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The influence of grooming style on recruiters' evaluations of female applicants for a managerial position

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ABSTRACT

In an ideal world, employment assessments would only be based on rational decision-making involving, for example, the evaluation of employment history, education, references and demonstrable experience (Kyle & Mahler, 1996). However, physical appearance plays a significant role in interpersonal communications because it functions as a readily available source of nonverbal information (Graham & Jouhar, 1980). The aim of this research project was to examine how employment decisions regarding women in management might be influenced by gender-related aspects of women's grooming style.

Evaluations from 114 British recruitment consultants were used to determine the influence of cosmetics, hairstyle and eyeglasses on impressions and evaluations of a female managerial job applicant. Eight variations of cosmetics, hairstyle and eyeglasses were used in the experimental treatments. Recruitment consultants viewed an identical job description and Curriculum Vitae for the fictional job applicant with one of the eight head and shoulders colour photos attached, and rated the job applicant on a number of impressions related to personal qualities and employment potential. The data gained were analysed using analysis of variance.

Results indicated that amendments to the grooming conditions did not significantly affect perceptions of employment potential, competence, independence or recommendations of salary. However, there were some significant main effects of femininity and masculinity related to the job applicant's hairstyle and the respondents' gender. Hairstyle changes had the strongest impact on the model's perceived femininity and masculinity, with long hair significantly enhancing perceived femininity. Interestingly, female respondents gave significantly higher masculinity ratings to the job applicant than did male

respondents.

There were also a number of other significant two-way interactions that serve to consolidate the main grooming interactions found regarding femininity and masculinity. The two-way interaction between hairstyle and eyeglasses was significant for the reactions concerning 'employment potential', 'would work well under direction' and 'practical', and came near significance for the participants' impressions of 'competence'. In responding to all of these differently presented views of the same person, under the impressions listed above, it appears that respondents gave higher scores when they viewed the job applicant with a balance of grooming elements that were masculine (hair up, eyeglasses and no cosmetics) and feminine (hair down, no eyeglasses and cosmetics). Therefore, a job applicant with a very feminine appearance is perhaps not seen as appropriate for a managerial role compared with a moderately feminine-seeming applicant and likewise, a very masculine appearance may also be considered a less likely indicator of future success in a managerial role.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

In an ideal world, employment assessments would only be based on rational decision-making involving, for example, the evaluation of employment history, education, referees' reports and demonstrable experience (Kyle & Mahler, 1996). However, physical appearance plays a significant role in interpersonal communications because it functions as a readily available source of nonverbal information (Graham & Jouhar, 1980). Despite the emphasis on equal employment opportunities and attempts to eliminate biases in recruitment, Hakel and Dunnette (1978) concluded that first impressions, including physical appearance, play a significant role in the outcome of the employment process, proposing that early impressions of the job applicant create a bias with the interviewer, which, in a self-affirming way, influences all future exchanges between the interviewer and applicant. Therefore, attractiveness, dress and grooming may play a role in the selection process, and the purpose of this research project is to examine how employment decisions regarding women in management may be influenced by gender-related aspects of women's grooming style. Cosmetics, hairstyle and eyeglasses were of interest to the researcher as they are three potentially influential physical appearance cues that, unlike other physical appearance cues, can be easily changed.

While the role of cosmetic use and hair have been examined for impression formation (Graham & Jouhar, 1983; Cash, Dawson, Davis, Bowen & Galumbeck, 1989; Workman & Johnson, 1991), only a few studies (Cox & Glick, 1986; Kyle & Mahler, 1996; Nash, Fieldman, Hussey, Leveque & Pineau, 2006) have focussed on the effects of these variables from an employment perspective. These employment-focussed studies have highlighted the fact that grooming is an important variable to study in the recruitment process. The research on

eyeglasses in relation to physical attractiveness and personality traits has been quite extensive, but this will be the first study to evaluate these three aspects of grooming in combination within the context of employment selection, as, despite the extensive body of popular literature devoted to the importance of projecting the right image in the workplace, academic research in this area is limited.

1.2 Value of this study

This study makes an important contribution to the academic literature regarding the influence of grooming on female managerial job applicants. It extends the work of previous researchers by being the first to evaluate the influence of cosmetics, hairstyle, and eyeglasses in combination within the context of employment selection. In addition, this research extends previous studies by questioning the perceptions of recruitment consultants in current business settings, as opposed to those of convenient student populations.

The findings of this study will be of some value to the recruitment industry and particularly the Recruitment and Employment Confederation (REC), the professional body that represents this industry in the UK and whose remit includes the education and dissemination of information to its members. This research will provide valuable information on the influence of female grooming on professional personnel judgements to an industry that is heavily legislated to prevent employment discrimination on non-job-related factors, including physical appearance and grooming, through the Sex Discrimination Act (1975) and the Race Relations Act (1976). The findings may also be of value to a wider community of women in management and particularly to popular publications that cover this demographic target.

1.3 Research aim

The aim of this research is to examine the influence of cosmetics, hairstyle and

eyeglasses on British recruitment consultants' impressions and evaluations of a female managerial applicant when the other influencing nonverbal factors, including dress and attractiveness, are held equal, and to provide recommendations for managerial grooming where possible.

To achieve the above aim, Chapter 2 evaluates the literature related to dress and attractiveness and more specifically cosmetics, hairstyle and eyeglasses, highlighting the depth of physical appearance studies taking place in the 1970s and 1980s, but accentuating the lack of studies focussed on grooming in an employment context, with a much smaller body of research taking place in the 2000s. This background enables the author to develop specific research questions in Chapter 3, and an appropriate methodology in Chapter 4 to enable the influence of grooming to be tested, including the development of stimulus materials and suitable measures and procedures. The results of the analysis are presented in Chapter 5 and then discussed in Chapter 6, with final conclusions and recommendations for future research detailed in Chapter 7.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The importance of physical appearance in person perception theory is well-documented (Thornton, 1944; McKeachie, 1952; Miller, 1970; Peterson & Curran, 1976). First impressions are often formed on the basis of physical attractiveness, dress and grooming cues, which are then used to differentiate people into meaningful groups. People consciously or unconsciously make these inferences because they have learned through previous experience with other people or the media that certain meanings or stereotypes are attached to particular forms of physical appearance.

Once grouped, a range of personality and psychological traits are ascribed to individuals within each category (Hamid, 1972; McKeachie, 1952; Thornton, 1944). Critically, for this research, there is evidence that physical cues such as attractiveness, dress and grooming become more important when the observer has limited information about another person (Hamid, 1969) and when, due to the fast-paced nature of the business world today, it is often necessary to evaluate another person in a limited time frame.

Western society also attaches a great deal of importance to physical appearance in both social and work settings. Yet, applicants who are consciously or unconsciously denied entry into organisations based on their physical appearance or grooming are suffering an unacceptable form of employment discrimination (Hurley-Hanson & Giannantonio, 2006). Indeed, legislation exists to prevent employment discrimination based on non-job-related factors. The Human Rights Act (1993) in New Zealand, the Sex Discrimination Act (1975) and the Race Relations Act (1976) in the United Kingdom, and the Civil Rights Act (1991) in the United States of America, all prohibit bias on the basis of sex,

gender, marital status, family status, religious or ethical beliefs, colour, race and ethnic origin, employment status and sexual orientation (Watkins & Johnston, 2000). Yet, the existence of these laws is not sufficient to prevent job applicants from being turned down for a position because of decisions based on their physical appearance.

The rise in appearance discrimination cases (Fisher & Phillips, 2005, as cited in Hurley-Hanson & Giannantonio, 2006) suggests that physical attractiveness, personal appearance and grooming may play an important role in the employment process. Recent grooming and appearance discrimination cases against companies such as Abercrombie and Fitch, Harrah's, the Mondrian Hotel and L'Oreal suggest that employees in the retail, entertainment and hospitality industries who have significant contact with customers may suffer more from image issues more than employees from other industries (Hurley-Hanson & Giannantonio, 2006). Companies in the hospitality, entertainment and retail industries may endeavour to employ workers whose appearance is aligned with the organisations' image. Others contend that it is appropriate to select on the basis of the best fit between the job applicant and the organisation's values and culture, a tendency that appears to be increasing (Bowen, Ledford & Nathan, 1991; Bretz, Rynes & Gerhart, 1993). However, this 'best fit' practice can increase the potential for biased decisions. Recruiters, especially those with limited experience, may base their search for fit on inappropriate factors, such as gender and attractiveness (Schneider, 1987), and be unaware of how extensively appearance influences their recruitment practice.

