified are psychological entity (Saussure, 1983). The sound pattern is not actual sound (Chandler, 2007), it is "the hearer's psychological impression of a sound" (Saussure, 1983, pp.66). In addition, signified refers to the notion of a thing not the object existing in the world (Chandler, 2007). However, Saussure's model of sign tends to be more materialistic, for the signified commonly refers to something physical nowadays (Chandler, 2007). Taking the example in Figure 2.6, the word "suit" is a sign consisting of a signifier and a signified:

a signifier: the word "suit"

a signified concept: the physical form and concept of suit

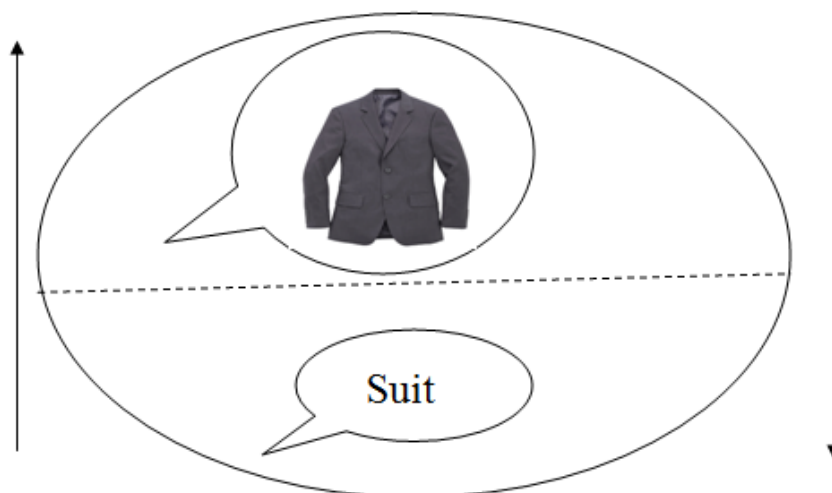


Figure 2. 6 Saussure's Linguistics Sign (Adapted from Chandler, 2007)

Generally speaking, Saussure's theory of sign can be interpreted as the signifier is anything can represent something else while the signified is "the something else that is being represented" (Barnard, 2002, pp.81). Following the generalised theory, the theory of sign can be applied in fashion and clothing, images, colour, fabric, shapes, clothing and each detail of clothing can be interpreted as a signifier (Barnard, 2002). These details can signify different concepts, such as blue baby clothing signifies boys' clothing, while pink colour clothing signifies girls' clothing, although pink colour and blue colour themselves are not sex at all (Barnard, 2002; Bridges, 1993; Pomerleau, et al.,1990). In addition, opened cardigan collar can be signifier and signify sporty cardigan, while, closed cardigan collar may signify dressy cardigan (Barthes, 1983). Sporty and dressy are signified here (Barthes, 1983). Neither the open collar nor the closed collar is any of these things, but they are used to signify sporty and dressy (Barthes, 1983). It is due to people known the code that the colour pink and blue could be understood as female and male sex as well as sporty and dressy can be represented by opened and closed collar (Barnard, 2002; Barthes, 1983). Code is the shared knowledge of clothing message which connects signifiers and signified, if the shared knowledge is unknown, people will have no idea of what a signifier is signifying (Barnard, 2002; McCracken and Roth, 1989). Thus, if people do not know the code that the closed collar stands for dressy, they may do not know the meaning of

this clothes and what message the wearer want to create and express through this clothes (Barnard, 2002). From above statements, it is reasonable to claim that fashion and clothing can be explained as signs made up of signifier and signified and the signifier and signified work in different ways and on different levels (Barnard, 2002).

2.3.2 Connotative meaning and denotative meaning of clothing

In language, the meaning of signified can be interpreted from both denotation level and connotation level (Brownell et al., 1984; Chandler, 2007). Denotative meaning is the first level of meaning which describes a literal and obvious meaning of a sign (Barnard, 2002; Chandler, 2007; Fiske, 1990). On the other hand, connotative meaning is the second level of meaning which refers to the implied meanings with emotional and cultural associations (Brownell et al., 1984; Lyons, 1977). Connotative meanings are associated with individuals' class, age, gender, culture and experience (Chandler, 2007). For example, *cold* and *warm* denote temperature literally, while, *cold* and *warm* connote remoteness and intimacy respectively (Brownell et al., 1984). Miscommunication may occur when encoder and decoder do not share the same connotative meaning of a word.

Like language, clothing can be interpreted from the view of denotation level and connotation level. As for clothing, denotative meaning is more factual and emphasis on what the clothing is made of, who it was worn and where was made and so on (Barnard, 2002). Denotative meaning tends not to differ from person to person; at least, denotative meaning tends not to vary significantly between the people from the same culture and region (Barnard, 2002). Connotative meaning is more about the feeling and understanding external to the clothing (Barnard, 2002; Brownell et al., 1984; Lyons, 1977). For example, the denotative meaning of a suit is about what it is made of, when and where it was made and so on. While, the connotative meaning of a suit is the suit is suitable for workplace and signify professional, serious and so on.

Denotation and connotation can be considered as order of signification (Barthes, 1957; Hjelmslev, 1961). Semiologically speaking, denotation (both signifier and signified) is the first order of signification, while, connotation which use denotative sign (both signifier and signified) as signifier of another signified is the second order of signification (Chandler, 2007), see Figure 2.7.

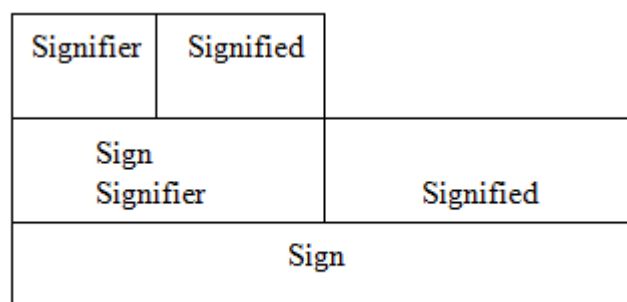


Figure 2. 7 Order of Signification (Chandler, 2007, pp.142)

The signified of the denotative sign may be various among people, for different people may have different associations for clothing (Barnard, 2002; Chandler, 2007). Because those people have different ages, genders, classes, employments and so on, they will generate different connotative meanings of the clothing (Barnard, 2002). For instance, the connotative meaning of Bikini for younger generation is sexy and fashionable, but for old generation, Bikini is immodesty. However, the people within the same cultural, class and age group may roughly have identical connotative meaning for clothing (Barnard, 2002). Connotative meaning is relatively subjective and cannot be found and understood from dictionary (Barnard, 2002). However, the connotative meaning is hard to be said incorrect or incomplete (Barnard, 2002).

As mentioned above, blue baby clothing signifies boys' clothing, while pink colour clothing signifies girls' clothing, it can be explained that pink and blue connote the gender of baby who wearing them (Barnard, 2002). The idea of pink and blue colour have connotation meaning of gender rooted in the culture so strongly that pink and blue colour can be used to denote gender (Barnard, 2002). In addition, masculinity

may be implied by trousers (Lauer and Lauer, 1980; Sawyer, 1987; Tickner, 1977). The open collar without tie may suggest that the person is in a casual setting; however, it also may have the connotation of untidiness or indication of unfitness for working (Barnard, 2002). It is obvious that denotative meaning and connotative meaning work on different levels and in different sorts of places (Barnard, 2002). Denotative meaning and connotative meaning are two types of meaning, but they are received and understood at the same time by people in daily life (Barnard, 2002). In addition, separating the denotative meaning and connotative meaning is for analyzing and explaining fashion and clothing (Barnard, 2002).

Denotative meaning and connotative meaning are like a code between wearer and beholder about the message which particular clothing conveys (Barnard, 2002; Davis, 1992; Gibbins, 1969, McCracken and Roth, 1989). The term 'code' is defined as the knowledge of clothing messages that must be shared by the wear and beholder, so that wearer could create message and beholder could understand it (McCracken and Roth, 1989). From McCracken and Roth's (1989) research, it confirmed that there exists code for interpreting clothing, and people would know certain parts of the code better than other parts of the code. Also, female know the entire clothing code better than male (McCracken and Roth, 1989).

2.3.3 Syntagm and paradigm in fashion and clothing

Meaning is the relation or the difference between signs, also, meaning derived from people's negotiations and bases on social agreement (Barnard, 2002). In semiological system, each sign consists of signifier and signified is vary from every other sign (Saussure, 1983). In addition, there are two types of difference named *syntagmatic* difference and *paradigmatic* difference (Barnard, 2002; Rapp, 2002). As the research conducted by McCracken and Roth (1989), this research also focuses on syntactical aspect of the code. Thus, this part will mainly focus on the *syntagmatic* difference.

Syntagmatic difference and *paradigmatic* difference can be applied in the meaning production in fashion and clothing (Barnard, 2002). *Syntagmatic* difference is the difference between components that construct part of the same form, sequence or construction (Matthews, 1997). Thus, in fashion and clothing, the difference between components of one garment or the garments in an outfit can be understood as *syntagmatic* difference (Barnard, 2002). While, *paradigmatic* relation refers to the relation between the components that can take the place of each other in a given sequence (Matthews, 1997). Then, in fashion and clothing, it is the difference between various shirts with different collars or different types of suits that can be chosen for an outfit (Barnard, 2002).

In a shirt, the difference between the components which are essential to make the whole shirt, like collar, sleeves, cuffs and buttons, is the *syntagmatic* difference, the difference between various types of collars, such as turndown collar, cut away collar and button-down collar, is *paradigmatic* difference (Barnard, 2002). While, in a men's outfit, the *syntagmatic* difference is the difference between the suit, shirt, trouser, shoe and so on, the *paradigmatic* difference is the difference between diverse designs of suits/shirts/trousers/shoes etc. (Barnard, 2002). The *syntagmatic* difference and *paradigmatic* difference in fashion and clothing is presented in Figure 2.8.

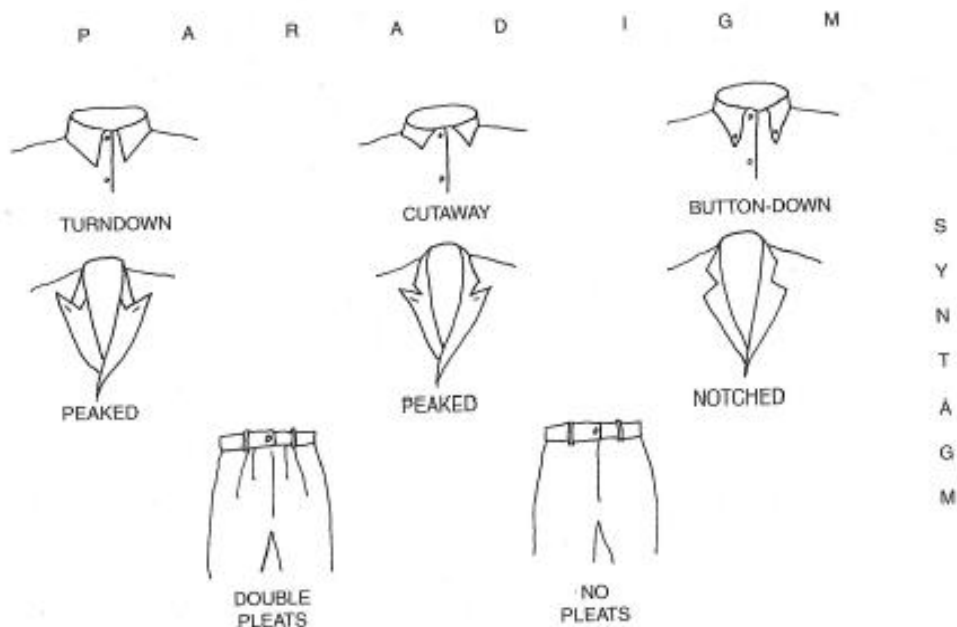


Figure 2. 8 Syntagm and Paradigm Diagram in Fashion and Clothing (Barnard, 2002, pp. 92)

From Figure 2.8, it can be seen that *syntagmatic* difference runs vertically, one needs shirt, suit and trouser to form an outfit. The *paradigmatic* difference runs horizontally, the difference between different types of collars, such as turndown collar, cut away collar and button-down collar, one must be chosen from different style collars to make a shirt (Barnard, 2002).

If meaning is the different relations between components, thus, changing relation may change the meaning (Barnard, 2002). By altering the *syntagmatic* and *paradigmatic* relations in fashion and clothing, the meaning of garment or outfit may be changed (Barnard, 2002). Leach (1976) claimed that the clothing have no meaning without context. For example, a tattersall shirt in the context of short and sandal may be considered as not right, since tattersall shirt is wrong to go with short and sandal in the *syntagmatic* and *paradigmatic* rules (Barnard, 2002). However, if a tattersall shirt goes with a jacket and trouser, a tattersall shirt would be judged right and indicates informality (Barnard, 2002). *Syntagmatic* and *paradigmatic* relations are the contexts, garments exist in the contexts and meanings derive from the contexts (Barnard, 2002).

2.3.4 Symbol function in theory of product language

Clothing fulfils the material functions such as protection, modesty, attraction as well as cultural functions like communication, individualistic expression (Roach and Eicher, 1979; Rouse, 1989; Solomon and Rabolt, 2009). The product language model makes a difference between practical function and communicative function (product language functions) (Steffen, 2009). Product language is separated into formal aesthetic functions and semantic functions according to the syntax and semantics differences in language study (Steffen, 2010). In addition, semantic functions are divided into indication functions and symbol functions due to the difference between sign and symbol (Langer, 1957; Steffen 2009), see Figure 2.9.

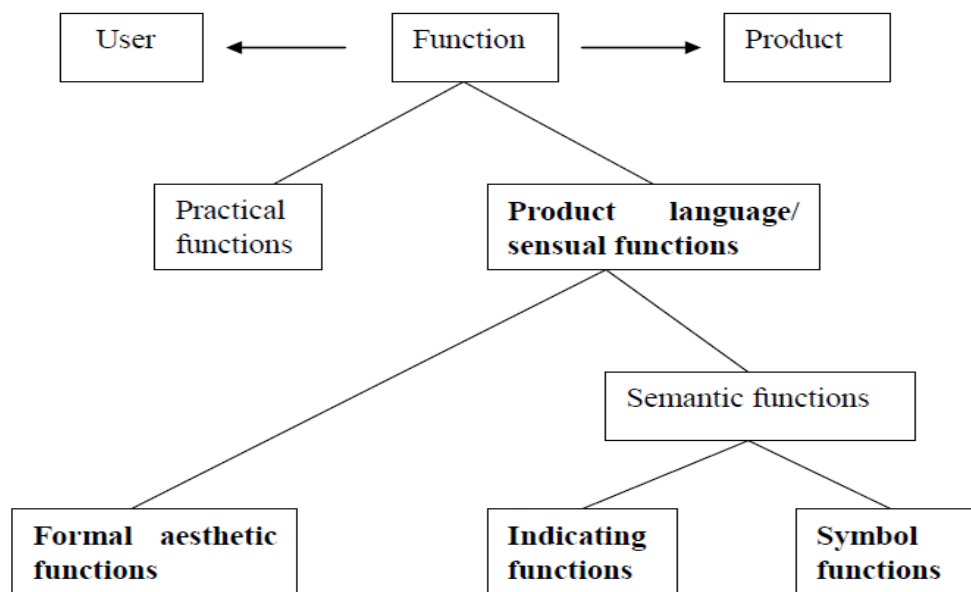


Figure 2. 9 Conceptual Model of the Theory of Product Language (Steffen, 2009, pp. 75)

This research focuses on dressing code which is associated with connotative meaning, thus, this part will only review symbol functions in the theory of product language.

As mentioned above, semantic functions are divided into indication functions and

symbol functions due to the difference between sign and symbol (Langer, 1957; Steffen 2009). Sign refers to practical function and the nature of product, while, symbol is related to the product in designer or user's imagination (Steffen, 2010). The meaning of symbol can be interpreted from both denotation level and connotation level (Brownell et al., 1984; Chandler, 2007; Langer, 1963). The difference of association is the basic distinction between sign and symbol; the sign indicates the product itself while symbol leads to the imagination of the product (Langer, 1963). Thus, the symbol functions suggest the conceptions and associations that appear in people's minds while considering a product: such as historical, cultural, societal and economical aspects (Steffen, 2009). The symbol expresses a period style or different partial styles; comprehending the culture and context is important for interpreting the meaning of a product since symbols are based on cultural and social traditions (Steffen, 2010). Moreover, associations such as old—young, strong--- weak etc. are induced by symbol functions, see Figure 2.1

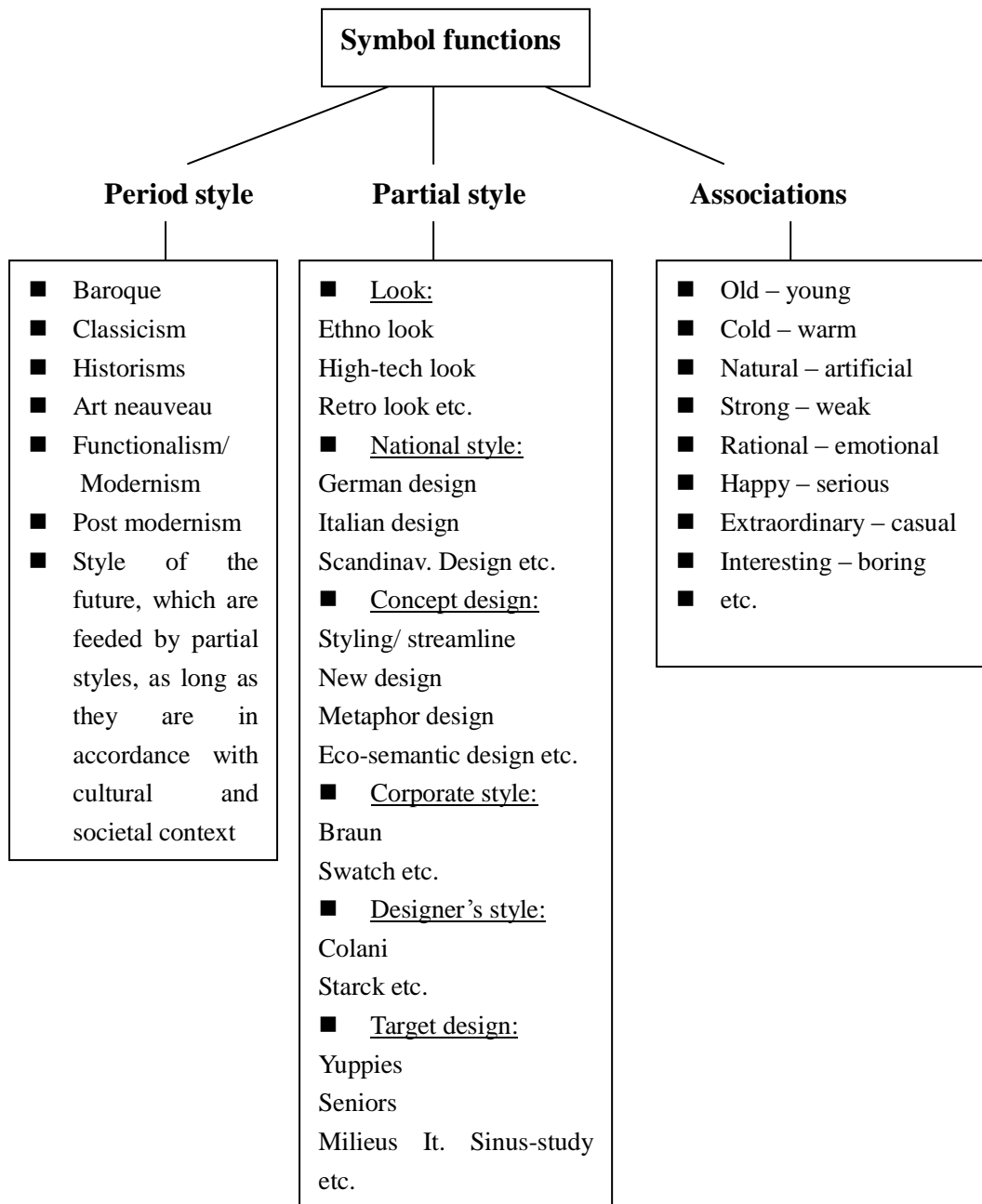


Figure 2. 10 Conceptual Model of the Theory of Product Language: the Symbol Function (Steffen, 2010, pp. 4)

The symbol functions in the theory of product language also indicate the connotative meaning of clothing, see Figure 2.11.