2.2 Dress

Adding to the literature, early research established that dress plays a considerable role in the perception of personal attributes (Hoult, 1954; Douty, 1963; Connor, Nagasawa and Peters, 1975; Lapitsky and Smith, 1981), and may

be used to classify individuals into membership of various groups (Solomon and Schopler, 1982). Kelley, Jones, Hatch and Nelson (1976) found that appearance becomes the determining factor when the abilities of two employees are equal. One reason for this is because dress is a meaningful symbol, which acts as a source for assumptions about the wearer's personal characteristics (Forsythe, Drake & Cox, 1984). In a very early study, Hamid (1968) found that consistent stereotypes originated from dress as opposed to facial characteristics, because dress provided a greater source of cues to person perception. Conner, Peters and Nagasawa (1975) examined the influence of person and dress in the development of first impressions and concluded that dress has a stronger effect than person on impressions of sociability. However, they also examined intelligence and concluded that dress did not affect perceptions of intelligence, which is contrary to the work of Lennon and Miller (1984-85). Further research by Lennon (1986) found that inferences communicated by a single dress or appearance symbol could be combined in an additive way to predict the impressions communicated by two or more symbols in combination.

Peluchette, Karl and Rust (2006) studied students' attitudes and perceptions of dress and found that those who valued workplace dress used it as a tool to control the impressions of others and felt that it benefited their employment situation. Rafaeli and Dutton (1997), in their study of female administrative employees, also found that dress was used as an informative symbol for engaging in work and role execution. Dress acts as a determinant as to how others behave towards the wearer and can create a self-fulfilling behavioural prophecy (Solomon and Schopler, 1982). Peluchette, Karl and Rust (2006) found that dressing for success was particularly pertinent to those in management positions and that compared to men, women were more interested in dress and spent more time and effort on their appearance. In the Peluchette et al. research,

the subjects studied believed that by managing their dress, they could influence others' views, achieve greater power and benefit from promotions and salary increases. Solomon and Schopler (1982) also found that females showed a greater interest in clothing compared to males and placed more importance on dress in relation to their role accomplishment.

Therefore, although dress is only one variable, since information gained during the recruitment process is limited, well-informed use of dress symbols may enhance communication of the character traits necessary for female applicants applying for managerial roles (Forsythe, Drake & Cox, 1984). In Johnson, Schofield and Yurchisin's (2002) research, the majority of respondents believed that they and others could correctly interpret appearance information and dress cues, including personality traits, behavioural information, biological characteristics, health and hygiene information, and social roles. Christman and Branson's (1990) research on the influence of physical disability and dress found that female job applicants were rated significantly higher on management potential attributes when dressed in highly appropriate and moderately appropriate attire in comparison to inappropriate attire. Glick, Larsen, Johnson and Branstiter (2005) found that a female in a high status management role who dressed in a sexy fashion (including hairstyle and cosmetics) compared to a business-like manner, elicited perceptions of lower competence and intelligence, but dressing in this way had no effect on the lower status role of receptionist. Kwon (1994), investigating perceptions of the role clothing plays, found that those who described themselves as "properly dressed" for work believed they looked more responsible, competent, knowledgeable, professional, honest, reliable, intelligent, trustworthy, hardworking, and efficient than when "not properly dressed" for work.

A body of research on dress shows that professional women make the best impression when wearing a 'uniform' akin to a man's business suit, consisting of a jacket, matching skirt and blouse (Forsythe, Drake & Cox, 1984; Workman, 1984; Cash, 1985; Davis, 1987; Johnson & Roach-Higgins, 1987a, 1987b; Thurston, Lennon & Clayton, 1990), as this combination successfully conveys competence traits suitable for a range of professions.

Forsythe (1990) examined the influence of female job applicants' dress on interviewers' perceptions of management characteristics and their employment selections for a managerial position. Job applicants were perceived as more forceful, self-reliant, dynamic, decisive and aggressive when wearing more masculine clothing and received more positive employment recommendations. This finding, like that of an earlier Forsythe (1988) study, was not significantly biased by the interviewers' sex or occupation. Yet, other researchers have found major gender variations in responses to dress.

Cash (1985) found that women could improve their perceived managerial traits and reduce their perceived feminine traits by changing their grooming style (dress, accessories, cosmetics and hairstyle). When the applicant was groomed in the managerial condition, she was perceived as more ambitious, likely to have managerial potential, career-oriented, assertive, confident, financially responsible and intelligent than in the non-managerial grooming condition. Cash (1985) found that men preferred a more masculine managerial grooming style over a more feminine non-managerial style, while women did not. Damhorst and Reed (1986) found that men, in comparison to women, judged female applicants dressed in dark colours to be higher in competence traits. Dillion (1980) found that men were more inclined than women to perceive tailored dress as appropriate for professional women. Rucker, Taber and Harrison (1981) also found significant

differences in ratings given by male and female judges of appropriate dress for female managers.

Although there have been few research studies of work-related dress since the early 1990s, a more recent study by Rehman, Nietert, Cope and Kilpatrick (2005) on the impact of physicians' dress found that patient trust and confidence were significantly correlated with a preference for professional dress, and female physicians' dress was decidedly more important to respondents than male physicians' dress.

Johnson, Crutsinger and Workman (1994) tested whether women in middle management can dress in too masculine a way by studying the comparative effects of wearing a necktie, a scarf or an open-collared blouse. They found that subjects judged a female manager wearing either a necktie or a scarf as more likely to have managerial traits than one wearing an open-collared blouse.

However, subjects rated the female manager wearing a scarf as more likely to be promoted than a female manager wearing a necktie or an open-collared blouse.

The authors concluded that these research results demonstrated that women managers can legitimately assume some degree of masculinity in their dress without attracting negative responses, but not to the point where their dress is seen as conflicting with their gender role. This gender/role dress conflict is consistent with the findings of Forsythe, Drake and Cox (1984), who found that increased masculinity of female applicants' dress did increase others' perceptions of them as having masculine traits deemed suitable for managers.

However, they also found that dress which is very masculine might not be judged as positively as dress that includes some feminine elements. In Forsythe's (1988) study, the most positive responses were also for applicants wearing moderately masculine dress. But, previous research by Heilman and Saruwatari (1979) and Cash (1985) suggested, the more masculine the dress, the more favourable the

employment decision, although this finding may have been influenced by the dress style at that time, which has continued to evolve as fashion trends change.

2.3 Attractiveness

Research on the bias towards physically attractive people is robust, with the most common finding being that attractive people are perceived as having more positive character traits in comparison to unattractive people (Gillen 1981).

Attractive men and women are perceived to be happier, and more sociable, intelligent and successful than their unattractive counterparts (Dion, Berscheid & Walster, 1972; Berscheid & Walster, 1974; Hatfield & Spreacher, 1986; Feingold, 1992). Attractive people are rated more favourably than unattractive people in a number of settings, including the following: in teacher judgements of students (Clifford & Walster, 1973), in student evaluations of professors (Riniolo, Johnson, Sherman & Misso, 2006), on academic tasks (Landy & Signal, 1974; Maruyama & Miller, 1980), on voter preferences for political candidates (Efran & Patterson, 1974) and jury judgements (Efran, 1974; Sigall & Ostrove, 1975; Saladin, Saper & Breen, 1988; MacCoun, 1990; Downs & Lyons, 1991; Wuensch, Castellow & Moore, 1991). This physical attractiveness stereotype has become known as 'what is beautiful is good' (Dion et al., 1972) and has been found to be especially salient in research simulating employment decisions.

Dipboye, Fromkin and Wiback (1975) found that professional interviewers who assessed applicants for a managerial position favoured attractive applicants over unattractive applicants, when the qualifications of the two groups were held equal. A later replication of this study by Dipboye, Arvey and Terpestra (1977) produced similar results. Raza and Carpenter (1987) also found that attractive job applicants received higher ratings on factors such as general employability and willingness to hire, although this study might have been affected by response bias, as the interviewers, rather than independent judges of attractiveness, were

used. In a later study, Morrow, McElroy, Stamper and Wilson (1990) also found that the attractiveness of an applicant significantly affected recommendations for promotion and expected future success. Watkins and Johnston's (2000) later study found that while attractiveness had no impact when the quality of the job applicant was high, it enhanced the evaluation of average applicants.

Despite these findings, Heilman and Saruwatari (1979) found that while attractiveness was always an advantage for male job applicants (Ross & Ferris, 1981; Beehr & Gilmore, 1982), it was only an advantage for females when seeking traditionally feminine, non-managerial jobs. When seeking traditionally male managerial positions, female job applicants were handicapped by their attractiveness, as under this condition subjects preferred the less attractive female applicants. This negative bias was found to be the case in ratings of qualifications, recommendations for hiring, suggested starting salary and ranking of hiring preferences. Heilman and Saruwatari (1979) termed this finding the 'beauty is beastly' effect. Earlier research by Cash, Gillen and Burns (1977) demonstrated this effect when attractive female job applicants were rated by recruitment consultants more positively than unattractive ones for feminine and neutral jobs. Yet, the researchers found that attractive female applicants were rated as less qualified and less likely to be hired than unattractive women for a 'masculine' job. Marvelle and Green (1980) also found that attractiveness was only helpful to job applicants when they were interviewed for jobs that were seen as gender-appropriate.

Gillen (1981) took attractiveness research further by proposing that not only were attractive people perceived as possessing more socially desirable characteristics, but also that attractiveness enhanced gender traits. Jackson (1983) found that masculine applicants were favoured over feminine applicants for masculine occupations, while feminine applicants were favoured over masculine applicants

for feminine occupations. Heilman and Stopeck's (1985b) study confirmed that attractive men were perceived as more masculine and attractive women as more feminine than their unattractive counterparts. Heilman and Stopeck (1985a) also found that attractiveness had a detrimental effect for female managers, even if they were proven to be successful and to have attained the executive ranks on their own merits. Their success was attributed less to ability and more to luck, and they were consistently judged to be less capable than their unattractive female counterparts.

Schein (1973) provided some explanation for this stereotyping by reporting that the personality traits usually attributed to women are not traits associated with success in management jobs. Heilman (1983) proposed a lack-of-fit model to explain this incongruence, which suggested that work-related gender and attractiveness biases are the consequence of a poor fit between the perceived traits of a person and the perceived requirements of the job. Therefore, when an attractive female is perceived to be more stereotypically feminine than an unattractive woman (Gillen, 1981), the result is a poor fit between the attractive female's competence and the managerial role. This conclusion is supported by Cash and Trimmer (1984), who found that the work of attractive females was downgraded when the task was a masculine one.

Cash and Kilcullen's (1985) study replicated the results of Dipboye et al. (1975 & 1977) and Heilman and Saruwatari (1979) by finding that attractive male applicants were preferred over unattractive male applicants. However, they found that attractive female applicants were also preferred over unattractive female applicants, which is in direct contrast to Heilman and Saruwatari's (1979) findings. This may be explained by the managerial job description utilised in the study, which required greater interpersonal skills than the studies previously mentioned and may have been perceived as utilising more 'feminine' skills. The

research of Marlowe, Schneider and Nelson (1996) also supports the 'what is beautiful is good' effect, but not the 'beauty is beastly' effect.

In a study evaluating both dress and physical attractiveness, Johnson and Roach-Higgins (1987) found that dress had a small but consistent influence on recruitment consultants' perceptions, but attractiveness in combination with job type did not. This finding did not support earlier research by Heilman and Saruwatari (1979), Heilman and Stopeck (1985a) and Jackson (1983). A possible explanation for this inconsistency in research findings is that previous researchers have used extremes of physical attractiveness when evaluating its effects and, when more moderate variations are used, attractiveness is likely to become a much less influential criterion. In addition, some of the research evaluating the effect of physical appearance has operationalised attractiveness by only using pictures depicting the head and shoulders of an individual, which disregards the influence of other aspects of dress, grooming and body type, etc. Some studies have played down the effect of the attractiveness biases by observing a small effect: for example, Shahani, Dipboye and Gehrlein (1993) found although there was a small but significant bias toward attractive applicants in interview evaluations, there was no bias in the actual admission decisions. Nonetheless, attractiveness biases are perhaps inadvertent and their subtlety may make them challenging to detect. In addition, researchers such as Morrow et al. (1990) and Stone, Stone and Dipboye (1992) proposed that attractiveness might be the deciding factor for recruiters when difficult employment decisions are made between similar job applicants with comparable, skills, qualifications and experience.

2.4 Cosmetics

Since the early 1980s a body of research has investigated the use of cosmetics and their influence on person perception. Yet, it is still a relatively new field and

there is not extensive research about the dynamics of changing one's appearance through cosmetic grooming. Nevertheless, the use of cosmetics does provide a simple yet powerful means to manipulate what we look like and Franzoi (2001), in his work on sexism theory, observed that cosmetic use provided a fast, cheap and widely available way for women to enhance their beauty and thereby boost their beauty-mediated social power.

Graham and Jouhar (1981) found in their study that women (pre-selected as average in physical attractiveness) using cosmetics were rated more favourably by both male and female professional business people on both appearance and personality attributes than were those without cosmetics. Females wearing cosmetics were rated as being more clean, tidy, feminine, attractive and mature. In addition, they were rated as being more secure, sociable, interesting, poised, confident, organised and popular. The researchers concluded that the use of makeup by females improved the way they were rated on the more 'outgoing' facets of personality (as being sociable, interesting, confident) and hair care improved ratings of the milder facets of personality (being seen as caring, sensitive, kind, sincere). Graham and Jouhar (1981) proposed the cosmetic stereotype 'what is cared for is good' as an expansion to the existing 'what is beautiful is good' catchphrase used to describe the impact of physical attractiveness.

Cosmetics have also been found to have an impact on the wearers as well as the observers. Cash, Dawson, Davis, Bowen and Galumbeck (1989) found that when research subjects wore cosmetics, they had a more positive body image than when the facial makeup was removed. In this study, males rated the female subjects wearing cosmetics as more attractive than when wearing no cosmetics, although women rated the subjects equally favourably in both conditions. This difference in ratings by male and females is inconsistent with Graham and

Jouhar's (1981) findings, though it may be explained by methodological variations between the two studies, as Graham and Jouhar (1981) used facial photographs of women with professionally applied makeup and Cash, Dawson, Davis, Bowen and Galumbeck (1989) used full-body photographs of women who applied their own typical makeup. In addition, Graham and Jouhar (1981) selected professional business people as participants and Cash, Dawson, Davis, Bowen and Galumbeck (1989) used undergraduate student participants. Mulhern, Fieldman, Hussey, Leveque and Pineau (2003) examined the influence of cosmetics on women in their 30s and found women with full makeup were judged more attractive than the same women without makeup. They found that eye makeup and foundation contributed the most to the improvement in judgements of attractiveness. Workman and Johnson (1991), in their study on the role of cosmetics in impression formation, found that whilst cosmetic use significantly affected impressions of attractiveness, femininity and morality, it did not affect judgements of personality or temperament traits.

Cash and Cash (1982) asked female subjects to visualise themselves in a selection of social situations with and without their typical makeup and found that the use of cosmetics created increased self-confidence and sociability. They also found that women who were discontented with aspects of their physical appearance and particularly self-conscious reported increased cosmetic use. This result is replicated by Miller and Cox (1982), who found that women who were particularly concerned about their appearance wore more makeup and felt that cosmetic use improved their social interactions. Hospital patients with a range of medical conditions have also been found to have improved self-perceptions after a cosmetic makeover (Holme, Beattie and Fleming, 2002; Boehncke, Ochsendorf, Paeslack, Kaufmann and Zollner, 2002).