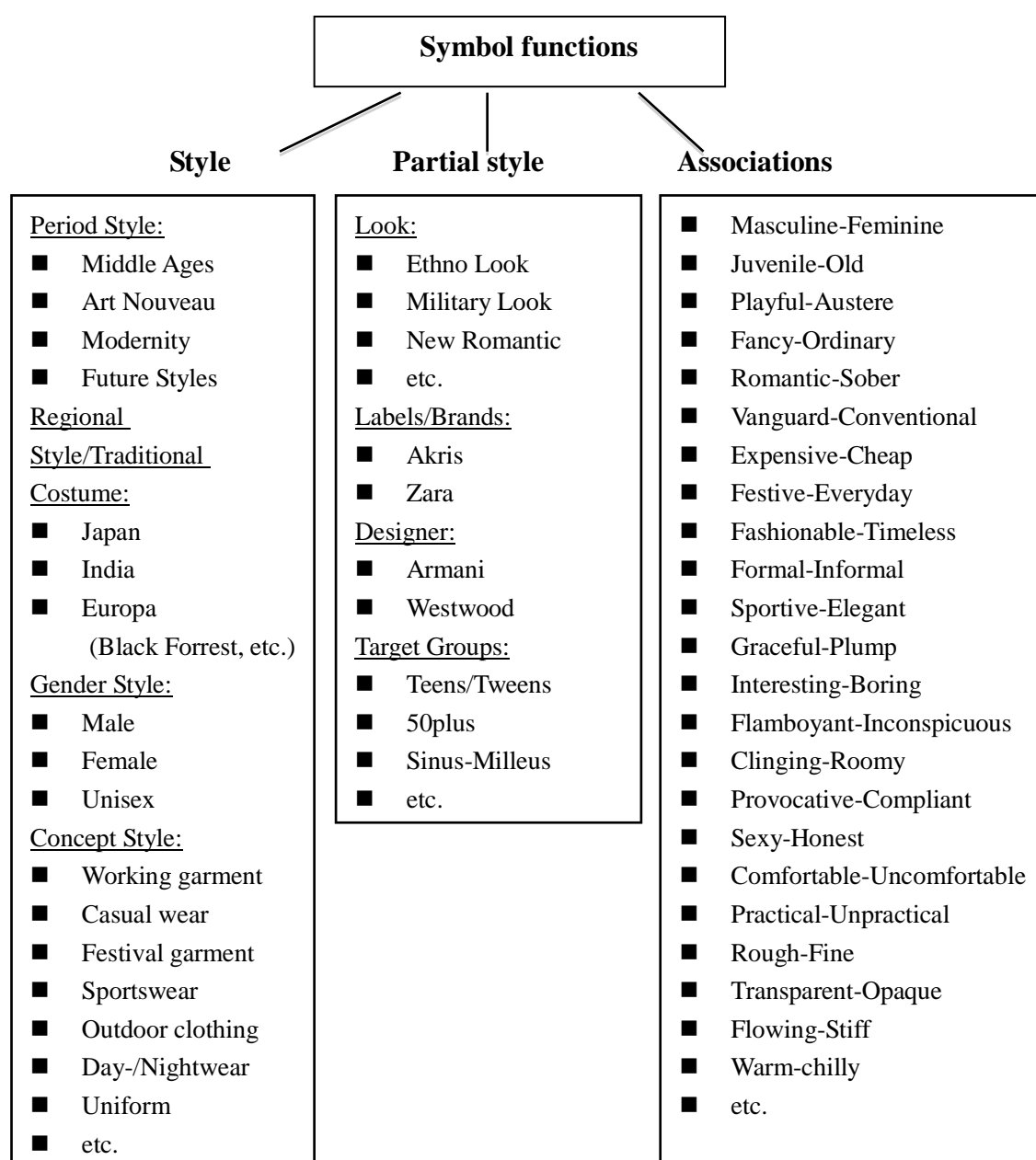


Figure 2. 11 Symbol Functions in Language of Fashion and Clothing (Adapted from Steffen, 2009)

Clothing designer should pay attention to the interplay between indication functions and symbol functions, for instance, the pockets, zippers and other details of clothing imply both practical functions and symbol functions (Steffen, 2009). Generally speaking, the functional details like waterproof fabric, windproof fabric and big pocket connote outdoor clothing; however, fancy dresses avoid such functional details (Ruckman, 2005; Steffen, 2009). In addition, another example like buttons on clothing,

the buttons is not only used to close clothing, but also might to add complexity or they are just ornamentation (Steffen, 2009). In clothing design, the improper ornament refers to the signs which look like functional details but are actually used to draw attention (Steffen, 2009).

Symbol functions can be divided into styles, partial styles and associations (Steffen, 2009). Styles include first: period styles which refer to change in time, second: regional style which are related with places, third: gender style and forth: concept styles which are concerned with social roles and activities (Steffen, 2009). In other words, individual has limited clothing styles when performing a particular social role at a particular time or at a particular place for both sexes (Steffen, 2009).

For period styles and regional styles, a Louis XIV court lady had a particular dressing style (Steffen, 2009). In addition, sex can be presented by clothing; however, gender concepts have been changed and unisex clothing is popular in Western countries (Abbey et al., 1987; Duncan, 1990; Leinbach and Fagot, 1993; Steffen, 2009). Obviously, dress, laces fabrics or flower designs connote female clothing (Steffen, 2009). The concepts are socially constructed; there is no natural bond between dress, laces fabrics, flowery designs, bright colours and female gender, or, dark colours, trousers and male gender (Barnard, 2002; Lauer and Lauer, 1980; Saussure, 1983; Sawyer, 1987; Steffen, 2009; Tickner, 1977). Thus, the gender concept of clothing is symbolism instead of indication (Steffen, 2009). Moreover, social roles, activities at occasions and occupations also can be performed by clothing, such as policeman, officer or wedding day, visiting the opera; people should wear in a way that society deems proper at that occasion (Barnard, 2002; Steffen, 2009). Thus, different concept styles of clothing present wearer's social role and activity; see Figure 2. 12 a-d, from a to d are working cloth, casual wear, festive cloth and sporty wear.



Figure 2. 12 A-D Symbol Functions in Concept Styles (Steffen, 2009, pp.78)

The dressing code of specific occasions and occupations are socially constructed, such as policeman's uniform, clothing for visiting opera and so on (Steffen, 2009). However, the dressing code may vary in different times and cultures, for instance, veils worn by women in Muslin culture, Indian female need to wear saris in public swimming pool and casual wearing like blue jeans are permitted in opera nowadays (Kaiser, 1997; Steffen, 2009). It is obvious that the symbolic meaning is specific for special culture and time and not unchangeable (Du et al., 1997). Thus, designers have to pay special attention to particular time and culture, for colours, materials, shapes etc. have different associations in different cultures and times (Steffen, 2009). It also can be explained from semiological view that the relationship between signifier and signified is arbitrary and symbol belongs to semantic networks (Chandler, 2007; Du et al., 1997; Normand, 2004; Saussure, 1983). However, the relationship is not completed arbitrary and not individual choice, it needs to be accepted by others and follow social agreement (Barnard, 2002; Normand, 2004; Saussure, 1983). For instance, men are still unwilling to wear pink or lace because they notice the female connotation or gay connotation of lace and pink colour (Barnard, 2002; Normand, 2004).

Partial styles include looks, labels/brands, designers, target groups and so on; the co-existing partial styles are more about individual choice (Steffen, 2009). Looks,

such as New Romantic, military look, ethno look etc. make people distinguish from style; it is not rooted in places, times or values, but to express imagination and admiration (Steffen, 2009). In addition, labels/brands are considered as landmarks among products (Steffen, 2009). Brands such as Chanel, Benetton or Levis have strong connection with their clear values, with their brand heritage, with a way of particular lifestyle and distinct imagery through image building and brand promotions in mass media (Gommans et al., 2001; Laroche et al., 2013; Steffen, 2009;). Thus, textile designers and fashion designers should be familiar with the brand heritage and company values, and convert them into brief symbolism in order to emphasize the brand values and preserve the brand heritage in public (Aaker, 2004; Hakala et al., 2011; Steffen, 2009; Urde et al., 2007). It should show cultural continuity and improvement at the same time (Steffen, 2009). Coca Cola serves as a good example, the coke name, bottle and logo are so well-known that almost everyone alive today can recognise it (Beasley and Danesi, 2002; Hakala et al., 2011).

Unlike the brands which designers are anonymous like North face, Haute-Couture concept is exclusive custom-fitted clothing and based on famous designers who distinguish clothing by unmistakable design (Steffen, 2009; Troy, 2003). Personalities like Vivienne Westwoods, Coco Chanel and Christian Dior created partial styles that were more influential (Steffen, 2009). Groundbreaking design ideas are needed in future fashion industry, and normally these innovative designers became a brand themselves (Steffen, 2009). Furthermore, target group is a crucial part of partial group. Designers have to consider age groups, lifestyle groups and so on (Steffen, 2009). Fashion design and clothing design for different groups is not only a matter of size and cost but also the meaning of clothing has to meet different values and tastes for each target group (Steffen, 2009).

Besides styles and partial styles, associations have to be taken into account. Associations are the foundation of complex symbolism and create styles and partial styles through semantic vocabulary (Steffen, 2009). Fashion and clothing can be

characterised as adjectives like ‘young’, ‘sober’ or ‘elegant’ etc. which help to capture the feature or personality of clothing (Steffen, 2009).

2.4 Theory about identity

Social identity theory (Tajfel, 1981) and identity theory (Stryker, 1980; Stryker and Burke, 2000) are two foundational theories about identity.

2.4.1 Social identity theory

Tajfel (1981, pp. 251) defines social identity as “part of the individual’s self- concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership”.

Social identity theory focuses on categories, collective self, groups and intergroup processes (Brewer 2001; Hogg and Ridgeway 2003; Hogg et al. 1995; Korte 2007; Stets and Burke 2000; Stryker and Serpe, 1982). This theory believes social identity is mainly derived from group membership (Brown, 2000). The meaning of group in social identity theory is a collective of similar people (Hogg and Ridgeway 2003; Hogg et al. 1995; Stets and Burke 2000). Having a social identity means an individual being a member of a particular group (e.g. organizations, clubs), and the members of this particular group have similar opinions, consider things from the same perspective and behave like each others. Having a social identity is a symbol that an individual belongs to a particular social group (Kang et al., 2011; Korte 2007; Stets and Burke 2000). In addition, social identity also makes the individual have a sense of belongingness to somewhere (May et al. 2004).

Clothing can play a role in social identity communication, for example, wearing a team shirt (Kang et. al., 2011). Social identity theory has been used in research focusing on group-based identities (e.g. men or women, different ethnic groups) generating discussion surrounding social groups (Goby, 2004; Jacob and Cerny, 2004;

Mosher et al., 2006; Schofield and Schmidt, 2005).

2.4.2 Identity theory

Identity theory is the other approach to understanding identity (Stryker, 1980; Stryker and Burke, 2000). From the perspective of identity theory, individuals play different social roles, thus, individuals have multiple identities that are tied to different social roles (Stryker, 1980; Stryker and Burke, 2000). From this point of view, identity refers to a set of internalized meanings and expectations for a social role (Kang et al., 2011). Identity theory emphasizes on how social role influences identity and how identity influence social behavior. Researchers used identity theory with focused on role-based identities (Arthur, 1997; Arthur 2006; Collett, 2005; Guiry et al., 2006). Identity is composed of a social and a personal component in identity theory. Identity is social for every person, since it is based on the social roles individuals fill (e.g. parent, student) (Kang et al., 2011). Meanwhile, internalization makes identities unique for every person (Kang et al., 2011). Internalization means the degree that each person has involved in the meanings and expectations tied to a social role or position (Kang et. al., 2011).

The degree of internalization of a social role differs between each person, not every social role a person involves in can become a part of self (Kang et. al., 2011). For instance, doctor is a social role. There are agreed meanings related to the role, such as caring person, intelligent person and professional person, as well as expectations for their behaviors, such as being patient, helpful and kind to patients. The role becomes an identity for the person and becomes a part of the person if he or she internalizes the meanings and expectations for a doctor. Individuals can decide which social meanings and expectations of a role they want to involve and to what extent they want to involve (Kang et. al., 2011).

Through this particular individual process, the result can be individuals that do not involve the meanings and expectations of a role at all, which means individuals do not

consider a role as a part of his or her self-definition and do not view that role as one of their identities (Kang et. al., 2011). In other words, one could consider working as a doctor as a way to make a living; not as part of who he or she is. On the other hand, the role could be viewed as part of who he or she is and one of many identities (Kang et. al., 2011). Applying this opinion of identity to this research, the term work identity could be used to figure out internalized meanings and expectations the individuals hold for a role in workplace and considered work identity as a potential part of one's self-definition (Kang et. al., 2011).

Individuals with salient work identities viewed their work roles as a prominent part of self-definitions; thus, they make great efforts to successful role enactment (Stryker, 1980; Stryker and Burke, 2000). For different occupational roles, people have particular expectations for the clothing and appearance; work clothing can be a way to promote role enactment (Rafaeli et al., 1997). Thus, compared with the ones with non-salient work identities, individuals with salient work identities may spend more efforts on choosing and wearing the “correct” clothing to enact work identities (Kang et. al., 2011). Individuals with salient work identities perhaps experience appearance labour as they choose clothing to express a work identity and may suppress other identities (Kang et. al., 2011).

However, from the Kang et al.'s research (2010), there is no clear connection between salience of work identity and their efforts spend on choosing work clothing and using work clothing to communicate work identity. Not all the participants with salient work identities are necessarily connected to a high level of importance to work clothing (Kang et. al., 2011). Similarly, some of participants with less salient work identities also indicated the importance of work clothing and actual use of work clothing (Kang et. al., 2011).

2.5 Symbolic self-completion

Symbolic self-completion theory (Wicklund and Gollwitzer, 1982) is another way to investigate relations between one's work identities and clothing. The theory suggests that when individual feel incomplete in an identity, they may obtain the significant related with that identity in order to achieve completeness (Kang et. al., 2011; Wicklund and Gollwitzer, 1982). If self-symbolizing is to occur, one needs to be committed to an identity (Wicklund and Gollwitzer, 1982). For instance, when a person is entering into a new professional role, the person is in the procedure of building or changing a work identity and feels unsafe or unstable in the new position during this identity developing procedure (Kang et. al., 2011). The one may feel incomplete in the new role for many reasons, such as lacking of professional knowledge, having no confidence and so on (Kang et. al., 2011). As a result of feeling incomplete, the one may choose the clothing and other symbols related with the new role in order to improve the feeling of completeness (Kang et. al., 2011). Likewise, a person who feels complete in a new professional role and work identity may not change clothing or may feel unnecessary to wear particular clothing related with the role (Kang et. al., 2011).

These rules of symbolic self-completion theory also supported by other researches about the relationships between clothing and ethnic identity (Crane et al., 2004) and clothing and sorority identity (Arthur, 1997). Crane et al. (2004) interviewed self-defined Scottish Americans, and found that the people who considered their Scottish ethnicity as an inherent component of their self-definitions employed clothing to construct their ethnic identity. Crane et al. (2004) also claimed that the use of clothing to signify identity decreased when individuals became confident in the identity. In addition, Arthur (1997) found that the new members prefer to use clothing and other symbols to represent identity and construct their sorority identities, then they paid less attention on it when they became matured in the group and feel complete in that identity.

2.6 Work clothing

Clothing plays an important role in establishing identities as well as in influencing self-perceptions (Kang et. al., 2011). Kwon (1994) analyzed the influence of clothing on the self-perceptions of occupational features within university students. In general, participants believed that wearing proper clothing could improve perceived attributes such as responsibility, competence, knowledge, and professionalism (Kwon, 1994). In addition, male participants generally supposed that clothing was influenced by self-perceived attributes and clothing interests (Kwon, 1994). For instance, men who considered themselves as competent strongly believed that wearing proper clothing could enhance their competence than the men who did not consider themselves as competent. On the other hand, female participants did not think many attributes could be improved by wearing appropriate clothing, and clothing was not influenced by self-perceived attributes and clothing interests (Kwon, 1994).

In other researches, Dellinger (2002) found clothing influenced both self-perceptions and performance of editors and accountants in magazine. Magazine editors who were viewed as “creative staff” expressed that wearing suits at work made them feel stifled (Dellinger, 2002). Their self-expression abilities decreased when wearing this type of clothing. However, “conservative staff” accountants claimed that wearing business suits at work made them feel professional (Dellinger, 2002).

In addition, Peluchhette and Karl (2007) investigated how different types of clothing affected self-perceptions of MBA students. Dressing impressions have particular impacts on high self-monitors, managers and executive positions (Peluchhette and Karl, 2007). Participants’ feelings of authority, competence and trustworthiness can be enhanced by wearing formal clothing. While, wearing informal or business casual clothing may improve participants’ feelings of friendliness, wearing informal clothing made participants feel less productive than wearing business casual clothing (Peluchhette and Karl, 2007). In addition, compared with men, women paid more

attention to clothing and experienced more “appearance labour” (Peluchhette and Karl, 2007).

Other researches show that individuals use workplace clothing to achieve particular outcomes. Rafaeli et al. (1997) found that female administrative employees influence other’s impressions and behaviours by selecting their workplace clothing. Similarly, Rucker et al. (1999) claimed that university employees managed their workplace clothing in order to get job promotion chance and employees connected clothing like business suits or sports jackets to outcomes like powerful impressions. Besides, in Peluchhette and Karl’s research (2007) with MBA students, results showed that students who valued work clothing tend to use clothing to manage other’s impressions and obtain power and influence. Peluchhette and Karl (2007) also found that participants who believed workplace clothing can manage other’s impressions supposed that work clothing influenced their workplace outcomes (promotions, raises etc.) in a positive way. Kang et al. (2010) indicated that participants had clear expectations for outcomes about what they wear in workplace, such as upward mobility, influencing other’s impressions, improving self-perceptions and performance and avoid negative outcomes.

2.7 Summary

This chapter reviewed the existing linguistic concepts used in fashion area as well as theories related to fashion and identity. It begins with the illustration of fashion and clothing functions from the perspective of material functions and cultural functions. In addition, the sign in fashion and clothing and denotative and connotative meaning in fashion and clothing have been reviewed. Then, the meaning in fashion and clothing from syntagmatic relation and symbol functions in the theory of product language have been discussed. Furthermore, this chapter also reviewed the theories about identity and workplace clothing with many related researches done before.

From the concepts and theories reviewed in this chapter, it can be concluded that the linguistic concepts applied in fashion and clothing is very limited. This research will re-apply the “code theory” in fashion and clothing. Importantly, this research will try to discover the relationships between the use of clothing and work identity only within Chinese young employees from the gender difference perspective, and make a comparison with the researches done before which focus on westerners.

Chapter Three Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will review the existing literatures on research methodologies. In addition, this chapter endeavours to give the explanation of chosen research methodology and techniques for this research.

It is suggested that the choice of research methodology and techniques in a particular research mostly depends on the research aims and objectives (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2009). Thus, it is necessary to briefly recap this research's aims and objectives before explaining adopted research methodology, see table 3.1.

Table 3. 1 Research Aims and Objectives

Aims	To explore the communicative function of clothing and the use of clothing in relationship to work identity from the perspective of Chinese young employees.
Objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● To examine and review the existing academic literatures on language-like property and communicative function of clothing, identity, symbolic self-completion and work clothing ● To examine whether or not clothing interpretation is informed by a code with focus on Chinese young professional employees ● To explore Chinese young professional employees' perceptions and the use of clothing in relationship to their work identities. ● To fill the gap in the knowledge of communicative function of clothing, perceptions and use of clothing in relationship to work identity with focus on Chinese young employees.

The structure of Chapter 3 is presented in Figure 3.1.

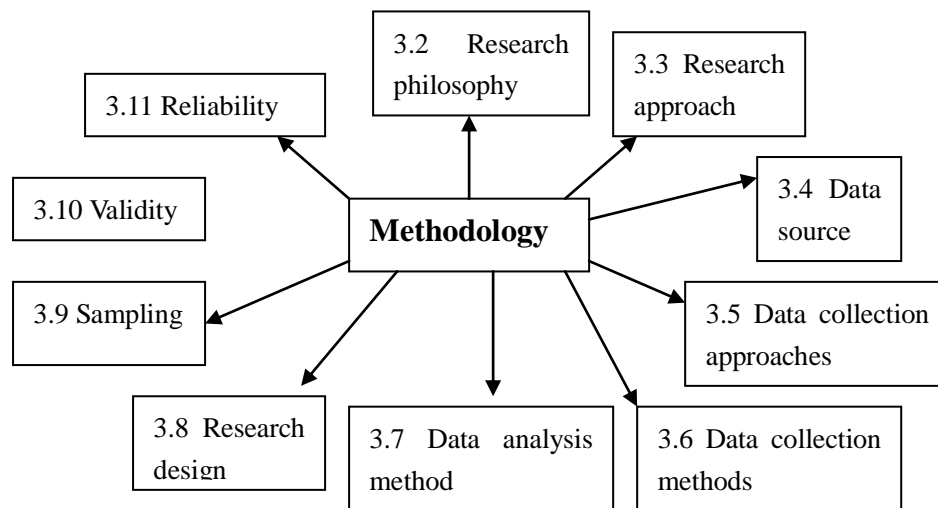


Figure 3. 1 The Structure of Chapter 3

3.2 Research Philosophy

The understanding of research questions, the chosen methods and interpretation of findings are shaped by how a researcher assumes human knowledge and nature of realities confronted in the research (Crotty, 1998). The assumptions about the way a researcher views the world can be reflected by the researcher's adoption of research philosophy (Saunders et al., 2012). Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) argue that understanding research philosophy is a crucial part of research methods from three aspects.

Firstly, research philosophy can enable researcher to figure out a proper research design which includes collection of required evidence, analysis of data and how evidence justify research questions.

Secondly, research philosophy helps researcher to recognize which research design will work.

Last but not least, research philosophy suggests how to adjust research design according to the restraint of different subjects.

There are many types of research philosophies in social sciences that can be used to help researchers to shape research techniques and methods to apply (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Ontology and epistemology are two major thinking about research philosophy (Saunders et al 2012).

3.2.1 Ontology

Ontology is about “the essence of phenomena and the nature of their existence” (Gill and Johnson, 2010, pp.200). Bryman and Bell (2007) also claimed that ontology is deal with the nature of entities. In addition, Easterby-Smith et al. (2008, pp. 60) defined ontology as “the assumptions made about the nature of reality”. There are two aspects of ontology: objectivism (or realism) and subjectivism (or constructionism, or relativism) (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Easterby-Smith et al., 2008; Saunders et al., 2012).

The key idea of objectivism (or realism) is social realities and social meanings exist “external to and independent of social actors” (Saunders et al., 2012, pp.131) and independently of people’s perceptual structure (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). In addition, it implied that social reality is out of people’s reach and influence (Bryman and Bell, 2011). From objectivism stance, the world is concrete and the science proceeded through observation (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008).

On the other hand, subjectivism (or constructionism, or relativism) indicates that social phenomena are constructed from the perceptions of social actors and that reality is socially constructed (Saunders et al., 2012). From the viewpoint of subjectivism, ideas are only considered as “true” after debating and discussing by people (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). Thus, social phenomena are produced through social

interactions and are revised constantly (Bryman and Bell, 2011). People may have different interpretations on the same situation depend on their own view of the world (Saunders et al., 2012). The perceptions are related to each person's relationship with the situation instead of absolutist view of the world (Saunders et al., 2012).

3.2.2 Epistemology

Epistemology is about what is regarded as acceptable knowledge in a field of study (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Saunders et al, 2012). In other words, epistemology is about how to define the concept "truth" and how to justify whether or not a claim is true or false (Gill and Johnson, 2010). The main issue in this context is whether or not the world can be understood through the same theory or principle (Bryman and Bell, 2011). The choice of a specific epistemology stance usually directs researcher to adopt research methods (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). Again like in ontology, there are two extreme epistemological approaches: positivism and interpretivism (Bryman and Bell, 2011.)

Positivism indicates the researcher will adopt the stance of the natural scientist to study social reality (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Saunders et al, 2012). Positivism is concerned with the phenomena that can be directly observed (Gill and Johnson, 2010). Hypotheses can be draw from existing theory and the hypotheses will be tested and confirmed (Saunders et al, 2012). Researchers are likely to collect data about reality which is observable since reliable data only can be produced by observable reality (Saunders et al, 2012). The natural world is following certain fixed laws is the basic belief of positivism (Malhotra and Birks 2007). Positivism emphasizes on facts which lead to focus on objectivity and measurement (Malhotra and Birks 2007). The "facts" enable to establish principles which can predict and explain phenomena (Malhotra and Birks 2007).

On the other hand, interpretivism claims that "it is necessary for researcher to understand differences between humans in our role as social actors" (Saunders et al, 2012, pp.137). The strategy reflects the distinctiveness of people and respects the differences between

people and the objects of natural sciences (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Interpretivism focuses on adopting the subjective meaning of social actions (Bryman and Bell, 2011). From the viewpoint of interpretivist philosophy, it is crucial for researcher to adopt an empathetic stance and understand people's world from their standpoints (Saunders et al, 2012).

3.2.3 Research philosophy adopted

As mentioned the objectives of this research above, objectivism and positivism could not support the essence of this research since there is no deep theories in whether or not clothing interpretation is informed by a code and the relationship between young professional employees' perceptions, use of clothing and their work identities with focus on Chinese. Therefore, subjectivism is adopted since dressing code is not naturally bonded and is socially constructed (Steffen, 2009). In addition, the meaning of clothing is derived from people's negotiations and bases on social agreements (Barnard, 2002). Subjectivism is more proper for exploring people's different interpretations on the situation depend on their own view of the world (Easterby-Smith et al 2008; Saunders et al., 2012).

Additionally, interpretivism is adopted since this research is to understand people's different interpretations rather than focusing on establishing principles which can predict and explain phenomena within all circumstances. And interpretivism respects the dynamic nature of science and differences between people and the objects of natural sciences (Bryman and Bell, 2011). However, previous theories are still applied to direct the flow and observation of the research, which may restrict the nature of the research (Malhotra 2007).

3.3 Research approach

This part will review deductive approach and inductive approach. In addition, the research approach adopted in this research will be illustrated as follow.

3.3.1 Deductive approach

Deduction is defined as “a form of reasoning in which a conclusion is validly inferred from some premises, and must be true if those premises are true” (Malhotra and Birks 2007, pp. 160). If deductive approach is employed, the research begins with theory which often developed from the academic literatures, and a research strategy is designed to test the theory (Saunders et al, 2012). Positivist often builds the reasoning of approach through deductive approach (Malhotra and Birks 2007).

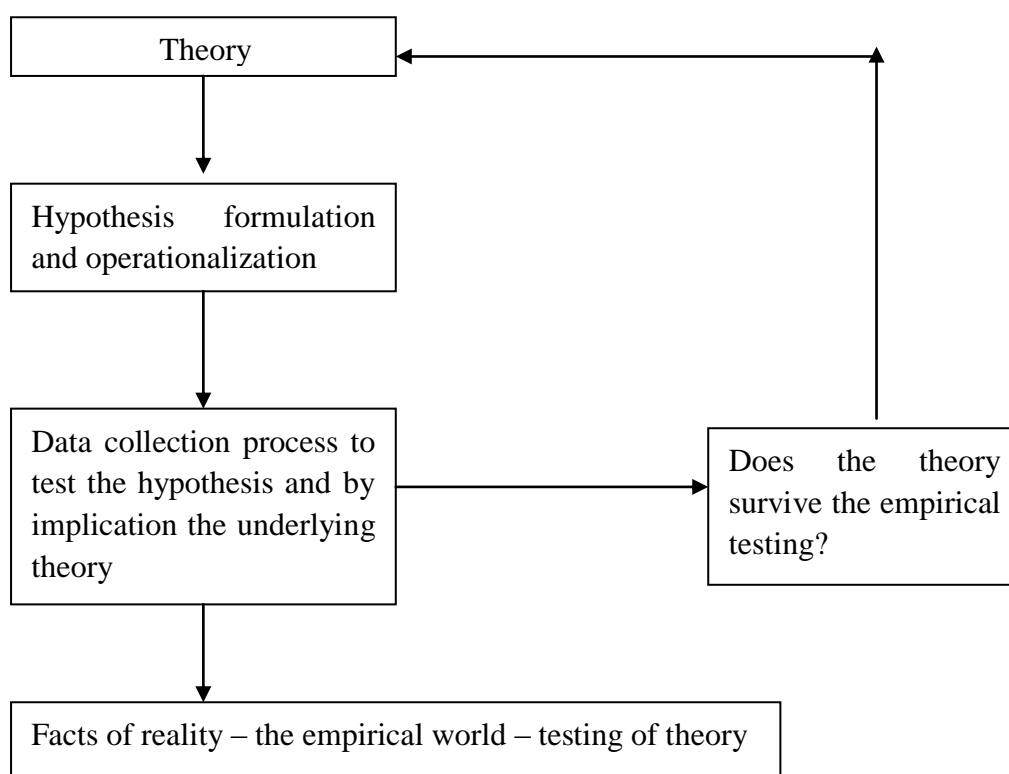


Figure 3. 2 Process of Deductive Logic (Gill and Johnson, 2010, pp.47)

Figure 3.2 illustrates deduction is based on well-developed theory which provides a guidance for researcher (Malhotra and Birks 2007). The research enquiry is derived from the existing theoretical framework, then, hypotheses are formulated and variables are identified (Malhotra and Birks 2007). The hypotheses usually are tested by collecting quantitative data (Malhotra and Birks, 2007), then, data are analyzed, if the results are not consistent with premises, the theory is rejected or modified and

started again; if the results are consistent with premises, the theory is valid (Saunders et al, 2012).

3.3.2 Inductive approach

Inductive approach is opposite with deductive approach. Induction is defined as “a form of reasoning that usually involves the inference that an instance or repeated combination of events may be universally generalized” (Malhotra and Birks, 2007, 161). That is, inductive approach begins with collecting data to explore a phenomenon and theory is generated from the results of data analysis (Saunders et al, 2012). Interpretivist often employs inductive approach (Malhotra and Birks, 2007) to understand the nature of problem better (Saunders et al, 2012).

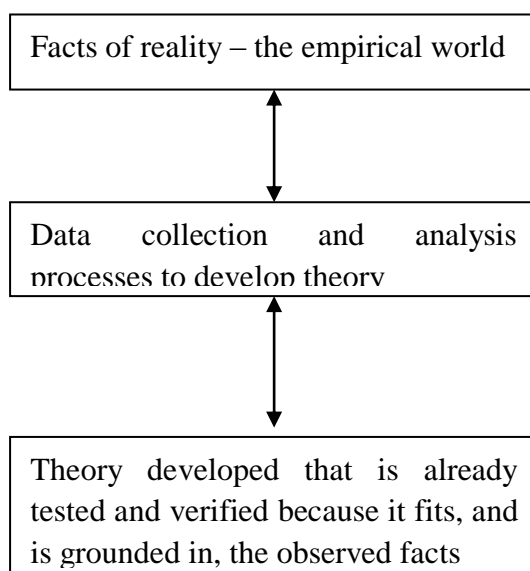


Figure 3. 3 The Inductive Development of Theory (Gill and Johnson, 2010, pp.56)

Figure 3.3 presents the inductive development of theory. The inductive approach begins with identifying an enquiry area based on reality with little theoretical framework and the enquiry is observed from participants in particular contexts (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). For the data collection process, the theme is analyzed through observation, focus groups or in-depth interview, and researchers develop a theory or model based on the occurrence and connection of phenomena (Malhotra and

Birks, 2007).

3.3.3 Research approach adopted

It is hard to say this research employed pure deductive approach or pure inductive approach. Both deductive approach and inductive approach are adopted in this research. This research examines whether or not clothing interpretation is informed by a code and explores professional employees' perceptions and the use of clothing in relationship to their work identities. This research re-tested the clothing code theory developed in McCracken and Roth's (1989) research and the relationships between work clothing and work identity in Kang et al.'s (2010) research.

However, McCracken and Roth's (1989) research and Kang et al.'s (2010) research focused on westerners. And this research examines whether or not clothing interpretation is informed by a code with focus on Chinese young professional employees and explore Chinese young professional employees' perceptions and the use of clothing in relationship to their work identities. More importantly, this research endeavours to make a comparison between the results from westerners and Chinese and try to develop a clothing code theory and establish a relationship between work clothing and work identity from the perspective of Chinese which could help the fashion retailers and managers to promote work clothing better for Chinese young employees.

3.4 Data Sources

Primary data and secondary data are two types of data sources are used in research methods (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). The main advantages and disadvantage of primary data and secondary data will be explained in this part.

3.4.1 Primary data

The definition of primary data is "data originated by a researcher for the specific

purpose of addressing the problem at hand” (Malhotra and Birks 2007, pp.94). The researchers need to look for informants and collect data depends on the particular research problems (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). Primary data can be collected by using experiments, observations, surveys (questionnaires) and interviews (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005).

The chief advantage of primary data is that the data are more consistent with the research problems and research objectives (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). Only the primary data can help the researchers to find out people’s attitudes, intentions and reasons behind consumer behaviours (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). However, there are some significant collections’ problems exist in primary data. Firstly, the researchers need to get access to the field and regulate the interactions with informants (Thietart, 2001). Secondly, the quality and scope of the information gathered from primary sources fully depend on the willingness and ability of informants (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). Thirdly, the researchers have less control in data collection, thus, unexpected factor may influence the efficient data collection. (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). This research collected primary data to explore whether or not clothing interpretation is informed by a code with focus on Chinese young professional employees and explore Chinese young professional employees’ perceptions and the use of clothing in relationship to their work identities.