Cash, Rissi and Chapman's (1985) research evaluated differences in the quantity of cosmetics used by individuals and found that high-quantity users perceived themselves as more feminine, but cosmetics use was not linked to self-esteem. In Workman and Johnson's (1991b) study where females viewed a photograph of a model wearing heavy, moderate or no cosmetics, they found that impressions of the model's personality did not change with cosmetic use, but the use of cosmetics significantly affected impressions of attractiveness, femininity and morality. Overall, most studies propose a positive correlation between cosmetic use and body image and feelings of self-confidence. However, Johnson and Lewis (1988) explored whether impressions of a rape victim were affected by the use of cosmetics and dress, and found that the victim wearing no cosmetics was rated as significantly more moral, more romantic and more attractive than the victim wearing cosmetics. Workman and Johnson (1991a) investigated the effect of cosmetics use on attitudes towards sexual harassment and found that a model wearing heavy or moderate cosmetics was rated as more likely to provoke sexual harassment and be sexually harassed than when not wearing cosmetics.

Cox and Glick (1986) explored the correlation between employment evaluations of women and the use of cosmetics. They found that cosmetics use was linked to perceived attractiveness, femininity and sexiness. However, based on the evaluations of the subjects' résumés, cosmetics had a negative effect on the expected performances of applicants for a gender-typed (secretary) position, but no consequence on the expected performance of applicants for a non-gender-typed (accountant) position. Cox and Glick concluded that cosmetics enhance perceived attractiveness and femininity and thereby reinforce gender-role stereotypes associated with traditional job roles for women. Nash, Fieldman, Hussey, Leveque and Pineau's research (2006) found that female subjects wearing cosmetics were perceived to have greater earning potential and

considered to have more prestigious jobs than the same women without cosmetics. Female subjects were also rated as healthier and more confident when wearing cosmetics. Yet, although both men and women perceived the female subjects wearing cosmetics to have greater earning potential, only men perceived that they would have more prestigious jobs. This gender difference suggests that, as cosmetic users themselves, women may have different attitudes and opinions towards cosmetics use than men.

Nevertheless, these findings are contrary to research undertaken by Kyle and Mahler (1996), who investigated the influence of hair colour and cosmetics use on judgements of female job applicants' abilities for a non-gender-typed (accountant) position and found that applicants not wearing cosmetics were judged to be more competent and given higher starting salaries than women wearing cosmetics. Kyle and Mahler concluded that women wearing cosmetics are perceived as more feminine, but femininity is not strongly coupled with competency traits such as assertiveness and self-reliance. However, the differences between the studies might be explained by methodological variations, as the female subjects used in Cox and Glick's (1986) study were between the ages of 22 and 30 and had their cosmetics applied by a professional, as did the women in their early 30s used by Nash, Fieldman, Hussey, Leveque and Pineau (2006). By contrast, the single subject used by Kyle and Mahler (1996) was 40 years old and applied her own makeup.

Again, in contrast with the early study of Graham and Jouhar (1981), Croizet, and Richetin (2006) found cosmetics had a negative influence on impression formation. The study involved showing photographs of young and old female models of average attractiveness, with and without cosmetics, to three groups of student participants. The researchers observed that when wearing cosmetics, the models were perceived as more attractive than when not wearing cosmetics.

However, heavy cosmetic use had a particularly negative impact on personality impressions for the young models, who were rated as more unfaithful and shallow and less honest and intelligent. This finding suggests that the age of cosmetics users is a determinant in the way they are viewed by others, an outcome which was not moderated by the cosmetic wearer's physical attractiveness and which the authors of the research article saw as evidence of a cosmetic stereotype. Huguet, Croizet, and Richetin also considered the effect of cosmetics to be dependent on the perceivers' group membership, as participants with a background in cosmetics assigned more positive traits to cosmetic use and participants who did not value cosmetics assigned more negative traits to cosmetics use.

2.5 Hairstyle

There have been a very limited number of research studies evaluating the influence of length and style of cranial hair in terms of physical attractiveness and the employment context, with more studies focused on hair colour. Unlike other features of the human body, cranial hair can be easily, and even profoundly, transformed with the use of cut, colour and hairpieces. In terms of colour, blondes are commonly perceived as more attractive, seductive, and outgoing, although they have also been perceived as untrustworthy, manipulative, and promiscuous (Guthrie, 1976; Lawson, 1971). Jacobi and Cash's (1992) study found that of the White college women they studied, 39% selected blonde as their preferred hair colour, but 84% believed that men preferred blonde-haired women (in Jacobi & Cash, 1994). In much later research, Takeda, Helms, Klintworth and Sompayrac (2005) found that stereotypes about blondes' incompetence led to their not being promoted to managerial levels, specifically CEO appointments in America. This study was replicated in the United Kingdom (Takeda, Helms & Romanova, 2006) where the researchers also found support

for the premise of preconceived hair colour stereotypes, with blondes being under-represented in CEO positions, whilst redheads were over-represented.

This finding is similar to that of Clayson and Maughn's (1986), research which found redheaded females to be perceived as unlikeable but competent. Yet in Kyle and Mahler's (1996) study, examining the effects of hair colour and cosmetic use on judgements of female job applicants' abilities for a professional position, applicants were rated as being significantly less capable when portrayed with blond or red hair and applicants shown with brunette hair were rated as more capable and were assigned a higher salary. In a similar experimental design, where the same women were portrayed either as blondes or brunettes, Cunningham, Druen and Barbee (1997) found that blondes were rated as more attractive, feminine, emotional and pleasure-seeking, whereas brunettes were seen as more intelligent. These findings echo those of Rich and Cash (1993).

Swami, Furnham and Joshi (2008), in a study examining the role of skin tone, hair colour and hair length in perceptions of women's physical attractiveness, health and fertility, found that of the three elements, hair colour accounted for the largest variance. In this study, contrary to the earlier research, brunettes were rated more physically attractive than blondes and, in addition, hair length had only a small effect on attractiveness ratings. By contrast, a study by Baktay-Korsos (1999) found that long-haired girls in primary school have more friends and are seen as more popular and attractive in comparison to boys and short-haired girls. This finding aligns with a historically held view that long hair communicates gender distinctiveness (Morris, 1985) and is a symbol of youth and reproductive potential (Hinsz et al. 1985). Mesko and Bereczkei (2004), in their study of hair from an evolutionary perspective, found that, in comparison to faces without visible cranial hair, long and medium-length hairstyles had a significant positive effect on ratings of women's attractiveness, whereas short

hair and hair which was pulled back into a bun did not. Nevertheless, hair which was pulled back into a bun was found to boost femininity compared to short hair, particularly in women who were less facially attractive, but also served to decrease their youthfulness compared to women with long hair. In a very early study by Peterson and Curran (1976) evaluating male hair length, men with long hair were rated by females as being more feminine, youthful and pleasure-seeking, while men with short hair were judged as more masculine, strong and mature. In a later study, Bereczkei and Mesko (2006) reconfirmed their earlier findings and found that, in addition to influencing attractiveness, hair length affected certain personality judgements, with long hair communicating qualities such as intelligence, femininity, dominance and health, whereas short hair conveyed judgements such as honesty, caring and emotional depth.

Terry and Krantz's (1993) research, which was one of the first studies to investigate the role women's hair length, found that long hair on women was linked to decreased forcefulness. This perceived decrease in forcefulness was attributed to hair softening the form of the face and giving a more youthful look. Nonetheless, long hair was not seen as diminishing social value or competence traits. Cunningham, Roberts, Barbee, Druen and Wu (1995) found that young men preferred women with long hair compared to short hair. Jacobi and Cash (1994) found that females believed men preferred women with longer hair and that hair length and quality acted as a cue to assumptions about a woman's youth and health (Hinsz, Matz and Patience, 2001). Women understood that their hair could indicate different things. For example, women with long hair often wear it pulled up in work situations and then 'let their hair down' in social situations (Ackerman, 1991; Morris, 1985).