3.4.2 Secondary data

Secondary data is explained as “data that have already been collected for purposes other than the problem at hand” (Malhotra and Birks 2007, pp.94). Secondary data is essential for finding information to better understand and explain the research problems (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). Thus, the researchers should analyze relevant secondary data before carrying out the primary research (Malhotra and Birks 2007).

The primary advantage of secondary data is easy to get access, saving time and money (Malhotra and Birks 2007), and the information and conclusions are more

reliable (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). Moreover, secondary data provides a comparison instrument with interpreting and understanding primary data (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). The main drawback of secondary data is the data of another research with different aims and objectives may not fully fit researcher's problems (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). Also, the data collection method of secondary data may not be proper for current research problems (Malhotra and Birks 2007). Another problem is that if the secondary data is ambiguous or contradictory, it is hard to go back to the source to clarify it (Thietart, 2001). Secondary data employed in this research in order to generalize primary finding and this research made a comparison between primary findings and previous findings.

3.5 Data collection approaches

When researchers decide to collect primary data, the researchers need to choose the data collection approach. Primary data can be collected through quantitative approach and qualitative approach, by using experiments, observations, surveys (questionnaires) and interviews (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). The choice of data collection depends on what type of data is suitable for the particular research problems (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). According to Malhotra and Birks (2007), secondary data, primary qualitative data and primary quantitative data are all suitable for exploration and description research; however, primary quantitative data is also proper for experiment research, see Figure 3.4.

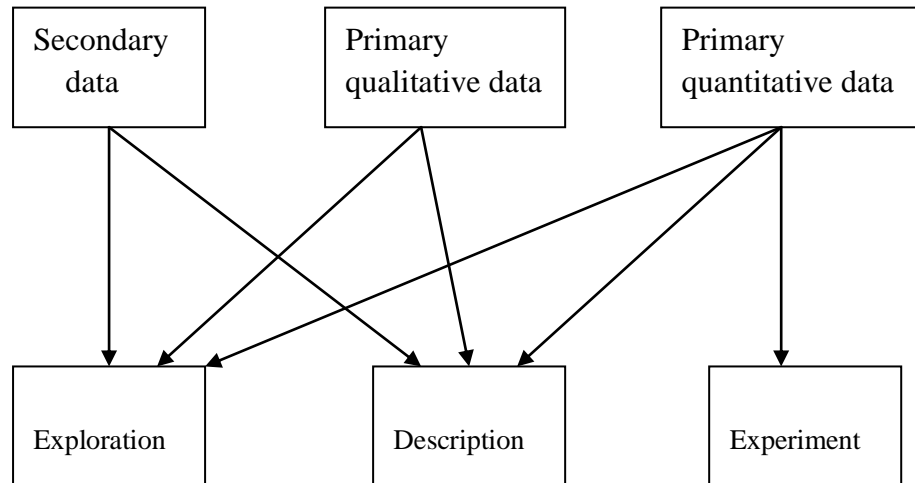


Figure 3. 4 A Classification of Market Research Data (Malhotra and Birks, 2007, pp.152)

3.5.1 Quantitative approach

Malhotra and Birks (2007) define quantitative approach as a research technique that aims to quantify data and some form of statistical analysis is applied. The most distinct feature of quantitative data is that the evidence presented in the form of numbers (Easterby-Smith et al, 2008). Quantitative research is often used to answer particular hypotheses and research problems using descriptive or experimental techniques (Malhotra and Birks 2007). The main difference between qualitative and quantitative research is the procedure, findings are arrived at by statistical methods or other quantification procedures in quantitative research (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). In other words, quantitative researchers employ measurement but qualitative researchers do not (Bryman and Bell, 2011). It is generally believed that quantitative research results are more objective than qualitative research results (Thietart, 2001).

However, quantitative research is less flexibility in collecting data due to the rigid process, for it is difficult to modify the research questions if the questionnaire has been sent out (Thietart, 2001). In addition, the relationships between variables derived from quantitative approach make social life static and make social life desperate from

people's lives (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

3.5.2 Qualitative approach

Qualitative approach is defined as “an unstructured, primarily exploratory design based on small sample, intended to provide insight and understanding” (Malhotra and Birks 2007, pp. 152). Qualitative research is usually used to present detailed descriptions, understand thought process and motivations of consumers (Malhotra and Birks 2007). In addition, qualitative data are words rather than numbers (Thietart, 2001). The qualitative researchers need to avoid biases, analyze critically and obtain valid and reliable information (Ghuri and Gronhaug, 2005). The qualitative approach is in a more flexible manner which let the informants to express their views (Malhotra and Birks 2007) and the results are drawn from the field, since the research questions can be changed (Stake, 1995).

However, qualitative approach is believed too subjective on considering what is important and qualitative research is hard to conduct a true replication (Bryman and Bell, 2011). In addition, the result form qualitative research is restricted since it is hard to say the small number of informants can represent the whole population (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Moreover, qualitative research lacks transparency about what researcher really did and how researcher arrived at the conclusions (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

3.5.3 Data collection approach adopted

Quantitative approach is mainly adopted in this research. Quantitative approach is used to develop a general idea about the clothing code as well as the correlations between work clothing and identity (both identity salience and identity completeness). Most of meaning and code studies have employed qualitative approach, however, the semiotic study of code does not restrict to qualitative approach, and quantitative approach should be a part of meaning research (Mick, 1986). Thus, this research

employed quantitative approach to explore the clothing code with focus on Chinese young employees as well as the relationships between work clothing and identity (both identity salience and identity completeness).

As mentioned above, the relationships between variables derived from quantitative approach make social life static and make social life desperate from people's lives (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Thus, qualitative approach is partially employed in this research by employing open-ended questions in order to examine attitudes, uncover motivations and understand consumers' feelings (McDaniel and Gates, 2007). In addition, the results from qualitative approach are used to re-test and support the relationships between work clothing and identity (both identity salience and identity completeness).

3.6 Data collection methods

There are some data collection methods relating to quantitative and qualitative research, for instance, questionnaire, interview, observation and focus group (Easterby-Smith et al, 2008). This research employed self-completed questionnaire with open-ended questions.

3.6.1 Self-completed questionnaire

Questionnaire is an important way of collecting data of a large number of people (Easterby-Smith et al, 2008). The questionnaire is a traditional way of a survey approach and is considered as the most popular method of quantitative research, (McDaniel and Gates, 2007). A questionnaire is a list of designed questions to generate data which are necessary for achieving the objectives of the research (McDaniel and Gates, 2007). Questionnaire standardizes the wording and sequence of the questions and every participant see the identical questions (McDaniel and Gates, 2007).

Questionnaire includes self-completed questionnaire and interviewer-completed questionnaire, see Figure 3.5 (Saunders et al., 2012). Self-completed questionnaire are completed by informants and could be sent out by internet, by post or deliver by hand (Saunders et al., 2012). On the other hand, interviewer-completed questionnaire is conducted by telephone or face to face structured interview (Saunders et al., 2012).

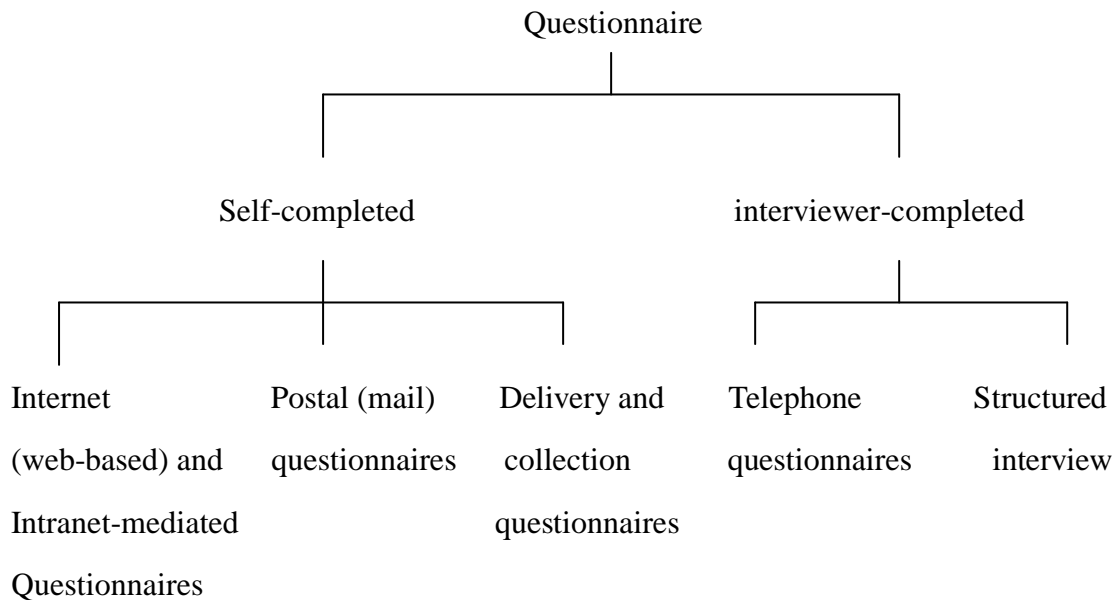


Figure 3. 5 Types of Questionnaire (Saunders et al., 2012, pp.420)

This research employed self-completed questionnaire with open-ended questions to explore whether or not clothing interpretation is informed by a code with focus on Chinese young professional employees and explore Chinese young professional employees' perceptions and the use of clothing in relationship to their work identities. Compared with interviewer-completed questionnaire, such as structured interview, self-completed questionnaire is time-saving and money-saving since it could be sent out by internet, by post or deliver by hand (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Easterby-Smith et al, 2008). In addition, interviewer does not present when respondents do the self-completed questionnaire and respondents could do a questionnaire at their own time and speed, thus, interviewer effects are eliminated in this data collection method (Bryman and Bell, 2011). However, there are some disadvantages of the

self-completed questionnaire. Firstly, researcher could not help respondents if they have any question or difficulty about the questionnaire (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Secondly, it is difficult to ask a lot of questions and other kinds of questions, because long questionnaire are not feasible and the questions that are not salient to respondents should be avoid (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Thirdly, the response rate may be low since there is no personal contact with the respondent to encourage the cooperation (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Easterby-Smith et al, 2008). Fourthly, researcher has little control over the survey, thus checking the quality of data is essential (Easterby-Smith et al, 2008).

3.6.2 Open-ended questions

Additionally, this self-completed questionnaire employed some open-ended questions. Open-ended questions are usually used in in-depth interview and semi-structured interview, while in questionnaire, open-ended questions are included when researcher are unsure about the response or unwilling to specify the response categories previously (Remenyi et al., 2002; Saunders et al., 2012). Open-ended questions could provide detailed answers enable respondents to express their opinions in their own words (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Saunders et al., 2012).

Closed questions are typically used in questionnaire, but, open-ended questions do have advantages. Firstly, respondents could answer the questions in their own words and allow unusual answers to be derived (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Secondly, there is no certain kinds of answers are suggested to respondents, thus, the respondent's knowledge and understanding of issues could be explored (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Thirdly, it is helpful to explore new areas when research has limited knowledge (Bryman and Bell, 2011). However, open-ended questions present some disadvantages. Firstly, open-ended questions require effort from respondents since they need to write much longer than closed questions (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Remenyi et al., 2002). Secondly, analysis of open-ended questions is very

time-consuming, because the answer is in a form of words which needs to be analyzed qualitatively. However, this research employed open-ended questions to explore respondents' detailed opinions in order to support the relationships between work clothing and identity (both identity salience and identity completeness).

3.7 Data analysis methods

This research adopted self-completed questionnaire with open-ended questions. There are different methods for researcher to analyze quantitative data and qualitative data. This section mainly reviews the stages in qualitative data analysis and content analysis for qualitative data analysis, while, frequency analysis, correlation between variables are reviewed for quantitative data analysis.

3.7.1 Stages in qualitative data analysis

The meanings in qualitative data are derived from words rather than numbers, thus, the qualitative data is more ambiguous and complex (Saunders et al, 2012). Qualitative data need to be processed before it is able to address the research objectives and answer the research questions (Saunders et al, 2012). Coding is an essential part of dealing with qualitative data analysis (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). There are 4 stages in qualitative data analysis, see Figure 3.6.

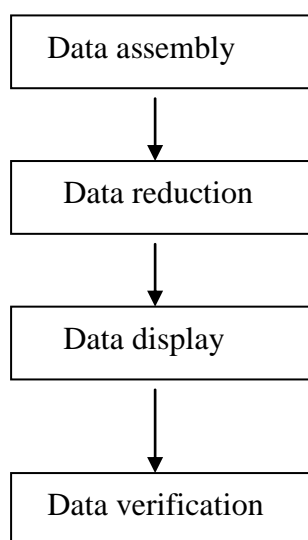


Figure 3. 6 Stages of Qualitative Data Analysis (Malhotra and Birks, 2007, pp.237)

Data assembly is to gather data from different sources, such as the notes during interviews, audiotape recording and so on (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Data reduction is about organizing and structuring of the data (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). The data need to be transcribed into written words at the beginning (Saunders et al, 2012). Then, the data which are irrelevant with the topic need to be throw away (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Data reduction involves data coding which means breaking down the data into different categories and attaching a reference to each category (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Data display is to sum up information and present data in graphs, charts or networks (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Data verification includes finding alternative explanations through other theories and proving the meaning of collected data is valid (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

3.7.2 Content analysis

A popular data analysis technique for open-ended question is content analysis (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Remenyi et al., 2002). Content analysis is “an approach to the analysis of documents and texts that seeks to quantify content in terms of predetermined categories and in a systematic and replicable manner” (Bryman and

Bell, 2011, pp.289). In addition, Berelson (1952, pp.18) defines “content analysis is a research technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication”.

For every open-ended question, researchers need to read through respondents’ answers and formulate key words and phrases which they counted, and then the frequencies will be analyzed (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Easterby-Smith et al, 2008). The selection of key words and phrases depends on the hypothesis or each question (Easterby-Smith et al, 2008; Bryman and Bell, 2011). Then, coding frame is designed to identify the types of answer related to each question and their unique codes (numbers) (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Content analysis is relatively a flexible and transparent research method (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

3.7.3 Quantitative data analysis

SPSS is adopted in the quantitative data analysis. Frequency analysis and correlation between variables are employed in this research.

Frequency distribution analysis is the easiest one which is “a mathematical distribution whose objective is to obtain a count of the number of responses associated with different values of one variable and to express these counts in percentage term” (Malhotra and Birks, 2007, pp.448). This research employed frequency distribution to explore the clothing code.

In order to test the existence of clothing code, non-randomness test needs to be applied. Equal response in each look was expected. Thus, chi-squared test was employed to determine whether the differences from randomness are significant or not (McCracken and Roth, 1989).

Correlation is another important measurement. Pearson correlation is to “consider the

joint variation in two measures” and “exam the strength of the linear relationship between two variables” (Ghuri and Gronhaug, 2005). This research employed Pearson correlation to test the relationship between work clothing and work identity. Pearson correlation coefficients range from -1 to +1 which indicates the negative correlation or positive correlation (Pallant, 2005). The absolute value of coefficients indicate the strength of relationship, the correlation of -1 or +1 means the value of one variable can be exactly determined by the other variable value, on the other hand, a correlation of 0 indicates there is no relationship between two variables (Pallant, 2005).

Stepwise regression is employed to test the different degree in clothing code among different people. The demographic variables (gender, age, working time and education) are considered to affect the knowledge of clothing code. Stepwise regression is adopted due to the existence of high correlation nature between independent variables (Andreasen and Belk, 1980), for instance, age and working time correlate at $r= 0.73$.

3.8 Research design

Research design is a framework for carrying out the research and specifies the procedures for collecting the information needed to solve the research problems (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). This section claims data collection approach, target audience, size of sample and brief outline of topics of the questionnaire.

In this research, questionnaire with open-ended questions is employed to collect primary data. The target audience of this research is only the people who were employed full time in professional occupations that do not need to wear uniforms in China. This questionnaire is to explore whether or not clothing interpretation is informed by a code with focus on Chinese young professional employees and explore Chinese young professional employees’ perceptions and the use of clothing in relationship to their work identities. This questionnaire involved three parts:

demographic questions, clothing code and clothing at work in relationship to work identity.

The demographic questions include gender, age, employment, working time and education which are adopted from Shoyama et al.'s (2003) research on Japanese and Korean ideas about clothing colours for elderly people and Kang et al.'s (2010) research on men at work: using dress to communicate identities. For the clothing code part, this research adopted "graduated photo-sort" method from McCracken and Roth's (1989) research. This method could examine syntactic and syntagmatic aspects of code without asking semantic meanings (McCracken and Roth, 1989). In addition, this method could present clothing combination that display degree of the code from well-formed messages to ill-formed messages, and the respondents who can identify the well-formed messages can be confirmed that they know the code, while the respondents who cannot identify it can be said not to know the code (McCracken and Roth, 1989). Moreover, "graduated photo-sort" method could generate the degree of accuracy of response which is more manifesting (McCracken and Roth, 1989). There are 4 looks (Punk, Preppie, Suburban Leisure, and Heavy Metal) adopted from McCracken and Roth's (1989) research, presented in Figure 3.7. These 4 looks can be featured from different perspective: Punk look is considered as fashionable but not mainstream and inexpensive; Preppie look is fashionable, mainstream and expensive; Suburban leisure look is classified as mainstream but not fashionable and inexpensive; Heavy metal look is featured as not mainstream, not fashionable and inexpensive (McCracken and Roth, 1989). All the clothing versions were determined through consultation between experts (McCracken and Roth, 1989). However, the name of different looks will not be mentioned in the questionnaire. The 4 looks are presented in colour photos in questionnaire.

Look 1

Punk

Black sleeveless T-shirt



Black leather belt



Black chino pants



Red socks



Doc Martin boots



Alternative Shoes

Heavy black shoes



Heavy dress shoes



Scuffed sneaker



Sandal



Look 2

Preppie

Blue lacoste shirt



Brown leather belt



Khaki pants with cuffs



No socks

Top siders shoes



Alternative Top

Madras



Gingham check



Adidas T-shirt



Black T-shirt



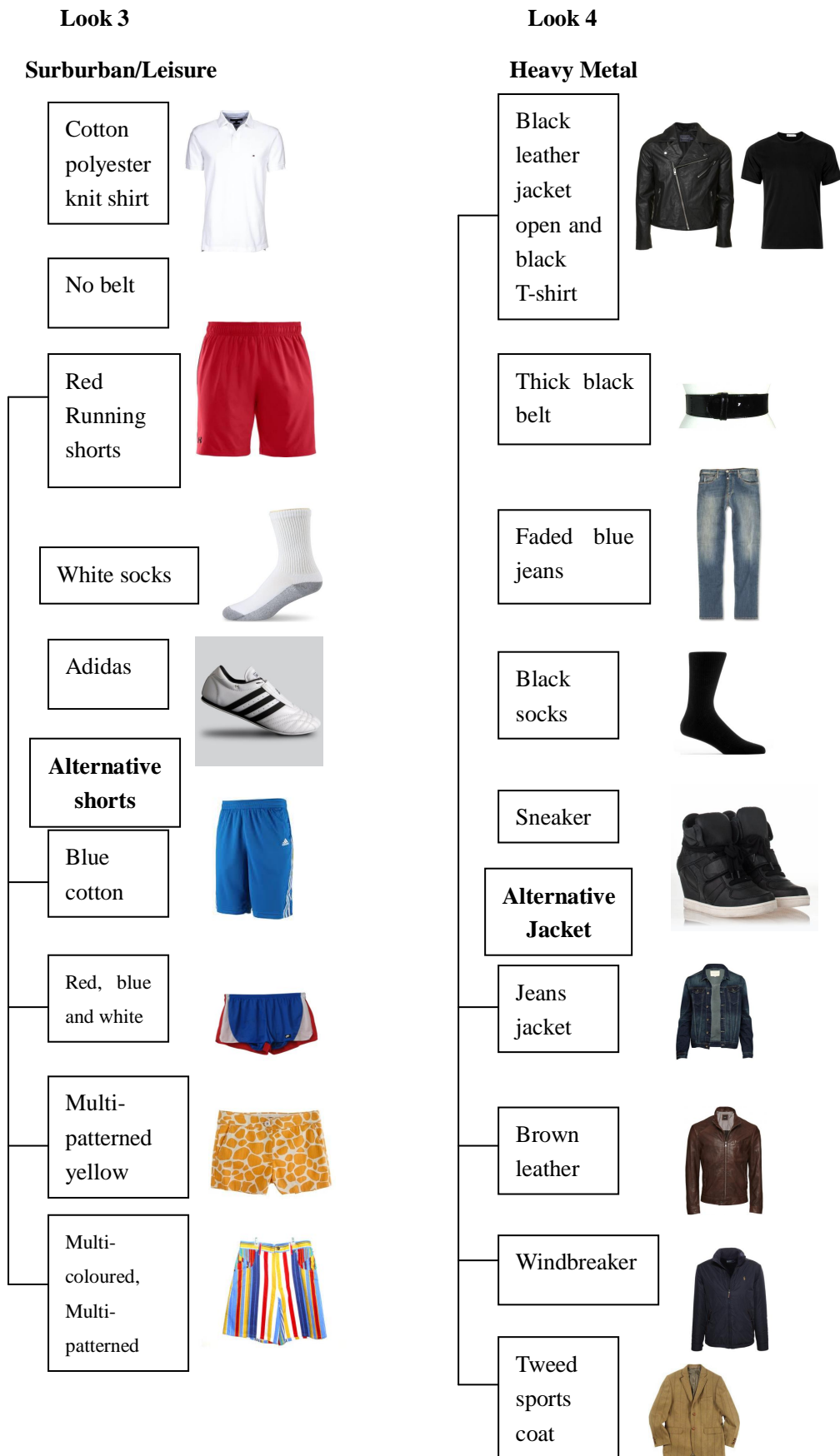


Figure 3. 7 Four Looks and Substitutions (Adopted from McCracken and Roth, 1989)

In questionnaire, the first photo which is the well-formed version of code will be presented to respondents firstly, then the respondents will be told that this is a man dressed in a particular way and if the man dressed in the same way, except the shoes/ shirts/ shorts/ jackets is different, there are 4 more options for alternatives, please rank the shoes shirts/ shorts/ jackets in 1 to 4 order, 1 means this shoes is the one that is the most likely to have in the man's wardrobe, otherwise, 4 means the shoes is the one that is the least likely to have in the man's wardrobe (McCracken and Roth, 1989). The first alternative photo is virtually the same with the well-formed version, the second is a slightly wrong version, the third one is obviously wrong version and the last one is totally the most ill-formed version (McCracken and Roth, 1989). Thus, the 1234 order is the most correct version of code, the respondents who can identify 1234 order can be said to know the code, while 4321 is the most wrong order (McCracken and Roth, 1989). In total, there are 24 combinations and the order of correctness is decided by stepwise rule: the more correct combination should have a lower number than another combination in the same column, beginning with left columns (McCracken and Roth, 1989). In data analysis, these 24 categories were collapsed to 12 by grouping the first two and the following two into combine groups in order to reduce the number of categories (McCracken and Roth, 1989).

For the work clothing and work identity part, all the questions are adopted from Kang et al.'s (2010) research. The questions about relationships between salience of work identity and work clothing are guided by identity theory, while, the questions regarding relationships between completeness of work identity and work clothing are guided by symbolic self-completion theory (Kang et al.'s, 2010). Some of the questions are open-ended questions which included their ideas about appropriate work clothing, the clothing they will never wear at work and so on. The English version questionnaire, Chinese version questionnaire and data collection tool are presented in Appendix 1, Appendix 2 and Appendix 3 respectively.

3.9 Sampling

This part reviews the definition and classification of sampling, and sampling technique adopted in this research is illustrated.

3.9.1 Definition and classification of sampling

Malhotra and Birks (2007, pp. 405) define sample as “a subgroup of the elements of the population selected for participation in the study”. Sampling can save time and money (Saunders et al, 2012), and using sampling can get a higher overall accuracy than census (Barnett, 2002). Because the data collection is more manageable and results will be available more quickly if fewer data involved in research (Saunders et al, 2012).

There are two types of sampling techniques: probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Probability sampling is the procedure that each one of population has the same probability of being selected for the sample (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Non-probability sampling does not use chance selection and it bases on the personal judgment of researcher (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

3.9.2 Sampling technique adopted

Non-probability sampling includes quota sampling, purposive sampling, snowball sampling and convenience sampling (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Purposive sampling is involved in this research. Purposive sampling means that researchers need to use their judgment to select participants that can answer the research questions and meet the research objectives (Saunders et al, 2012). In this research, the target audience of this research is only the people who were employed full time in professional occupations that do not need to wear uniforms in China. There are 166 participants involved in questionnaire research.

3.10 Validity

Validity refers to whether or not “you are observing, identifying, or ‘measuring’ what you say you are” (Mason, 1996, pp.24). Validity is an important part of the research, since the questionnaire is invalid if the questions do not measure what they are designed to measure (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Validity of the questionnaire could be assessed in its content validity, criterion validity or construct validity (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). And the validity can be assessed during questionnaire design. Each question should be carefully assessed if it is valid in the area of research (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

In this research, in order to improve the validity of this research, the research is carefully designed to enable participants to answer the research questions. The questionnaire involved three parts: demographic questions, clothing code and clothing at work in relationship to work identity. The existing theories and results from previous researches on clothing code and work clothing and identity also ensure this research’s validity.

3.11 Reliability

Reliability is considered as a fundamental concern about consistency issues of measures (Bryman and Bell, 2011). For clothing code part, “graduated photo-sort” method is from McCracken and Roth’s (1989) research, which ensure the reliability of this research.

Quantitative internal reliability refers to “whether or not respondents’ scores on any one indicator tend to be related to their scores on the other indicators” (Bryman and Bell, 2011, pp. 158). The calculation of the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of a scale is often to be used to test internal consistency (Pallant, 2010). In this research, for quantitative analysis part, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient is 0.882 which is over the ideal Cronbach Alpha co-efficient 0.7 (Hair et al. 2006), see Table 3.2.

Table 3. 2 Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	No. of scale items
.653	8

In addition, the pilot test will be conducted before carry out the whole research to test whether it is effective for gathering appropriate data by using this method (Silverman, 2006). Since this study is focus on Chinese consumers, the answers for open-ended questions will be in Chinese. The transcription of data should be done carefully in order to avoid any misunderstanding.

3.12 Summary

In sum, this research is subjective in nature and interpretivism is adopted since this research is to adopt an empathetic position and understand interviewees' world from their viewpoints (Saunders et al, 2012). Both deductive and inductive research approach are adopted and enable the researcher to draw a theory from the results of data analysis (Saunders et al, 2012). Quantitative research (questionnaire with open-ended questions) could generate whether there is clothing code with focus on Chinese young employees and their perceptions and uses of work clothing in relationship to work identity. Moreover, before carrying out the research, a pilot test will be conducted to test the effectiveness of collecting feasible data (Silverman, 2006). After data collection, data analysis by using SPSS and data coding are adopted to categorize the data according to the objectives of this research. As for the research audience, there are 166 participants involved in questionnaire research, all the participants are found through purposive sampling technique.

Chapter Four Results and Discussion

4.1 Participant characteristics

There are 166 Chinese young employees involved in the questionnaire research. Among the 166 respondents, there are 89 male respondents and 77 female respondents. More than 90% of respondents belong to the age group 18-34. In addition, the majority of the respondents' work experience is less than six months to two years, at 54.2%. Moreover, most of respondents are undergraduate degree or equivalent and master or higher degree, at 93.4%. As for the percentage of monthly income spend on workplace clothing, the majority of participants responded they spent 5% to 20% of their incomes on workplace clothing.

The sources of influence on what to buy to wear at workplace are different. The majority of participants prefer media as the source of ideas, such as magazines, films and fashion blogs. In addition, retailer resource like merchandise display and retailer website is also an important way to gather information. Some participants also reported the company dressing code and co-workers influence their decisions on purchasing work clothing.

Participants claimed that they use different types of retailers for shopping work clothing. The most desirable type of retailer is department stores, followed by specialty stores, discount stores, factory outlets, designer shops and off-price retailers. As for types of retail channels, although online shopping is extremely popular, brick and mortar store shopping is still the most frequently used retail channel. Almost no participant used television shopping. From above information about participants' clothing consumption behaviours, it is no doubt to say that participants are active consumers for work clothing.

4.2 Clothing Code

This research examined clothing code from paradigm level. The results confirm the first hypothesis: the code for interpreting clothing exists within this sample. The data show the rate of clothing code agreement is high. The majority of participants agree with the high accuracy code interpretation of all looks. The distribution of data show decline from high accuracy to low accuracy. Table 4.1 represents this relationship.

Table 4. 1 Accuracy by Looks

Look	Accuracy												Total response	Chi square	df.	Significance
	High											Low				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12				
Suburban	67	30	47	4	6	0	5	1	3	1	1	1	166	343	10	p<0.000
Heavy metal	57	35	10	7	16	3	8	13	8	0	3	6	166	181	10	p<0.000
Punk	44	72	5	2	5	1	22	4	1	3	3	4	166	391	11	p<0.000
Preppie	37	39	22	5	7	2	6	15	17	5	6	5	166	130	11	p<0.000
Overall	205	176	84	18	34	6	41	33	29	9	13	16	664	885	11	p<0.000

In addition, chi-squared test rejects the null hypothesis and indicates the differences are significant both for overall looks and individual look. There is high agreement of clothing code interpretation and strong evidence of existence of clothing code. It indicates that the different combination of particular clothing signify particular look. Clothing has symbol function and can be understood from denotative meaning.

4.2.1 Clothing code interpretation

It seems that members within this sample have better knowledge of certain parts of the code than the other parts of the code. In other word, certain part of the code, individual look in this research, are more readable than the others.

From the data above, the best-known look within this sample is the “Suburban leisure” look. 67 out of 166 participants (40.4%) ranked the items as order 1234 or 1243, which are the first of 12 possible categories. Most of the ranks appear at the high accuracy end and decline rapidly as one moves to the low accuracy end.

The second best-known look is the “Heavy metal” look. 57 out of 166 participants (34.4%) chose the first of 12 possible categories, which also represents in table 1. Still, strong trend appears at the high accuracy end. However, the first response category percentage is less than that of “Suburban leisure” look.

The readability of “Punk” look reduced dramatically. Only 26.5% of participants scored the first of 12 categories. However, if the first and second of 12 categories are considered together, the percentage increases to 69.8%.

The least readable look is “Preppie” look, only 37 out of 166 (22.2%) scored the first of 12 categories. In addition, the data distribution is flatter than the other looks.

It can be noted that the best known looks are the inexpensive looks. The top three looks (“Suburban leisure”, “Heavy metal” and “Punk”) are all inexpensive looks. In addition, the first two most readable looks are featured as un-fashionable looks. The least readable look, “Preppie”, is classified as fashionable and expensive. Thus, it can be concluded that expensive looks are less readable than inexpensive looks; meanwhile, un-fashionable looks are more readable than fashionable looks. However, mainstream looks do not necessarily related to high readability. The most readable look “Suburban leisure” belongs to not fashionable, inexpensive and mainstream, while, the least readable look belongs to fashionable, expensive but also mainstream.

The “Suburban leisure” is the most well-known look in this community. The inexpensive feature makes this look more popular and has more wearers. And un-fashionable means this look could last long than fashionable looks. Last but not least, the nature of mainstream enables this look have many wearers.

The same with “Suburban leisure”, “Heavy metal” is a look with high visibility as well. It is inexpensive and not fashionable; these features give this look the advantages of having more wearers, being long presence and being popular. However,

this look is not mainstream look which means it is welcomed within young people (McCracken and Roth, 1989). Popular within young people makes it more visible in public places. Moreover, the “Heavy metal” look is unique and could draw attention from others.

The “Punk” look is not welcomed within community due to the feature of not mainstream and fashionable. Compared with “Heavy metal” look, the fashionable feature of “Punk” look makes it less recognised.

The “Preppie” look is the least readable look due to it is fashionable and expensive, which makes this look less popular and have less visibility within community. However, this look is classified as mainstream but it is still with low recognition.

Clothing dose have a language like property and communication function. But, interpretation of clothing code is quite different from the interpretation of language. And there are significant differences between the communicative function of language and clothing. Obviously, not all the looks are well recognised, and the knowledge of clothing code is much less than the knowledge of language. It is due to language users have more access to language code while clothing wearers have less access to the information of clothing code. Since people have many ways to get instruction in language using, such as school, media and etc. As for clothing code, the information sources are partially, subjectively, unsystematic and limited to one’s observation of clothing (McCracken and Roth, 1989).

In addition, language users can use “metalingual” capacity, which means language users can use the language code to get more information about the code itself, for instance, “what do you mean by saying the word x” (McCracken and Roth, 1989). The language users can give account of the meaning of the language code they are using as well. However, clothing code does not have “metalingual” capacity; it cannot be used to talk about itself and clothing wearers are difficult to discuss the meaning of

their clothing (McCracken and Roth, 1989). Thus, it is hard to get information about clothing code and difficult for clothing wearers to present the meaning of their clothing. Thus, special cares need to be taken when interpreting clothing code.

4.2.2 Clothing code with demographic characteristics

It is suggested that some members of the community know the entire clothing code better than the other members. Thus, this part mainly takes the demographic characteristics (gender, age, work time and education) into consideration.

Table 4. 2 Results for Stepwise Regressions of All Looks

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	B Coefficient	T - Value	Significant
Correctness All Looks				
R Square = 0.52	Gender	- 4.22	- 3.00	P<0.003
P<0.00	Constant	19.91	20.72	P<0.000

From Table 4.2, it can be seen that only gender is proved to be significant ($p < 0.000$). It indicates that females are significantly better than male in reading the entire looks. Females are more sensitive about both language communication and non-linguistic communication. It suggests that certain social characteristic gives individual greater interest in gathering clothing code information or enables individual get better access to clothing code information.

For language interpretation, people encode a wide range of information with code. On the other hand, for clothing code interpretation, people tend to encode clothing information according to their own gender, age and other status. Thus, the people within the same cultural, class and age group may roughly have identical connotative meaning for clothing (Barnard, 2002). And the knowledge of clothing code depends on one's social location and opportunities to observe clothing code.

4.2.3 Comparison with McCracken and Roth's research (1989)

Generally speaking, the results of this research confirm the research done by McCracken and Roth (1989). These two researches indicate the existence of clothing code and the clothing code distribution are uneven, which means the clothing code is not uniformly mastered.

For the 4 looks are selected in this research, the interpretation of 4 looks are quite similar in these two researches. The two most readable looks are the same: "Suburban leisure" and "Heavy metal". However, the top one readable look in McCracken and Roth's research (1989) is "Heavy metal" while the top one readable look in this research is "Suburban leisure". These two looks are both inexpensive and un-fashionable, but "heavy metal" is classified as not mainstream while "suburban leisure" is considered as mainstream look. It suggests that the mainstream looks are more well-known within Chinese young employees. Individuals are likely to know more about the code with mainstream, inexpensive and un-fashionable features. These features make it more popular, more accessible and more long-lasting in society.

The rank of the least two readable looks are exactly the same in these two researches: "Punk" and "Preppie". The fashionable feature makes these two looks less visible in community. The expensive characteristic makes "Preppie" the least readable look even "Preppie" belongs to mainstream.

In addition, these two researches claim some members of the community know the entire clothing code better than other members. McCracken and Roth's research (1989) proved that age, gender and offspring are significant variables for entire looks. For age, younger people are better than older people in reading the looks. For gender variable, females are better in reading the looks than males. For offspring, the people without children are better in recognizing the looks. When considered age and gender as combination, men are worse in reading looks than women, but young man is better

than old woman in look reading. As for age and offspring combination, when people are young, having children influences their knowledge of clothing code negatively. However, the influence of offspring has less impact on older people. For the combination of sex and offspring, both male and female with children are less experienced in reading clothing code than male and female without children. However, the reading clothing code ability of male with no child is relatively the same with female with children.