2.6 Eyeglasses

The research on eyeglasses in relation to physical attractiveness and personality traits has been quite extensive in the last 50 years. People who wear eyeglasses tend to be rated as less physically attractive (Hamid, 1972; Terry & Kroger, 1976; Harris, 1991; Harris & Bochner, 1982; Edwards, 1987), and women in comparison to men are more likely to attract negative social judgements from wearing eyeglasses (Terry, 1989b & 1989c). Terry and Hall (1989) also found that while eyeglasses diminish ratings of female attractiveness, they increase ratings of male attractiveness. Terry (1993) also found that the wearing of eyeglasses hindered people's ability to recognise faces and detracted from the attractiveness of the eye region and overall facial appearance.

In Harris's (1991) study, when subjects viewed a photograph of an individual and were unaware that attitudes towards eyeglasses were being measured, the models wearing eyeglasses were seen as less sexy, more likely to read and somewhat less attractive. However, by contrast, when subjects were directly questioned about their stereotypes of people with eyeglasses, a large number of positive traits were identified as being more typical of people with eyeglasses. The results of this study suggest that the stereotypes of men and women with eyeglasses rely to some degree on the instrument used to measure them. Interestingly, men in this study saw eyeglasses as making women look more attractive and sexy, whereas women thought that wearing eyeglasses would make them look less so. This finding did not confirm those of earlier studies (Terry, 1989b & 1989c; Terry & Hall, 1989), which found that the wearing of eyeglasses has a greater negative impact on women than men. However, it is consistent with the findings that women feel that eyeglasses make them less physically attractive (Terry & Brady, 1976; Terry & Hall, 1989; Terry & Kroger, 1976).

The increased uptake of contact lenses by women compared with men (Terry, 1988) appears to add weight to the possibility that women have a more negative self-image of eyeglasses than do men. Berk (1963), Terry (1981, 1982, 1989a, 1990), Terry and Brady (1976) and Terry and Kroger (1976) have all proposed that people choose to wear contact lenses rather than eyeglasses to moderate feelings of anxiety and unattractiveness. In a recent study, Walline, Jones, Sinnott, Chitkara, Coffey, Jackson, Manny, Rah and Prinstein (2009) evaluated whether contact lens wear affected children's self-perceptions and found that physical appearance, athletic competence and social acceptance self-perceptions improved with the wearing of contact lenses.

In their early study, Ruth and Richards (1974) indicated that wearing eyeglasses is not consistent with femininity in females. Yet, Harris, Harris and Bochner (1982), in their study of stereotypes of obesity, eyeglasses and gender, found no support for the proposition that female eyeglass wearers would be seen as less feminine and, replicating this result, Harris (1991) found that eyeglasses had a propensity to enhance the perceived femininity of women. They also found that eyeglasses enhanced the perceived masculinity of men, which is similar to the findings of Ruth and Richards (1974), but contrary to the findings of Terry (1989) and Elman (1977), who found that men wearing eyeglasses attracted feminine stereotypes.

Harris (1991) also found that people who wore eyeglasses regarded themselves as more intelligent and more intense than those who did not. This perceived intelligence echoes research where eyeglasses were positively linked with competence-related qualities such as intelligence, authority, industriousness, dependability, alertness and honesty (Manz & Lueck, 1968; Argyle & McHenry, 1971; Hamid, 1972; Boshier, 1975; Harris, Harris & Bochner, 1982; Edwards, 1987; Bartolini, Kresge, McLennan, Windham, Buhr, & Pryor, 1988; Terry &

Krantz, 1993). A recent study by Walline, Sinnott, Johnson, Ticak, Jones and Jones (2008) evaluating children's attitudes about eyeglasses also found that children wearing eyeglasses appeared smarter and more honest to others.

Nonetheless, eyeglasses have also been associated with not being as active, imaginative, outgoing, attractive, popular and athletic (Thornton, 1943; Manz & Lueck, 1968; Hamid, 1968; Argyle & McHenry, 1971; Boshier, 1975; Terry & Kroger, 1976; Karlsson, 1978). Eyeglasses also tend to be associated with a less developed sense of humour (Thornton, 1943; Manz & Lueck, 1968) and with being more fearful, timid, dependent, gentle and lacking in social forcefulness (Elman, 1977; Terry, 1989c; Terry & Krantz, 1993). Research has also shown that people who wear eyeglasses tend to have heightened anxiety (Terry & Zimmerman, 1979) and lower self-esteem (Terry & Brady, 1976; Terry, Berg & Phillips, 1983). Harris (1991) proposed that, as many people now have the choice of wearing contact lenses as an alternative to eyeglasses, the wearing of eyeglasses is a deliberate choice and thus a clue to the wearer's character traits.

2.7 Conclusion

Despite the emphasis on equal employment opportunities and attempts to eliminate biases in employment, it appears that physical appearance is hard to ignore and continues to be of some consequence in the recruitment process. While job skills and education will always play a significant part in employment decisions, other factors, such as the applicant's dress, appearance and grooming, may receive increased attention as the job market, in the current worldwide economic recession, becomes more competitive. Despite the extensive body of popular literature devoted to the importance of projecting the right image in the workplace, a much smaller body of academic research has evaluated grooming factors which can be controlled and manipulated by individuals, and with much of this research taking place in the 1970s and 1980s

and a much smaller body of research taking place in the 2000s, many of these studies are now dated in regard to fashion styles. Yet the studies included in this literature review have highlighted the fact that grooming is an important variable to study in relation to the recruitment process. Cosmetics, hairstyle and eyeglasses are three potentially influential physical appearance cues in the recruitment process that can be easily altered, unlike many other physical appearance cues, such as height and facial structure. This makes them worthy of future research, as potential findings may indicate that easily made changes in female job applicants' grooming appearance may subsequently significantly affect recruiters' employment assessments of them.

CHAPTER 3: PAST FINDINGS AND RESEARCH QUESTION DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Cosmetics

Research to date indicates conflicting findings on the relationship between job applicants' use of cosmetics and their perceived capability. Cosmetic use has been typically linked with higher attributions of femininity, which previous research has revealed results in inferior assessments of ability for non-gender-typed roles (Kyle & Mahler, 1996; Davis, 1987; Forsythe et al., 1985). However, Cox and Glick (1986) concluded that while cosmetics reinforce gender role stereotypes associated with traditional job roles for women, such as a secretarial position, there was no effect on applicants for a non-gender-typed position, such as that of an accountant. Kyle and Mahler's (1996) research found that job applicants for a non-gender-typed position were rated as significantly more capable when not wearing cosmetics.

However, Nash, Fieldman, Hussey, Leveque & Pineau's (2006) research found that participants awarded women wearing cosmetics a greater assumed earnings potential and more prestigious jobs than the same women without cosmetics. However, the conflicting findings of these studies may be due to methodological variations, as the female subjects used in Cox and Glick's (1986) study were between the ages of 22 and 30 and had their cosmetics applied by a professional, as did the women in their early 30s used by Nash, Fieldman, Hussey, Leveque and Pineau (2006). By contrast, the single subject used by Kyle and Mahler (1996) was 40 years old and applied her own makeup. Consequently, this research seeks to clarify the relationship between cosmetics and perceived capability in relation to a non-gender-typed role and the research question relating to cosmetics is:

Question 1:

- Will the job applicant wearing cosmetics be perceived as being more competent, having greater employment potential and being worthy of being assigned a higher starting salary than when not wearing cosmetics?

3.2 Hairstyle

Research studies evaluating hairstyle and length have been very limited, with no past studies evaluating hairstyle in relation to the employment context. Research by Terry and Krantz (1993) found that women's long hair was associated with perceptions of decreased forcefulness but long hair was not found to affect judgements about mental competence. Mesko and Bereczkei (2004) found that long and medium-length hairstyles had a significant positive effect on ratings of women's attractiveness, whereas short hair and hair that was pulled back into a bun did not. Bereczkei and Mesko (2006) found that, in addition to influencing attractiveness, long hair communicated qualities such as femininity, intelligence and health. Research is needed on the influence of hairstyle within the employment process to ascertain whether the perceptions found in the limited research undertaken to-date are pertinent to the recruitment context. Therefore, the research question is:

Question 2:

- Will the job applicant wearing her hair down be perceived as being less independent, having less employment potential and deserving of a lower starting salary than when wearing her hair pulled up away from her face?

3.3 Eyeglasses

Research on eyeglasses in relation to attractiveness and personality traits has been relatively comprehensive, with many researchers finding that women who

wear eyeglasses tend to be perceived as less attractive (Hamid, 1972; Terry & Kroger, 1976; Harris, Harris & Bochner, 1982; Edwards, 1987; Terry, 1989), and rated higher on competence-related traits such as intelligence, authority, industriousness, dependability, alertness and honesty (Manz & Lueck, 1968; Argyle & McHenry, 1971; Hamid, 1972; Boshier, 1975; Harris, Harris & Bochner, 1982; Edwards, 1987; Bartolini, Kresge, McLennan, Windham, Buhr, & Pryor, 1988; Terry & Krantz, 1993). Given these quite widely-held perceptions of female eyeglass wearers, although in research that was not directly related to the recruitment process, the research question is:

Question 3:

- Will the job applicant wearing eyeglasses be perceived as being more competent, having greater employment potential and being worthy of a higher starting salary than when not wearing eyeglasses?

This research study sets out to explore these questions and determine the influence of cosmetics, hairstyle and eyeglasses on recruitment consultants' impressions and evaluations of a female managerial applicant. The following chapter will review the methodologies that were employed in this research.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

4. 1 Introduction

In order to answer the research questions set out in the preceding chapter, and determine the influence of cosmetics, hairstyle and eyeglasses on recruitment consultants' impressions of a female managerial applicant, this chapter details the methodology and design of the research and the sampling used. Firstly, the rationale and development of the stimulus materials are explained and the measures and the procedures detailed. It also provides justification for the three scales used in the research to examine judgements of competence, employment potential and independence. Finally, the reasons for using the three-way factorial ANOVA to analyse the results of the study will be explained.

4. 2 Sample

The sample was selected from a population of professional recruitment consultants employed in agencies belonging to the Recruitment and Employment Confederation (REC). The REC is the only professional body that supports and represents the recruitment industry in the Britain. The REC's membership is made up of over 8000 recruitment agencies and businesses (corporate members) and 6000 recruitment professionals (individual members). The research was conducted using a sample of British recruitment consultants, as the author resides in the United Kingdom. Consent from the REC was sought and given to access the mailing addresses of all corporate member recruitment agencies that had the sector of accountancy within their agency specialisation. (See the details below of the rationale for the use of accountant as an occupation in this study).

This produced a data set of 614 British-based recruitment agencies. Using a random numbers table, each recruitment agency was randomly assigned to one

of the eight grooming conditions of the experiment. Each grooming condition either had 76 or 77 recruitment agencies assigned to it.

4.3 Stimulus materials

4.3.1 Model

To test the effect of grooming – cosmetics, hair and eyeglasses – while keeping attractiveness and dress constant, one Caucasian female volunteer of average attractiveness was recruited to produce the eight photographs. Average attractiveness in this study, along with the study of Cox and Glick (1986), is classified as a female who is not employed as a professional model.

Unlike previous grooming studies, which used college student models (Cash et al., 1989; Cox and Glick, 1986), the model recruited in this study was in her 30s, as this age group is considered more appropriate for managerial positions and for the measurement of earning potential (Nash, Fieldman, Hussey, Leveque and Pineau, 2006). The model recruited had brunette hair colour to avoid the known stereotypes associated with women with red and blonde coloured hair (Guthrie, 1976; Lawson, 1971; Takeda, Helms, Klintworth & Sompayrac, 2005; Kyle & Mahler, 1996; Cunningham, Druen & Barbee, 1997).

The model gave her written consent, permitting the photographs to be used in the research study. (See Appendix A: Model information sheet and Model consent form).

4.3.2 Dress

Thurston, Lennon and Clayton (1990) found, in their study of women's professional image, that suits conveyed a stronger professional image than dresses for women of any age or body type. They also found that garments with contemporary and classic fashion details contributed to a stronger professional image. Research has also determined that wearing a jacket contributes more to

the perception of professional image than any other clothing item (Rucker, Taber & Harrison, 1981; Scherbaum & Shepherd, 1987). Forsythe, Drake and Cox (1984-85) also found that there was a positive relationship between masculinity of dress - that is, a skirted suit - and hiring recommendations for female executive job applicants. Further to this, Workman (1985) found that, despite job type, a female candidate received more positive ratings on personality characteristics when dressed in a skirted suit than when wearing other kinds of dress. Based on this body of research, the model was dressed for the photographs in a classic tailored navy skirted suit, with a white round-neck blouse underneath. The round-neck blouse was chosen over a button-up shirt with an angular collar because previous research has shown that when this type of shirt is combined with a dark coloured classic suit, it may be perceived as being too masculine to be appropriate for women and may not be judged as positively as dress which includes some feminine elements (Forsythe, Drake & Cox, 1984; 1985; Forsythe, 1988). The model was asked to remove all jewellery.

4.3.3 Photographs

The model was photographed in colour, using a high-resolution digital camera, by a professional photographer. Every effort was made to hold lighting, distance from camera and facial expression constant. The model was asked to maintain a relaxed neutral expression and look directly at the camera while being photographed. Where minor differences were found in the photographs, the image editing software Adobe Photoshop was used to copy elements as necessary onto all the relevant photographs.

Photographs depicting the female job applicant in each of the eight experimental conditions were shot from the waist up. Other researchers studying grooming and female dress have used a variety of photograph sizes and frequently print size is not specified (Cox & Glick, 1986; Nash, Fieldman, Hussey, Leveque & Pineau,

2006; Mesko & Bereczkei, 2004; Harris, 1991). As there was no clear protocol used by other researchers, the photographs in this study were printed as 5 inch x 3.75 inch photographs, which is the smallest standard size photograph in the UK. Although slightly larger, this size is still comparable to the 9cm x 10cm photograph size used by Graham and Jouhar (1983), and the 3 inch x 5 inch photograph used by Johnson and Roach-Higgins (1987).

The eight experimental grooming conditions were:

1. No cosmetics, hair down, no eye glasses
2. No cosmetics, hair down, eye glasses
3. No cosmetics, hair up, no eye glasses
4. No cosmetics, hair up, eye glasses
5. Cosmetics, hair down, no eye glasses
6. Cosmetics, hair down, eye glasses
7. Cosmetics, hair up, no eye glasses
8. Cosmetics, hair up, eye glasses.

Cosmetics were applied to the model by a professional makeup artist. Kyle and Mahler (1996) defined a moderate amount of cosmetics as foundation, blusher, eye shadow, eyeliner, mascara and lipstick. This study also adopted this level of cosmetic application as being appropriate for a female managerial job applicant and the makeup artist was asked to apply cosmetics that would be appropriate for a job interview situation.

The model's hair was also styled by a professional hair stylist. The hairstyle condition 'hair up' equates to hair being pulled away from the face and secured at the back in a hair bun/knot. The 'hair down' condition equates to hair styled in its natural medium to long length, looking appropriately groomed for a managerial job applicant.

The model was photographed using her own eyeglasses, as generally these would be the most stylish and suitable choice for the individual. The eyeglasses were of a small modern style with dark brown rims. See Appendix B for all corresponding photographs.

4. 3. 4 Job description

In a study on the effects of hair colour on a job applicant's perceived ability, Kyle and Mahler (1995) found that 76% of college students indicated that they identified the occupation of accountant with both genders. Hence it was decided to use this gender-neutral occupation in this study. The occupation of accountant was also chosen by Cox and Glick (1986) as a gender-neutral position in their study on employment evaluations of women and the use of varying degrees of cosmetics. Using the same occupation as these two directly related studies also enables a more useful comparison with their results.