From the data collected within Chinese young employees, only gender is proved to be significant. It indicates that females are significantly better than male in reading the entire looks, which confirm the finding from McCracken and Roth's research (1989). Other demographic characteristics do not approved to be significant in reading clothing code within Chinese young employees. More participants may need to be involved in further research to find the relationships between ability of reading clothing code and other characteristics like age, education and offspring etc.

4.3 Relationships between work identity and work clothing

In order to examine the relationships between work identity and work clothing, it is necessary to test whether the participants have work identities or not. From the response of how important is your current job in defining yourself, no one rated "no important". The participants replied at least with "slightly important" in defining themselves. Thus, it is can be concluded that all participants have work identities.

Participants' answers about proper work clothing, efforts to adopt proper work clothing and efforts to avoid inappropriate work clothing were analyzed to figure out the relationships between work identity and work clothing. 156 out of 166 participants claimed the existence of proper work clothing and gave the descriptions of proper work clothing. 10 of the participants responded that there is no standard and no requirement in their workplaces.

Among the participants have proper work clothing in their workplaces, the majority of participants indicated that business casual, formal wear and smart casual are the proper work clothing. And specific items are mentioned, like shirts, leather shoes, formal dresses, high heels etc. Below are some statements from participants.

*“Yes. Just dress in a **smart** way. For example, dress with middle heel shoes. I prefer white or black. My work is not quite routine every day. Sometimes I need to go out to meet clients in other company. This way of dressing makes me look **professional**, but also **comfortable**.”* (Account manager, female)

*“Yes, **formal wear** is suitable for workplace, like **white shirts, black suits, and black leather shoes**. Co-workers and clients will judge you by your dressing style, since it reflects your company image and your attitude.”* (CEO, male)

However, the participants work in design related jobs considered proper work clothing should express their creativity, like the comments below:

*“Yes. There is no strict dress code as I work as a member of the design team. In design companies, the freedom of attire allows employees to be more **creative**.”* (Designer, male)

Participants considered these clothing as proper work clothing for several reasons. The reasons were coded as four groups: professionalism, comfortable, creativity and company image. The themes are reflected in below statements.

*“Everyone dresses in a **smart-casual** manner, allowing for **individuality** whilst maintaining **company image**. I think it is important to have a degree of formality in dress sense, as it represents a kind of respect towards your work and your colleagues.”* (Manager, male)

*“Yes, **business casual**, I think dressing Black & White is a good way, because it looks more **professional**.”* (E-business, female)

It is no doubt that professionalism is the dominant reason which was mentioned by the majority of participants. Among the participants have proper work clothing in their workplaces, the majority of participants indicated they spend efforts to wear the proper clothing. They believed co-workers and clients judge a person by work clothing in some way, since first impression is important and work clothing reflect your attitude and taste. For the participants who are put less efforts on getting proper work clothing, most of them considered it is time consuming, do not like shopping or their personal ways of dressing is proper for their workplaces as well.

All the participants are very clear about what types of clothing they never wore at workplaces. From participants' responds, the “never worn” clothing is the opposite of what kinds of clothing they described as proper. For example, a participant claimed that black and white are proper for workplace and reported he never wore bright colour clothing at workplace. In addition, a participant considered formal wear or business casual as proper clothing at workplace stated he never wear shorts, slippers miniskirts and sportswear at workplace. The following quotation explains this idea.

“Sportswear, shorts, and flip flops are quite unsuitable and not professional to meet clients.” (Accountant, female)

From the analysis above, it can be found that participants considered work clothing as a medium to communicate certain characteristics to others, which reflect the culture and symbol function of clothing. In addition, the certain characteristics may associate with their roles at workplaces, such as being creative and professional. Thus, participants try to express their work identities by wearing proper work clothing.

4.3.1 Comparison with Kang et al.'s research (2011)

Although Kang et al.'s research (2011) is conducted with male; the findings of this research are relatively the same. Both researches confirmed the existence of proper work clothing, and business casual, formal wear are the mainstream of proper work clothing.

From the results of Kang et al.'s research (2011), participants suggested professionalism, confidence, creativity and company representative are the main reasons to identify proper work clothing. Professionalism, creativity and company representative are also the main reasons to identify proper clothing within Chinese young employees, however, confidence are seldom mentioned in this research. Chinese young employees considered comfort as the fourth feature of proper work clothing.

The same with this research, Kang et al.'s research (2011) indicated that participants have clear ideas about the inappropriate clothing for work, which are mainly the opposite of what they considered as proper work clothing. Both researches confirmed participants used work clothing as a way to communicate certain identities.

4.4 Work identity salience and work clothing

Of the total 166 participants, 96 participants claimed they have highly salient work identities while 70 participants with less salient work identities. The correlations between work identity salience, effort put on adopting proper work clothing, importance of work clothing at work and agreement about communicative function of work clothing are analyzed, see table 4.3 below:

Table 4. 3 Pearson Correlation about Work Identity Saliency

	Effort on adopting proper work clothing	Importance of work clothing	Agreement with Communicative function of work clothing
Work identity saliency Pearson correlation	.330**	.288**	.184*
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.017

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 3 indicates that the correlations between work identity saliency and effort put on adopting proper work clothing, importance of work clothing, agreement with communicative function of work clothing are significant. All correlations are positive. Additionally, the correlation between work identity saliency and effort put on adopting proper work clothing shares the largest coefficient with 0.33 which indicates the relationship is stronger than the others. This correlation indicates that people with highly salient work identities are more likely to put efforts on adopting proper work clothing, consider clothing is important at workplaces and believe work clothing communicate certain traits and work identities to others.

This relationship is also supported by the qualitative data from questionnaire. Among the participants have highly salient work identities, the majority (n = 90) answered that work clothing is very important. They are willing to put efforts on adopting proper work clothing and actively use work clothing as a medium of communication. Participants agreed with the opinion that you are what you wear. This view is presented as below:

*“Dressing correctly and professionally for work not only helps you to **concentrate** but also shows others that you are **dedicated** to your job and position.”* (Accountant, male)

*“The clothing shows your **work spirit and professionalism**; wearing appropriate clothing also gives you **confidence**.”* (Consultant, female)

However, a few of participants (n = 6) in highly salient work identity group claimed work clothing is not that important and rarely use clothing to communicate their work identities. They may express their salient work identities through other ways, like arrive early or attitude for work.

*“I do not think work clothing is important at workplace. Wearing **comfortably** is the first thing. People will not judge you by your clothing. How well you accomplish your **work** is much more important than what you wear at workplace.”* (Research assistant, male)

Participants with less salient work identities (n = 70) have different opinions about importance of work clothing as well. 45 out of these 70 participants still indicated that they think work clothing is important at workplace and actively use clothing to communicate their work identity.

*“Of course it is important. The way you wear can reflect your **identity and personality**. Workplace is formal, and wearing proper clothing is a way to win good **impression** and show **respect** to others.”* (Interpreter, male)

On the other hand, 25 out of 70 participants with less salient work identities are not very concern about work clothing. They tend to minimize the importance of work clothing and seldom use clothing to communicate work identities.

*“I never buy clothing for work particularly, since work clothing is **not very important**. **Work ability, communication skills and sense of responsibility** are more important at work.”* (Bank, male)

The results confirmed the second hypothesis that individuals with salient work identities may spend more efforts on choosing “correct” clothing to communicate work identities within Chinese young employees. Although the correlation is not absolute, it shows the trends that people with highly salient work identities are more likely to put efforts on adopting proper work clothing, consider clothing is important at workplace and believe work clothing communicate certain traits and work identities to others.

4.4.1 Comparison with Kang et al.’s research (2011)

The same with this research, Kang et al.’s research (2011) also showed not all the participants with highly salient work identities necessarily perceive work clothing as important or actively use clothing as a way to communicate work identities. On the other hand, more than half of the participants with less salient work identity still claimed that they believe work clothing is important at workplace and actively use clothing to communicate their work identities.

Thus, Kang et al. (2011) suggested that there is no clear relationship between salience of work identity and effort put on adopting proper work clothing, importance of work clothing, agreement with communicative function of work clothing. However, from the correlation analysis of with Chinese young employees, it indicates the positive correlations between work identity salience and effort put on adopting proper work clothing, importance of work clothing, agreement with communicative function of work clothing are significant. Although the positive correlations are not absolute, it shows the trends that people with highly salient work identities are more likely to put effort on adopting proper work clothing, consider clothing is important at workplace and believe work clothing communicate certain traits and work identities to others.

4.5 Work identity completeness and work clothing

If self-symbolizing is to occur, one needs to be committed to an identity (Wicklund

and Gollwitzer, 1982). Thus, only the participants with highly salient work identities (n = 96) are involved in the analysis about relationship between work identity completeness and work identity.

Within the participants with highly salient work identities, 18 out of 96 participants claimed that they are “novice” professionals. These participants perceived highly salient work identities but felt incomplete in work identities. All these 18 participants considered work clothing is important at workplace, and they want to use clothing to impress co-workers, bosses and clients. Obviously, they used work clothing as a way to communicate their work identities.

“Your clothing at workplace may impress others and should be suitable for your daily work. Dressing appropriately at workplace can make you look professional. Thus, your co-workers, boss and clients may trust you more.” (HR, female)

“I always wear formal suits at work and it is a way to show your respect for work. I never go work with sportswear. I think sportswear is too casual which may make your co-workers and bosses think you are not professional.” (Researcher, male)

Among the participants with highly salient work identities, 37 out of 96 participants reported that they are “expert” professionals. These participants perceived highly salient work identities and felt complete in work identities. 36 out of these group participants still considered work clothing is important at workplace, at least at an average scale level. Consequently, they prefer to use clothing as a way to communicate their work identities and certain characteristics.

“The clothing shows your work spirit and professionalism; wearing appropriate clothes also gives you confidence. I want to buy business casual suits, since it is more fashion than formal suit and more suitable for younger employees to show certain work identities.” (Consultant, female)

The results are different from the third hypothesis that the importance of choosing work clothing with symbols may decrease when the feeling of identity completeness increases. Actually, among the 96 participants who perceived highly salient work identities, 92 of them considered work clothing is important at workplace, at least at an average scale level. In addition, all of them agreed that work clothing communicate certain traits and work identities to others, at least at an average scale level. The results are different from the findings of previous researches (Arthur, 1997; Crane et al.'s research, 2007; Kang et al.'s research, 2011), which indicated individuals used symbols to achieve completeness sense in work identity when they felt incomplete in work identities.

4.5.1 Comparison with Kang et al.'s research (2011)

Kang et al.'s research (2011) claimed that among the participants with highly salient work identities, “novice” professionals believed work clothing is highly important and actively use clothing to construct their work identities, most of them just joint work. While, the “expert” professionals tended to show less concerns about work clothing and expressed they “stopped dressing up with symbols”, “only care about comfort” and “not buy luxury brand to signify professions”, most of the “expert” professionals had long working experience.

However, from the results of this research done with Chinese young employee, among the 96 participants who perceived highly salient work identities, no matter “novice” or “expert” professionals, they all considered work clothing is highly important and actively use symbolic clothing to construct their work identities. The difference between the results of these two researches is not due to the gender difference involved in researches, since the gender of participants with highly salient work identities are almost half and half, both “novice” and “expert” professionals males believed work clothing is truly important and the position of work clothing in communicating work identities is essential. The very different results indicated that

Chinese young employees have stronger concerns about the importance of work clothing and stronger willingness to use or purchase clothing to communicate work identities than westerners.

4.6 Expectations from work clothing

The results confirmed the fourth hypothesis that Chinese young employees have clear expectations for outcomes about what they wear at workplace. Generally speaking, participants have clear expected outcomes about what they wear at workplace. The majority of participants expected work clothing to make them look professional, to enhance confidence and to improve company image. The majority of responses can be categorized into two aspects: shaping of other people's impressions and improving self-perceptions.

The first expected outcome about work clothing is shaping other's impressions, like co-workers, clients and bosses. This finding support the previous research that clothing can be used to shape other's impressions at workplace (Damhorst, M., 1990; Peluchette et al., 2006; Pratt and Rafaeli, 1977). For instance, they expressed that work clothing represent company images, In addition, participants hope the way they dress could make others think they are professional and reliable, especially for shaping clients' impressions. All in all, participants expected positive outcomes from work clothing.

The second expectation of work clothing is improving self-perceptions. Participants suggested that wearing proper work clothing may make them feel confident, comfort and important at workplace. In addition, professional dressing shows respect and professional attitude for work. Moreover, they expected work clothing could improve their efficiency and sense of responsibility. The finding is consistent with previous researches (Dellinger, 2002; Kang et al., 2011; Kwon, 1994; Peluchette and Karl, 2007) about work clothing and self performance and perceptions. Obviously,

participants' work clothing is not only for utilitarian purpose but also for hedonic purpose.

Very few participants suggested that they hope others could find their lifestyle and fashion trends through their work clothing.

4.6.1 Comparison with Kang et al.'s research (2011)

Similarity with this research, Kang et al.'s research (2011) confirmed participants had clear expectations about their work clothing and claimed that most of participants expected positive outcome as well: communicating impressions to co-workers, bosses and clients, improving self performance and self perceptions.

There are some interesting points in Kang et al.'s research's (2011). Firstly, it found that some participants just want to avoid problems and expect not to be challenged by bosses about their work clothing. Secondly, the most expected outcome is upward mobility. Participants expected proper clothing may bring them more chance to meet higher level executives and get promotion.

The above two opinions are absent from the results collected within Chinese young employees. The absence of upward mobility as expected outcomes within Chinese young employees may reflect the competition in workplace is not as stiff as in western countries (Kang et al., 2011). Few Chinese young employees suggested that they hope others could find their lifestyle and fashion trends through their work clothing.

4.7 Other correlations between work clothing and work identity

This part aims to explore correlations between work clothing and work identity from overall perspectives. Self-completion attribute is excluded from correlation analysis, since the scale of self-completion is different from others. In addition, the correlations

comparison between work identity salience and effort put on adopting proper work clothing, importance of work clothing, agreement with communicative function of work clothing are analyzed in chapter 4.4, thus, it will not be mentioned in separate section.

4.7.1 Effort on adopting proper work clothing

This part mainly focus on the correlations comparison between effort on adopting proper work clothing and importance of work clothing, agreement with communicative function of work clothing.

Table 4. 4 Pearson Correlation about Effort on Adopting Proper Work Clothing

	Work identity salience	Importance of work clothing	Agreement with Communicative function of work clothing
Effort on adopting proper work clothing Pearson correlation	.330**	.366**	.365**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 4.4 indicates that the correlations between effort put on adopting proper work clothing and work identity salience, importance of work clothing, agreement with communicative function of work clothing are significant. All correlations are positive. Additionally, the coefficient of correlations between effort put on adopting proper work clothing and importance of work clothing, agreement with communicative function are almost the same with 0.366 and 0.365 respectively, which are stronger than that of work identity salience. This correlation shows the trends that within Chinese young employees, the more efforts participants put on adopting proper work clothing; the more they consider current job is important in defining themselves. Consequently, participants tend to consider work clothing is important at workplace

and believe work clothing communicate certain traits and work identities to others.

4.7.2 Importance of work clothing

The correlations comparison between importance of work clothing and work identity salience, effort on adopting proper work clothing, agreement with communicative function of work clothing are studied in this part.

Table 4. 5 Pearson Correlation about Importance of Work Clothing

	Work identity salience	Effort on adopting proper work clothing	Agreement with Communicative function of work clothing
Importance of work clothing Pearson correlation	.288**	.366**	.562**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

From Table 4.5, it can be found that all correlations are positive and significant. The coefficient of correlation between importance of work clothing and agreement with communicative function of work clothing are much stronger than others with 0.562, followed by effort put on adopting proper work clothing with 0.366. This correlation suggested the trends that the individuals considered work clothing is important at workplace are more agree with work clothing communicate certain traits and work identities to others. Thus, they put efforts on adopting proper work clothing and consider current job is important in defining themselves.

4.7.2 Agreement with Communicative function of work clothing

This part mainly analyze the correlations comparison between agreement with communicative function of work clothing and work identity salience, effort on adopting proper work clothing and importance of work clothing,

Table 4. 6 Pearson Correlation about Communicative Function of Work Clothing

	Work identity salience	Effort on adopting proper work clothing	Importance of work clothing
Communicative function of work clothing Pearson correlation	.184*	.365**	.562**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

From above table, it can be seen that the correlation between importance of work clothing and agreement with communicative function of work clothing is the strongest with 0.562. While, communicative function of work clothing and work identity salience is the weakest with 0.184.

To sum up, from the correlation analysis of the four attributes, it can be concluded that all correlations are positive and significant. It shows a strong trend that the Chinese young employees who considered work clothing is important at workplace agreed with that work clothing communicate their work identities significantly. Relatively speaking, the correlation between communicative function of work clothing and work identity salience is the weakest, which means the trend that Chinese young employees who considered work clothing is important agreed with work clothing represent their work identities is weaker, but it is still the positive correlation.

4.8 Demographic attributes with work clothing and work identity

In order to determine if differences exist between demographic attributes and perception of work clothing and work identity, it is necessary to analyze the

correlations between demographic attributes and perception of work identity and use of work clothing. The demographic attributes involved are gender, age, work time and education. The same with the last section, work clothing and work identity attribute are work identity salience, importance of work clothing at workplace, agreement with communicative function of work clothing and effort put on adopting proper work clothing.

From the correlation analysis results only the correlations about gender and perception of work clothing and work identity are significant, see table below:

Table 4. 7 Pearson Correlation about Gender

	Work identity salience	Importance of work clothing	Communicative function of work clothing	Effort on adopting proper work clothing
Gender	.025	.147	.176*	.208**
Pearson correlation				
Sig. (2-tailed)	.748	.059	.024	.007

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

From the table above, only the correlations between gender and agreement about communicative function of work clothing, effort put on adopting proper work clothing are significant. In addition, the correlation between gender and effort put on adopting proper work clothing (0.208) is stronger than the correlation between gender and agreement about communicative function of work clothing (0.176). The correlations are positive. Thus, it indicated that female are more likely to put more efforts on adopting proper work clothing and more agree with work clothing could communicate

certain work identities. Females are traditionally more sensitive about clothing.