A fictitious job description for the position of management accountant was developed by reviewing over 40 job advertisements that contained the job title 'management accountant' listed on the employment websites www.monster.co.uk and www.totaljobs.com in May 2009. The job description included the main duties and responsibilities of the successful job applicant, the experience required and key skills and qualifications for the role. A final draft of the fictitious job description was reviewed by a Financial Controller known to the author. See Appendix C: Fictitious job description.

4. 3. 5 Curriculum Vitae/Résumé

A fictitious curriculum vitae reflecting the standards typically required for a management accountant was developed by reviewing curricula vitae posted on the website www.cv-library.co.uk. Using the 'CV Search' facility and the keyword 'management accountant', over 40 management accountant curricula vitae were

reviewed in May 2009. Only small extracts of individual résumés were utilised in the development of a new fictitious curriculum vitae and new fictitious contact details and a name were added. The curriculum vitae compiled provided information about the applicant's educational background, work experience, achievements, positions of responsibility held, interests and academic record. The format of the curriculum vitae was based on the format of the reviewed résumés on www.cv-library.co.uk, with additional information on formatting sought from the careers advice website www.prospects.ac.uk, and from the specialist curriculum vitae source www.greatcvs.co.uk. A final draft of the fictitious curriculum vitae was reviewed by a Financial Controller known to the author. See Appendix D: Fictitious curriculum vitae.

4. 4 Measures

A modified version of Johnson and Roach's (1985, as cited in Gibson & Balkwell, 1990) employment potential questionnaire, developed for a study on dress and physical attractiveness of women in job interviews, was used in this study. The original questionnaire consisted of 27 personality and eight employment potential impressions and used Likert-type scales to rate the job applicant as she appeared in the photographs. The personality impressions were established by asking ten recruitment consultants to specify which items in a list of 71 - sourced from published dress, attractiveness and impressions research studies - were important for a potential employee to display. Those items that a majority of the judges indicated as important were included in the questionnaire.

Johnson and Roach-Higgins (1997a & 1997b) used the employment potential questionnaire for later research studies and a modified version was used by Workman and Johnson (1991) in a study on the role of cosmetics in impression formation, and also by Gibson and Balkwell (1990) in their study of the effects of

harmony between personal and apparel colouring on perceptions of a woman's employment potential. There are also considerable similarities in a much-expanded 68-trait list used by Johnson, Crutsinger and Workman (1994) in a study measuring dress and executive success.

Personality impressions:

1. Adaptable
2. Believable
3. Cheerful
4. Confident
5. Conscientious
6. Competent
7. Composed
8. Creative
9. Friendly
10. Independent
11. Likable
12. Loyal
13. Practical
14. Professional
15. Reliable
16. Risk-taker
17. Stable
18. Successful
19. Tactful
20. Willing to take a stand
21. Works well with others
22. Would defend own beliefs.

In this study, the following value judgements were also included:

23. Attractive

24. Feminine

25. Intelligent

26. Masculine.

Employment impressions:

1. This applicant would fit in well with other people.
2. This applicant has good leadership potential.
3. This applicant has good potential for success.
4. This applicant has good potential for fulfilling the job description.
5. Other people would like to work with this applicant.
6. This applicant has good potential for long service.
7. This applicant would work well under the direction of someone else.
8. I would recommend this applicant be put forward for an interview.
9. Assuming this job applicant was selected for employment I would recommend this applicant be offered a starting salary of (five choices differing by £2000 intervals).

Respondents were also required to answer some standard demographic questions about themselves, such as job title, age, sex, ethnicity, years spent as a recruiter and approximate number of staff employed where they work. The ethnicity classifications utilised in this study are recommended by National Statistics (www.statistics.gov.uk), are widely used and are identical to those used in the 2001 census in England and Wales. See Appendix E: Research questionnaire.

4.5 Procedure

Recruitment consultant subjects were sent a packet of information containing an invitation letter which explained that participants would be contributing to a research study evaluating employment selection decisions based on limited information about an applicant. Cosmetics, hairstyle and eyeglasses were not mentioned to avoid undue awareness of these factors in the ratings. It was made clear that participation was on a voluntary basis, and anonymity and confidentiality were assured. The invitation informed subjects that they would be evaluating fictitious female job applicants on a number of personal and employment potential measures and respondents were also required to answer some personal demographic questions about themselves. See Appendix F: Invitation letter.

Completing the questionnaire took approximately ten minutes and subjects were asked to be considerate of their employers and complete the survey after work hours or during a scheduled break. At a convenient time, subjects wanting to participate in the study proceeded through the packet of information and initially were directed to read through the fictitious job description and then evaluate the suitability of the applicant for that job on the basis of the fictitious curriculum vitae (with a photo attached). To complete the questionnaire, participants were presented with a five-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree) and asked to indicate the likelihood that the job applicant possessed each trait from the list of personal and employment potential traits described in the section above. Once completed, the respondent enclosed and returned the questionnaire in the freepost envelope provided.

To try and eliminate obstructions to completing the questionnaire, the invitation letter also explained that as an alternative to completing the hardcopy questionnaire, subjects could take part in the research by visiting the URL of a

web-based questionnaire hosted on www.surveymonkey.com. Subjects wanting to complete the research online proceeded to log on to the Internet and type in the URL of the questionnaire specified in their invitation letter. The eight questionnaires were differentiated by their different URL addresses:

www.surveymonkey.com/assess

www.surveymonkey.com/employment

www.surveymonkey.com/evaluate

www.surveymonkey.com/questions

www.surveymonkey.com/recruit

www.surveymonkey.com/researching

www.surveymonkey.com/study

www.surveymonkey.com/survey

The first page of the online questionnaire reiterated that respondents would be evaluating a fictitious job applicant on a number of personal and employment potential measures and they were reminded to be considerate of their employers and complete the survey after work hours or during a scheduled break.

Respondents were informed that they could terminate their involvement in the research study at any time by closing their browser. As a check to ensure respondents did not complete both the hardcopy and online questionnaire, the first page of the online questionnaire also included the message 'please do not complete this if you have already completed the paper version of this questionnaire'.

A photograph illustrating the experimental condition was displayed at the top of the page and as in the hardcopy questionnaire, participants were presented with

a five-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree) and asked to indicate the likelihood that the job applicant possessed each trait from the list of personal and employment potential traits by clicking on their choice. If a participant missed answering a question, they could not move onto the next page and were directed back to complete the missed question. After completing a page of questions, a participant would click on 'next', and assuming all the questions on that page were answered, they would proceed to the next page where the photograph would appear at the top of the page. Responses were restricted to allow only one response per computer, to avoid the potential problem of respondents either intentionally or unintentionally repeating the questionnaire (Schmitt, 1997). See Appendix G: Online research questionnaire.

The main advantage of this methodology was that it was a relatively efficient way to target a large number of respondents, allowing a significant amount of data to be collected while only taking each recruitment consultant ten minutes to complete in their own time. However, postal surveys are recognised as having some deficiencies, including low response rates and a loss of quality control in the answering process (Barker and Barker, 1989).

4.6 Ethical considerations

Ethical approval was sought from the Massey University Ethics Committee (MUHEC) for this research study. This is in compliance with the code of ethical conduct for research, teaching and evaluations involving human participants established by Massey University in 2004.

Participation in the research was on a voluntary basis only and receivers of the invitation could choose not to participate. Those who did participate did so anonymously and their details and responses were confidential and have not been individually attributed. Ethnicity data was only collected and analysed to

provide a descriptor of the recruitment agent sample. No individual profiles have been reported separately from the overall results.