There is no significant correlation between age and perception of work clothing and work identity. It may be due to the majority of participants ($n = 139$) belonging to the first two age groups, since this research mainly focuses on Chinese young employees. In addition, there is no clear relationship between working time and perception of work clothing and work identity. Participants with longer working time do not mean they are necessarily connected with a higher level of importance of work clothing or more agree with the communicative function of work clothing. There is still no clear trend that participants with shorter working time are necessarily connected with a higher level of importance of work clothing or more agree with the communicative function of work clothing. Moreover, the education level does not have significant correlation with perception of work clothing and work identity as well. More participants may need to be involved in further research to analyze the correlations between other demographic attributes and perception of work clothing and work identity.

4.9 Conclusion

To sum up, the results confirmed the code for interpreting clothing exists in Chinese young employees as well. “Suburban leisure” and “Heavy metal” looks are more readable within Chinese young employees. In addition, expensive looks are less readable than inexpensive looks; meanwhile, un-fashionable looks are more readable than fashionable looks. Expensive and un-fashionable features make this look more popular, has more wearers and more long-lasting.

Clothing does have a language-like property and communication function. But, clothing code and language are different as means of communication due to the limited information source and no “metalingual” capacity nature of clothing code. In addition, females are significantly better than males in reading the entire looks.

The majority of participants claimed the existence of proper work clothing considered work clothing as a medium to communicate certain characteristics to others. And individuals with salient work identities may spend more efforts on choosing “correct” clothing to communicate work identities within Chinese young employees.

Chinese young employees who perceived highly salient work identities, no matter “novice” or “expert” professionals, they all considered work clothing is highly important and actively use symbolic clothing to construct their work identities. Moreover, Chinese young employees have clear expectations for outcomes about what they wear at workplace: shaping of other people’s impressions and improving self-perceptions.

The correlations between the four attributes (work identity salience, effort put on adopting proper work clothing, importance of work clothing, agreement with communicative function of work clothing) are all positive and significant. However, the correlation degree is different from each other. In addition, female are more likely to put more efforts on adopting proper work clothing and more agree with work clothing could communicate certain work identities.

Chapter Five Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

This research aims to investigate how Chinese young professional employees perceive clothing code, understand work clothing and use clothing to express work identities. This part will discuss the contributions of this research to academic theory and fashion retailers. In addition, the limitations of this research and suggestions for further research will be mentioned as well.

5.2 Contributions to academia

There were many researches about communicative functions of consumer goods, work clothing and work identity. This research specifically studied clothing code from decoding perspective, and re-tested the clothing code theory developed in McCracken and Roth's (1989) research and the relationships between work clothing and work identity in Kang et al.'s (2010) research.

Generally speaking, the results of this research confirm the research done by McCracken and Roth (1989), and indicated the existence of clothing code and the clothing code is not uniformly mastered. The most readable two looks are "Heavy metal" and "Suburban leisure" in both two researches. However, the top one readable look in McCracken and Roth's research (1989) is "Heavy metal" while the top one readable look in this research is "Suburban leisure". The mainstream looks are more well-known within Chinese young employees.

Similarly with the results of Kang et al.'s research (2011), professionalism, creativity and company representative are also the main reasons to identity proper clothing within Chinese young employees, however, confidence are seldom mentioned in this

research. Chinese young employees considered comfort as the fourth feature of proper work clothing.

Different from Kang et al.'s research (2011), from the correlation analysis of with Chinese young employees, it indicates the positive correlations between work identity salience and efforts put on adopting proper work clothing, importance of work clothing, agreement with communicative function of work clothing are significant. Although the positive correlations are not absolute, it shows the trends that people with highly salient work identities are more likely to put efforts on adopting proper work clothing, consider clothing is important at workplace and believe work clothing communicate certain traits and work identities to others.

In addition, Chinese young employee perceived highly salient work identities, no matter “novice” or “expert” professionals, they all considered work clothing is highly important and actively use symbolic clothing to construct their work identities. The very different results indicated that Chinese young employees have stronger concerns about the importance of work clothing and stronger willingness to use or purchase clothing to communicate work identities than westerners.

5.3 Contributions to fashion retailers

Fashion retailers may benefit from the findings and results of this research in promoting work clothing better for Chinese young employees.

Fashion retailers could consider professional male and female as their potential customers. The apparel could be designed with more symbolic work-related elements for Chinese apparel market.

Additionally, Chinese young employees prefer to use media like magazines, films and fashion blogs and retailer resources like merchandise displays and retailer websites as

the sources of ideas about what to wear. Fashion retailers could take this opportunity to use mass media to promote work clothing and how it related to work identity. And retailers could use appealing display items to attract customers since their purchasing decision will be influenced by in-store display.

5.4 Limitations of this research

There are several limitations of this research which may influence the validity and reliability due to resource restriction.

Firstly, the sample size is not large enough. For the stepwise regression of all looks, only gender variable are included. And for correlations between demographic attributes and perception of work clothing and work identity, age, work time and education are proved as not significant. These may due to the sample size is not large enough.

Secondly, in “graduated photo-sort” method for clothing code investigation, all the clothing is presented in separate pictures. Total look with wearing clothing on model will be better for coding interpretation.

Lastly, the looks in this research are adopted from previous research done with westerners, thus, the looks may not typical within Chinese.

5.5 Further research suggestions

Due to the limitations of this research, there are several suggestions for further research.

In the first place, sample size and age range could be enlarged. Enough sample size and data could make the results more precise and reliable. It can increase the validity and reliability of research.

Secondly, further research with larger sample could focus on the differences regarding demographic attributes in the ability to read clothing code. The communicative function of clothing may or may not apply to other product categories. Comparable research with different product categories is suggested

Thirdly, correlations between demographic attributes (age, working time, education etc.) and perception of work clothing and work identity could be further explored.

Last but not least, for the photo in “graduated photo-sort” method, the items are better to be presented as total look with model. And more looks could be involved, especially typical Chinese looks, which may increase the accuracy of clothing code interpretation.

References

Aaker, D., (2004), "Leveraging the Corporate Brand", *California Management Review*, Vol. 46 (3), pp. 6-18.

Abbey, A., Cozzarelli, C., McLaughlin, K., & Harnish, R. J., (1987), "The Effects of Clothing and Dyad Sex Composition on Perceptions of Sexual Intent: Do Women and Men Evaluate These Cues Differently?", *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, Vol.17(2), pp. 108-126.

Adams, M., (1973), Structural Aspects of a Village Art, *American Anthropologist*, Vol.75 (1), pp. 265-279.

Aitchison, J., (2003), *Linguistics*, London: Hodder.

Alvesson, M. & Skoldberg, K., (2009), *Reflexive Methodology: New Vistas for Qualitative Research*, 2nd, London: Sage.

Andreasen, A. & Belk, R., (1980), "Predictor of Attendance at the Performing Arts", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol.7 (2), pp.112-120.

Arthur, L., (1997), "Role Salience, Role Embrace and the Symbolic Self-completion of Sorority Pledges", *Sociological Inquiry*, Vol. 67 (3), pp. 364-397.

Arthur, L., (2006), "The Aloha Shirt and Ethnicity in Hawaii", *s*, Vol. 4 (1), pp.8-35.

Banister, E., & Hogg, M., (2004), "Negative Symbolic Consumption and Consumers' Drive for Self-esteem: The Case of the Fashion Industry", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol.38 (7), pp.850-868.

- Barnard, M., (2002), *Fashion as Communication*, London and New York: Routledge.
- Barnett, V., (2002), *Sample Survey: Principles and Methods*, 3rd edition, London: Arnold
- Barthes, R., (1957), *Mythologies*, New York: Hill & Wang.
- Barthes, R., (1967), *Elements of Semiology*, London: Jonathan cape.
- Barthes, R., (1983), *The Fashion System*, Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Beasley, R. & Danesi, M., (2002), *Persuasive Signs: The Semiotics of Advertising*, Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter,
- Berelson, B., (1952), *Content Analysis in Communication Research*, New York: Free Press.
- Bridges, J., (1993), "Pink or Blue Gender-Stereotypic Perceptions of Infants as Conveyed by Birth Congratulations Cards", *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, Vol. 17 (2), pp. 193-205.
- Brownell, H., Potter, H., Michelow, D., & Gardner, H. (1984), "Sensitivity to Lexical Denotation and Connotation in Brain-damaged Patients: A Double Dissociation?", *Brain and language*, Vo. 22(2), pp. 253-265.
- Bryman, A & Bell, E., (2011), *Business Research Methods*, 3rd edition, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Brewer, M., (2001), "The Many Faces of Social Identity: Implications for Political Psychology", *Political Psychology*, Vol.22 (1), pp. 115–125.

Brown, R., (2000), "Social Identity Theory: Past Achievements, Current Problems and Future Challenges", *European Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. 30, pp.745–778.

Bush, G., & London, P., (1960), "On the Disappearance of Knickers: Hypotheses for the Functional Analysis of the Psychology of Clothing", *The Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol.51 (2), pp. 359-366.

Chandler, D., (2007), *Semiotics: The Basics*, 2nd edition, London: Routledge.

Chen, T., (2001), "Dressing for the Party: Clothing Citizenship and Gender-formation in Mao's China", *Fashion theory*, Vol.5 (2), pp. 143-172.

Collett, J., (2005), "What Kind of Mother am I? Impression Management and the Social Construction of Motherhood", *Symbolic Interaction*, Vol. 28 (3), pp.235-255.

Crane, T., Hamilton, J. & Wilson, L., (2004), "Scottish Dress, Ethnicity, and Eelf-identity", *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, Vol. 8 (1), pp. 66-83.

Crotty, M., (1998), *The Foundations of Social Research*, London: Sage.

Damhorst, M., (1990), "In Search of a Common Thread: Classification of Information Communicated Through Dress", *Clothing and Textile Research Journal*, Vol. 8 (2), pp.1-12.

Daters, C., (1990), "Importance of Clothing and Self-esteem among Adolescents", *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, Vol. 8(3), pp.45-50.

Davis, F., (1992), *Fashion, Culture and Identity*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Dellinger, K., (2002), "Wearing Gender and Sexuality 'On Your Sleeve': Dress Norms and the Importance of Occupational and Organizational Culture at Work", *Gender Issue*, Vol.20 (1), pp.3-25.

Du, G., Hall, P., & Janes, L., (1997), *Doing Cultural Studies*, London: Sage.

Duncan, M. C., (1990), "Sports Photographs and Sexual Differences: Images of Women and Men in the 1984 and 1988 Olympic Games", *Sociology of Sport Journal*, Vol. 7 (1), pp. 22–43.

Dunlap, K., (1928), "The Development and Function of Clothing", *The Journal of General Psychology*, Vol.1 (1), pp. 64-78.

Durgee, J., (1986), "How Consumer Sub-cultures Code Reality: A Look at Some Code Types", In Lutz R. (ed.), *Advances in Consumer Research vol.13*, Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research, pp. 332-337.

Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R. & Jackson, P., (2008), *Management Research*, 3rd edition, London: SAGE.

Fiske, J., (1990), *Understanding to Communication Studies*, London: Routledge.

Flugel, J., (1930), *The Psychology of Clothes*, London: The Hogarth Press and the Institute of Psychoanalysis.

Ghuri, P. & Gronhaug, K., (2005), *Research Methods in Business Studies*, 3rd edition, Harlow: Financial Times Prentice Hall

Gibbins, K., (1969), "Communication Aspects of Women's Clothes and Their Relation to Fashionability", *British Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, Vol.8

(4), pp.301-312.

Gill, J. & Johnson, P., (2010), *Research Methods for Managers*, 4th edition, London: Ssge.

Goby, V., (2004), “If You Look Like Me I Will Talk to You: A Preliminary Study of Ethnic Identity and Inter-ethnic Interaction among Women in Singapore”, *Asian Ethnicity*, Vol.5 (2), pp.236-244.

Gommans, M., Krishnan, K. S., & Scheffold, K., (2001), “From Brand Loyalty to E-loyalty: A Conceptual Framework”, *Journal of Economic and Social research*, Vol.3 (1), pp. 43-58.

Guiry, M., Magi, A. & Lutz, R., (2006), “Defining and Measuring Recreational Shopper Identity”, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 34 (1), pp. 74-83.

Hakala, U., Lätti, S., & Sandberg, B., (2011), “Operationalising Brand Heritage and Cultural Heritage”, *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, Vol.20 (6), pp. 447-456.

Hair, J., Tatham, R. & Anderson, R., (2006), *Multivariate Data Analysis*, 6th edition, London: Prentice Hall PTR.

Hjelmslev, L., (1961), *Prolegomena to A Theory of Language*, Madison: University of Wisconsin Press.

Hogg, M. & Ridgeway, C., (2003), “Social Identity: Sociological and Social Psychological Perspectives”, *Social Psychology Quarterly*, Vol. 66 (2), pp. 97–100.

Hogg, M., Terry, D. & White, K., (1995), "A Tale of Two Theories: A Critical Comparison of Identity Theory with Social Identity Theory". *Social Psychology Quarterly*, Vol. 58 (4), pp. 255–269.

Holman, R., (1980), Apparel as communication, In F. Hirschman and M. Holbrook (eds), *Symbolic consumer behavior*. Association for Consumer Research.

Huang, Y. (2007), *Pragmatics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hussey, J. & Hussey, R., (1997), *Business Research: a Practical Guide for Undergraduate and Postgraduate Students*, Basingstoke: Macmillan.

International Trade Centre, (2011), *The Chinese Market for Clothing*, [online], Available at: http://www.intracen.org/uploadedFiles/intracenorg/Content/Exporters/Sectors/Food_and_agri_business/Cotton/AssetPDF/China%20final%20technical%20document%20for%20print1.pdf > [accessed 02/03/2014].

Jacob, J. & Cerny, C., (2004), "Radical Drag Appearances and Identity: The Embodiment of Male Femininity and Social Critique", *Clothing and Textile Research Journal*, Vol. 22 (3), pp.122-134.

Johnson, K., Schofield, N., & Yurchisin, J., (2002), "Appearance as A Source of Information: A Qualitative Approach to Data Collection", *Clothing and Textile Research Journal*, Vol. 22 (3), pp. 125-137.

Kaiser, S., (1997), *The Social Psychology of Clothing*, 2nd ed., New York: Fairchild Publications.

Kang, M., Sklar, M. & Johnson, K., (2011), "Men at Work: Using Dress to

Communicate Identities”, *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, Vol. 15 (4), pp.412-427.

Korte, R., (2007), “A Review of Social Identity Theory with Implications for Training and Development, *Journal of European Industrial Training*, Vol. 31 (3), pp.166–180.

Kwon, Y., (1994), “The Influences of Appropriateness of Dress and Gender on the Self-perception of Occupational Attributes”, *Clothing and Textile Research Journal*, Vol.12 (3), pp.345-360.

Langer, S., (1957), *Philosophy in A New Key, A Study in the Symbolism of Reason, Rite and Art*, Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Laroche, M., Habibi, M. R., & Richard, M., (2013), “To Be or Not To Be in Social Media: How Brand Loyalty is Affected by Social Media?”, *International Journal of Information Management*, Vol. 33(1), pp. 76-82.

Lauer, J. & Lauer, R., (1980), “The Battle of the Sexes Fashion in 19th Century America”, *The Journal of Popular Culture*, Vol.13 (4), pp. 581-589.

Leach, E., (1976), *Culture and Communication: The Logic by Which Symbols are Connected*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Leech, G., (1981), *Semantics: The Study of Meaning*, 2nd edition, London: Penguin.

Leinbach, M., & Fagot, B., (1993), “Categorical Habituation to Male and Female Faces: Gender Schematic Processing in Infancy”, *Infant Behavior and Development*, Vol. 16 (3), pp. 317-332.

Lurie, A., (1992), *The Language of Clothes*, London: Bloomsbury.

Lyons, J., (1977), *Semantics, Vol. 1*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Malhotra, N., (2007), *Marketing Research: An Applied Approach*, 5th edition, Delhi: Pearson/ Prentice Hall.

Malhotra, N. & Birks, D., (2007), *Marketing Research: An Applied Approach*, 3rd edition, Harlow: Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Mason, J., (1996), *Qualitative Research*, London: SAGE.

Matthews, P., (1997), *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

May, D., Gilson, R. & Harter, L., (2004), "The Psychological Conditions of Meaningfulness, Safety and Availability and the Engagement of the Human Spirit at Work", *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 77 (1), pp. 11–37.

McCracken, G & Roth, V., (1989), "Does Clothing Have a Code? Empirical Findings and Theoretical Implications in the Study of Clothing as a Means of Communication", *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, Vol. 6 (1), pp.13-33.

McDaniel, C & Gates, R., (2007), *Marketing Research*, 7th edition, Hoboken, N.J.: John Wiley.

Michelman, S., (2001), Race, Ethnicity and Class, In M. Damhorst, K. Miller & S. Michelman (eds), *The Meaning of Dress*, 3rd ed., New York: Fairchild Publications.

Mick, D., (1986), "Consumer Research and Semiotics: Exploring the Morphology of Signs, Symbols and Significance", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 13 (1),

pp.196-213.

Miller, K., (2001), Standing Out from the Crowd, In M. Damhorst, K. Miller & S. Michelman (eds), *The Meaning of Dress*, 3rd ed., New York: Fairchild Publications.

Mosher, C., Levitt, H. & Manley, E., (2006), “Layer of Leather: The Identity Formation of Leathermen as A Process of Transforming Meanings of Masculinity”, *Journal of Homosexuality*, Vol. 51 (3), pp. 93-123.

Normand, C., (2004), System, Arbitrariness, Value, In C. Sanders. (eds). *The Cambridge Companion to Saussure*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.88-104.

Pallant, J., (2005), *SPSS Survival Manual: A Step by Step Guide to Data Analysis Using SPSS for Windows (version 12)*, 2nd edition, Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Peluchette, J. & Karl, K., (2007), “The Impact of Workplace Attire on Employee Eelf-perceptions”, *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, Vol. 18 (3), pp. 345-360.

Peluchette, J., Karl, K. & Rust, K., (2006), “Dressing to Impress: Beliefs and Attitudes Regarding Workplace Attire”, *Journal of Business and Psychology*, Vol. 21 (1), pp.45-63.

Pomerleau, A., Bolduc, D., Malcuit, G., & Cossette, L., (1990), “Pink or Blue: Environmental Gender Stereotypes in the First Two Years of Life”, *Sex Roles*, Vol. 22(5-6), pp. 359-367.

Rafaeli, A., Dutton, J., Harquial, C. and Mackie-Lewis, S. (1997), "Navigating by Attire: The Use of Dress by Administrative Employees", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 40 (1), pp.19-45.

Rapp, R. (2002), "The Computation of Word Associations: Comparing Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic Approaches", *Proceedings of the 19th International Conference on Computational Linguistics*, Vol. 1, pp. 1-7.

Remenyi, D., Williams, B., Money, A. & Swartz, E., (2000), *Doing Research in Business and Management: An Introduction to Process and Method*, 2nd, London: Sage.

Roach, M. & Eicher, J., (eds) (1965), *Dress, Adornment and the Social Order*, New York: John Wiley.

Roach-Higgins, M. & Eicher, J., (1992), "Dress and Identity", *Clothing and Textile Research Journal*, Vol. 10 (4), pp. 1-8.

Rosenfeld, L. & Plax, T., (1977), "Clothing as Communication", *Journal of Communication*, Vol. 27 (2), pp.24-31.

Rouse, F., (1989), *Understanding Fashion*, Oxford: BSP Professional Books.

Ruckman, J., (2005), "The Application of A Layered System to the Marketing of Outdoor Clothing", *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, Vol. 9 (1), pp.122 – 129.

Rucker, M., Anderson, E. & Kangas, A., (1999), Clothing Power, and the Workplace, In K. Johnson & S. Lennon, (Eds), *Appearance and Power*, Berg, Oxford, pp. 59-77.

Saeed, J., (1997), *Semantics*, Oxford: Blackwell.

Sanborn, H., (1927), "The Function of Clothing and of Bodily Adornment", *The American Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 38 (1), pp. 1-20.

Saunders, M., Philip, L. & Thornhill, A., (2012), *Research Methods for Business Students*, 6th edition, Harlow: Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Saussure, F., (1983), *Course in General Linguistics*, London: Duckworth.

Sawyer, C., (1987), "Men in Skirts and Women in Trousers, from Achilles to Victoria Grant: One Explanation of A Comedic Paradox", *The Journal of Popular Culture*, Vol. 21 (2), pp. 1-18.

Schofield, K. & Schmidt, R., (2005), "Fashion and Clothing: The Construction and Communication of Gay Identities", *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, Vol. 33 (4), pp.310-323.

Schofield, K., (2005), "Fashion and Clothing: The Construction and Communication of Gay Identities", *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, Vol. 33 (4), pp. 310-323.

Sellerberg, A., (1976), "On Differing Social Meanings of Consumption", *Journal of the Market Research Society*, Vol. 18 (4), pp.211-213.

Shoyama, S., Tochiara, Y., & Kim, J. S. (2003). "Japanese and Korean Elderly People's Evaluation of Clothing Colors for Elderly People", *Journal of Physiological Anthropology and Applied Human Science*, Vol. 20 (1), pp. 15-28.

Silverman, D., (2006), *Interpreting Qualitative Data: Methods for Analyzing Talk*,

Text and Interaction, 3rd edition, London: Sage.

Simmel, G., (1971), Fashion, In G. Wills and D. Midgley (eds), *On Individuality and Social Forms*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Solomon, M., Bamossy, G. & Askegaard, S., (2002), *Consumer Behaviour: A European Perspective*, 2nd edition, Financial Times: Prentice Hall.

Solomon, M. & Rabolt, N., (2009), *Consumer Behaviour in Fashion*, 2nd edition, Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Solomon, M., & Schopler, J., (1982), “Self-consciousness and Clothing”, *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, Vol.8 (3), pp.508-514.

Sproles, G., (1985), Behavior Science Theories of Fashion, In M., Solomon (eds), *The Psychology of Fashion*, Lexington: Lexington Books, pp.55-70.

Stake, R., (1995), *The Art of Case Study Research*, London: Sage.

Steffen, D., (2009), Categorizing Product Meaning: An Investigation into the Product Language of Clothing and Fashion, In L. Chen. (eds). *Design and Semantics of Form and Movement*, [pdf], Available at: <http://www.northumbria.ac.uk/static/5007/despdf/designres/2009proceedings.pdf>, [accessed 02/05/2013].

Steffen, D., (2010), “Design Semantics of Innovation”. *Product Language as A Reflection on Technical Innovation and Socio-cultural Change*, Department of Art and Design History, Bergische Universität Wuppertal, Germany.

Stets, J. & Burke, P., (2000), “Identity Theory and Social Identity Theory”, *Social*

Psychology Quarterly, Vol. 63 (3), pp. 224–237.

Stryker, S., (1980), *Symbolic Interaction: A Social Structural Version*, Benjamin Cummings, Menlo Park, CA

Stryker, S. & Burke, P., (2000), “The Past, Present, and Future of Identity Theory”, *Social psychology quarterly*, Vol. 63 (4), pp.284-297.

Stryker, S. & Serpe, R., (1982), Commitment, Identity Salience, and Role Behavior. In W. Ickes & E. S. Knowles (eds.), *Personality, Roles, and Social Behavior*, New York: Springer, pp. 199–218.

Tajfel, H., (1981). *Human Groups and Social Categories: Studies in Social Psychology*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Thietart, R., (2001), *Doing Management Research: A Comprehensive Guide*, London: Sage.

Tickner, L., (1977), *Roland Barthes: A Conservative Estimate*, London: Macmillan.

Troy, N., (2003), *Couture Culture: A Study in Modern Art and Fashion*. Cambridge, MA: Mit Press.

Urde, M., Greyser, S. & Balmer, J., (2007), “Corporate Brands with A Heritage”, *The Journal of Brand Management*, Vol. 15 (1), pp. 4-19.

Wicklund, R., & Gollwitzer, P., (1982), *Symbolic Self-Completion*, Lawrence Erlbaum, Hillsdale, NJ.

Appendices

Appendix 1

The survey about clothing identity in workplace

This is an academic research about clothing code and the relationship between clothing and identity in workplace. Your response to the questionnaire would be used only for the purpose of academic research and your personal information would not be revealed. Thank you for your time.

This questionnaire is designed for the people who were employed full time in professional occupation that do not require uniforms be worn at work in China.

Part 1 Demographic information

1. Gender Male Female

2. Age 15-24 25-34 35-44 45-54 55+

3. Occupation _____

4. Working time

Less than 6 months

1-2 years

3-5 years

5-10 years

10year +

5. Education. Please specify the highest educational qualification you obtain.

Less than GCSE level

GCSE level or equivalent

A level or equivalent

Undergraduate Degree or equivalent

Masters or higher Degree

Part 2 Clothing code

1. Here is a man dressed in particular way, with black sleeveless T-shirt, black leather belt, black chino pants, red socks and Doc martin boots, show in picture respectively.



If the man dressed in the same way, except the shoes is different, there are four options: heavy black shoes, scuffed sneakers, heavy dress shoes and sandals, show in picture respectively.



Please rank the shoes in 1 to 4 order, 1 means this shoes is the one that is the most likely to have in the man's wardrobe, otherwise, 4 means the shoes is the one that is the least likely to have in the man's wardrobe.

2. Here is a man dressed in particular way, with blue Lactose shirt, brown leather belt, khaki pants with cuffs, top siders shoes, show in picture respectively.



If the man dressed in the same way, except the shirt is different, there are four options: madras shirt, adidas T-shirt, gingham check shirt, black T-shirt, show in picture respectively.



Please rank the shirts in 1 to 4 order, 1 means this shirt is the one that is the most likely to have in the man's wardrobe, otherwise, 4 means the shirt is the one that is the least likely to have in the man's wardrobe.

3. Here is a man dressed in particular way, with cotton knit shirt, red polyester running shorts, white socks and adidas shoes, show in picture respectively.



If the man dressed in the same way, except the short is different, there are four options: blue cotton short, multi-patterned yellow short, red, blue and white short and multi-coloured and multi-patterned short, show in picture respectively.



Please rank the shorts in 1 to 4 order, 1 means this short is the one that is the most likely to have in the man's wardrobe, otherwise, 4 means the short is the one that is

the least likely to have in the man's wardrobe.

4. Here is a man dressed in particular way, with black leather jacket, black T-shirt, thick black belt, faded blue jeans, black socks and sneakers, show in picture respectively.



If the man dressed in the same way, except the jacket is different, there are four options: jean jacket, windbreaker jacket, brown leather jacket and tweed sports coat, show in picture respectively.



Please rank the shorts in 1 to 4 order, 1 means this short is the one that is the most likely to have in the man's wardrobe, otherwise, 4 means the short is the one that is the least likely to have in the man's wardrobe.

Part 3 Clothing at work

6. The percentage of your monthly income on workplace clothing

Less than 5%

5%-10%

10%-20%

20%-30%

30%-40%

40%-50%

50%+

7. Sources of influence on what to buy to wear at work.

TV

Magazine

Film

Photographs

Fashion blog

Retailers' display

Retailer's website

Sale associate

Internet

Co-workers

Company dressing code

Other _____

8. Types of retailers for shopping work clothing

Department store

Specialty stores

Factory outlet

Discount stores

Designers shop

Off- price retailer

Other ____

9. Types of retail channels.

Brick and mortar store

Online store

Television shopping

Other _____

10. Do you think there is appropriate clothing for your work? Please describe that clothing and share why you think it is appropriate.

11. Do you have any clothing you want to buy for workplace in near future and why?

12. Please describe the types of clothing you will never wear at workplace and why?

13. How important is your current job in defining yourself?

No important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important

14. Self-completion in work. What do you feel you are at your work?

Expert

Intermediate

Novice

15. To what extent do you think clothing is important at work?

No important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important

16. To what extent do you agree that work clothing communicate your certain

traits and work identity to other?

Not agree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally agree

17. How much effort do you put on adopting appropriate work clothing?

No effort 1 2 3 4 5 A lot of effort

18. Why do you put (less) effort on adopting appropriate work clothing?

19. Do you think clothing is important to shape self-perception and others' impressions in workplace? Why?

20. To what extent do you feel or perceive co-workers or clients judge your performance based on your clothing?

21. What outcomes do you expect to be associated with your clothing at work?

Appendix 2

关于工作场合中服装与身份的调查

本问卷是关于工作场合中服装与身份的学术调查，您的问卷回复只用于学术研究，您的个人信息不会被泄露，十分感谢您宝贵的时间。

本问卷适用于在中国无统一工作服的全职工作者。

第一部分：个人信息

1. 性别 男性 女性

2. 年龄 15-24 25-34 35-44 45-54 55+

3. 职业 _____

4. 工作时间

少于六个月

一到两年

三到五年

五到十年

十年以上

5. 教育程度，请选择您最高学历

低于初中教育

初中教育

高中教育或相等

本科或相等

研究生或以上

第二部分 服装风格认知

1. 某人的穿衣风格如下图所示：黑色无袖T恤，黑色皮腰带，黑色奇诺裤，红色袜子，马丁靴。



如果此人保持这样的穿衣风格，其他穿着不变，鞋子要从以下四种中选择。



请将这四种鞋子从 1 到 4 排序，1 代表这双鞋是这个人最有可能的选择，4 则代表这双鞋是这个人最不可能的选择。

2. 某人的穿衣风格如下图所示：蓝色衬衫，棕色皮带，卡其色裤子，系带休闲鞋



如果此人保持这样的穿衣风格，其他穿着不变，衬衫要从以下四种中选择：



请将这四种衬衫从 1 到 4 排序，1 代表这件衬衣是这个人最有可能的选择，4 则代表最不可能的选择。

3. 某人的穿衣风格如下图所示：棉针织短袖，红色涤纶运动短裤，白色袜子，运动鞋。



如果此人保持这样的穿衣风格，其他穿着不变，短裤要从以下四种中选择：



请将这四种短裤从 1 到 4 排序。1 代表这个人最可能的选择，4 则代表最不可能的选择。

4. 如果某人的穿衣风格如下图所示：黑色皮夹克，黑 T-恤，宽大黑色皮带，褪色蓝色牛仔裤，黑色袜子，运动鞋。



如果此人保持这样的穿衣风格，其他穿着保持不变，夹克要从以下四种中选择：



请将这四种夹克从 1 到 4 排序。1 代表这个人最可能的选择，4 则代表最不可能的选择。

第三部分：工作服装

6. 每月收入的百分之多少会用于购买工作时穿的服装？

- 少于 5%
- 5%-10%
- 10%-20%
- 20%-30%
- 30%-40%
- 40%-50%
- 50%以上

7. 什么会影响购买工作服装的样式风格

- 电视
- 杂志
- 电影
- 照片
- 时尚博客
- 零售商陈列
- 零售商网站
- 店员
- 网络

同事

公司着装规定

其他_____

8. 购买工作服装的零售商类型

百货公司

特色商店

工厂店

打折店

设计师品牌店

特价零售商

其他____

9. 购买工作服装的渠道

实体店

网上品牌店

电视购物

其他_____

10. 你认为你的工作有合适的服装吗？请描述你的工作穿着并说明为什么合适。

11. 你最近有想要购买的工作服装吗？为什么想要购买？

12. 请表述你绝对不会在工作时穿的衣服类型，以及为什么。

13. 你认为你目前的工作在定义你自己的时候有多重要？

完全不重要 1 2 3 4 5 十分重要

14. 工作中的自我完成。你认为你在工作中是什么角色

专家

中级

新手

15. 你认为服装在工作中有多大的重要性？

不重要 1 2 3 4 5 很重要

16. 在多大程度上你同意工作时穿的服装可以传达你的某种特性和工作身份给

别人

不同意 1 2 3 4 5 完全同意

17. 你会花多少精力在购买合适的工作服装上？

不花精力 1 2 3 4 5 很多精力

18. 你为什么（不）花精力购买合适的工作服装？

19. 你认为服装在工作场合里对塑造自我认知和别人对自己的印象重要吗？为

什么？

20. 你认为在多大程度上同事或者客户会基于服装评价你的表现？

21. 你期望穿着工作服装带来什么样的效果？

Appendix 3

Data Collection Tool

Attributes	Construct	Questions	References
Demographic	Gender	Male, Female	Shoyama et al.'s (2003) Kang et al.,(2011)
	Age	15-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54,55+	
	Occupation	Open question	
	Working time	Less than 6 months 1-2 years 3-5 years 5-10 years 10year +	
	Education	Less than GCSE level GCSE level or equivalent A level or equivalent Undergraduate degree or equivalent Master or higher degree	
Clothing Code	Black sleeveless T-shirt	Rank below: Heavy black shoes	McCracken and Roth's, (1989)
	Black leather belt	Scuffed sneakers	
	Black chino pants	Heavy dress shoes	
	Red socks	Sandals	
	Doc martin boots		
Clothing Code	Blue Lactose shirt	Rank below:	McCracken and Roth's, (1989)
	Brown leather belt	Madras shirt	
	Khaki pants with cuff	Adidas T-shirt	
	Top siders shoes	Gingham check shirt Black T-shirt	
	Cotton knit shirt	Rank below:	
Red polyester running shorts	Blue cotton short Multi-patterned yellow short		

Clothing Code	White socks	Red, blue and white short	McCracken and Roth's, (1989)
	Adidas Shoes	Multi-coloured and multi-patterned short	
	Black leather jacket	Rank below:	
	Black T-shirt	Jean jacket	
	Thick black belt	Windbreaker jacket	
	Faded blue jeans	Brown leather jacket	
Black socks	Tweed sports coat		
Sneakers			
Work Clothing	Percentage of monthly income on work clothing	Less than 5%, 5%-10% 10%-20%, 20%-30% 30%-40%, 40%-50% 50%+	Kang et al.,(2011)
	Sources of influence on work clothing purchase	TV, Magazine, Film, Photographs, Fashion blog, Retailers' display, Retailer's website, Sale associate, Internet, Co-workers, Company dressing code, Other___	
	Types of retailers for shopping work clothing	Department store , Specialty stores Factory outlet, Discount stores , Designers shop, Off- price retailer Other__	
	Types of retail channels	Brick and mortar store, Online store Television shopping, Other _____	
	Appropriate work clothing	Open question	
	Clothing you want to buy for workplace	Open question	

Work Clothing	Clothing you will never wear at workplace	Open question	Kang et al.,(2011)
	How important is your current job in defining yourself	No important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important	
	Self-completion in work	Expert Intermediate Novice	
	To what extent do you think clothing is important at work	No important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important	
	To what extent do you agree that work clothing communicate your certain traits and work identity to others	Not agree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally agree	
	How much effort do you put on adopting appropriate work clothing	No effort 1 2 3 4 5 A lot of effort	
	Why do you put (less) effort on adopting appropriate work clothing	Open question	
	Do you think clothing is important to shape self-perception and	Open question	

Work Clothing	others' impressions in workplace? Why?		Kang et al.,(2011)
	To what extent do you feel or perceive co-workers or clients judge your performance based on your clothing?	Open question	
	What outcomes do you expect to be associated with your clothing at work	Open question	

Appendix 4

Qualitative Analysis Codes

Questions	Key words and phrases
Existence of appropriate work clothing	Exist or not – Yes Business casual Formal wear/dress Smart casual Suits
Work clothing you want to buy	Shirt Formal dress Polo Business casual suits
Inappropriate work clothing	Sportswear Shorts Flip flop Bright colour Mini skirt T-shirt
Efforts on adopting proper work clothing	Yes – self/work image, confidence, reliable, professional No – time-consuming, personal way of dressing is fine, not important
Important to shape self-perception and others' impressions in workplace	Yes – you are what you wear, confidence, professional, identity, personality, respect No – work oriented, work ability, communication skills, sense of responsibility
Will co-workers or clients judge your performance based on your clothing	Yes – first impression, image, attitude, taste, reliability

	No – work oriented, communication
Expected outcomes related with work clothing	<p>Other people’s impressions -- company image, professional, reliable, impressions, positive outcomes</p> <p>Self-perceptions -- confident, comfort, important at workplace, improve efficiency and sense of responsibility, respect</p>