A number of specific ethical issues were identified at the outset of this research study. They were:

1. The invitation to participate letters and questionnaires were to be sent to potential participants' place of work without the prior permission of their employers. Therefore, in the invitation letter, and again, at the beginning of the hardcopy and online questionnaires, participants were asked to be considerate of their employers and complete the questionnaire after work hours or during a scheduled break.
2. Participants and potential participants were not to be deceived by assuming that the job applicant used in the study was real. To try and alleviate this issue, the invitation letter explained that the job description and the job applicants' curriculum vitae were fictitious and developed for the purpose of the research only. In addition, at the top of the curriculum vitae, 'Fictional Job Applicant' was written in bold type and in point size 20. This was also the case with the job description, which included the heading 'Fictional Job Description', again in bold type and point size 20. The employment impressions questionnaire also used the wording 'fictitious job applicant' when providing instructions to complete the questionnaire.
3. There was a small element of deception entailed in the research, as participants were not fully informed about the nature of the research. The author stated that all the material relating to the job applicant was fictional and that the research was examining the influences on recruitment consultants when employment selection decisions could only be based on

limited job applicant information. The participants were aware that they had three pieces of information to use to influence their decision – the job description, the curriculum vitae and the attached photograph. Although the author did not specifically inform participants that the research was evaluating grooming, the deception element was small because it was implicit in the nature of the materials given to the respondents as they were viewing pictorial candidate information.

It is possible that some recruiters may have felt annoyed that the impact of the photograph on their judgments was being assessed. However, to explicitly point this out before judgments were made would in itself influence those judgments, making the research redundant. The author acknowledges that even though some participants may have felt annoyance, they were also likely to gain through learning something about the means by which they might judge applicants. In addition, participation was anonymous, so in no way could the results be linked to any individual. Unfortunately, it was not possible to debrief participants without compromising their anonymity. In addition, 273 of the packets were addressed to 'Senior Recruitment Consultant – Accountancy', as no individual contact details were known to the author and this would have made a debriefing mailing to them difficult and potentially confusing, if there were more than one senior recruitment consultant working in the accounting section of an agency. However, as specified in the invitation to participate, participants could contact the author directly and receive a summary copy of the final research results, which would also be made available to the REC in summary form for publishing.

4. Another ethical consideration was the risk of any harm for recruiters or segments of the recruiting industry if adverse findings emerged and were

reported. When reviewing the risk of harm, it is important to consider the nature and context of any adverse findings. Specifically, no previous grooming-related studies reviewed have published findings based on age or ethnicity. However, some previous related studies (Nash, Fieldman, Hussey, Leveque & Pineau, 2006; Cash, Dawson, Davis, Bowen & Galumbeck, 1989) have found a difference in the perceptions of males and females in regard to their attitude towards female grooming. Therefore, adverse findings could emerge in regard to gender, but this possible outcome is moderated by the fact that it is already well-known that there are differences between male and female perceptions. So although there is potentially a risk of harm in terms of arousing negative attitudes towards the views expressed by a gender segment, this is likely to be minimal as the primary focus of the research is on the influence of the eight grooming conditions and not specifically on gender differences as such.

Whilst there is no risk of harm for individual recruiters, as they will not be individually identifiable, it may be considered harmful to the recruitment industry as a whole if results emerge that indicate that recruitment agents find one (or more) grooming condition/s more appropriate for employment than others, as this could imply that recruiters are discriminating based on appearance cues. In this situation, the researcher will follow standard scientific reporting, including a description of the sample in the wider context, an assessment of the representativeness of the sample (and any sample segments), and the limitations of the research.

The Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B gave provisional approval for the research application on 16 July 2009 and after further

information and stimulus materials, such as the model photographs, were provided, full approval was given on 24 August 2009.

4.7 Pilot study

As a quality check, a pilot study was undertaken to test the stimulus materials and the questionnaire. This pilot study allowed the researcher to ascertain the comprehension of the stimulus materials and to check that there were no difficulties in obtaining responses before the main study started (Frey, Botan & Kreps, 2000).

The pilot study sample was selected from www.yell.com, which is the UK's local search engine for British business listings. Only recruitment agencies with the specialisation accounts/accounting/accountancy listed within their agency details advertised on the website were included in the sample. Listings on www.yell.com are listed randomly in respect to location and alphabetical order. Care was taken to ensure that the 30 recruitment consultants chosen to take part in the pilot study were not included in the main REC research population. See Appendix H: Pilot study invitation letter and Appendix I: Feedback assessment on pilot study.

Of the 30 recruitment consultants mailed, only a disappointing two responded. Both were aged 40-49, with one being male and the other female, and each having 16 years' experience or over spent working in recruitment. The feedback revealed that the questionnaire took approximately 10 minutes to complete and the instructions for completing the questionnaire were clear and easy to follow. Neither respondent had any concerns with the job description or the Curriculum Vitae. However, the pilot study clearly highlighted a problem with low response rates. A major contributing factor to this problem was thought to be the lack of contact name, as the REC's data did not include any individual recruiter names, just the recruitment agency name and the postal address and the packets were

mailed to 'Senior Recruitment Consultant – Accounting'. As a result of this pilot study finding, in October 2009, using the Internet, and in a few cases the telephone, individual recruitment agents' names were researched to establish named contacts at each recruitment agency. Of the 614 recruitment agencies, named contacts were found for 341.

Another factor contributing to the low response rate of the pilot study could have been the use of the Massey University departmental letterhead, which the Massey University Ethics Committee requires to be used on all public documentation. This study was undertaken in Britain, where it is unlikely that Massey University is known, which could have resulted in lower response rates, as potential participants would not be aware of the university and might have been sceptical as to why they were being solicited for a response from a university outside of the UK.

In addition, the survey was targeting busy employees in their workplace, and the low response rate could have been a direct result of what may have been considered a time-consuming interruption.

4. 8 Reminder letters

Ten days after the first packets were sent to the sample population, a reminder letter was sent to the 341 recruitment agencies with a named contact. The decision to send the first reminder to only named contacts was undertaken to minimize costs and also because the majority of recruitment agencies without a named contact were very large agencies and so subsequent reminder mailings were unlikely to end up with the recruiter who had received the original packet. See Appendix J: First reminder letter. An additional 25 days after the initial mailing a reminder letter, including the fictional job description and the fictitious

curriculum vitae, were sent to all 614 recruitment agencies. See Appendix K:
Second reminder letter.

A comprehensive description of the research respondents will be provided in section 5.2 of the next chapter. Chapter 5 will also include information on the assumptions of the analysis techniques, along with a full presentation of the results.

4.9 Factors

4.9.1 Competence

A competence scale was created by summing across a number of impressions related to competence. These impressions included:

- Believable;
- Cheerful;
- Competent;
- Conscientious;
- Composed;
- Friendly;
- Intelligent;
- Likable;
- Loyal;
- Professional;
- Reliable;
- Stable;
- Successful;
- Tactful; and
- Works well with others.

Other comparable studies have used similar impressions to create a competence factor. Johnson and Roach-Higgins (1987) used the impressions: composed, stable, competent, believable, successful and intelligent to create their competence factor. Other impressions included in this study but having an eigenvalue less than one were cheerful, conscientious, friendly, likable, loyal, reliable, tactful and works well with others. Johnson and Roach-Higgins (1991) also used similar impressions in their later study. Gibson and Balkwell (1990) used the impressions: believable, stable, friendly, loyal, tactful, likeable, conscientious, reliable and works well with others to create their competence factor.

A Cronbach alpha test was run (see Table 1) and as the coefficient was .86, the competence grouping was considered internally consistent (DeVellis, 2003).

Although analysis suggested that there were two components within the competence factor – competence and likeability – further factor analysis was not conducted because of the small sample size, the strength of the coefficient and the similar nature of other studies that analysed these two components under the same construct of competence.

Table 1

Internal Consistency of Competence Impressions

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Believable	50.64	24.852	.481	.848
Cheerful	51.36	26.108	.353	.854
Competent	50.44	24.868	.553	.843
Conscientious	50.75	25.112	.478	.848
Composed	50.89	25.252	.507	.846
Friendly	51.19	25.431	.524	.845
Intelligent	50.48	25.190	.502	.846
Likeable	51.17	25.326	.572	.843
Loyal	51.07	25.730	.374	.854
Professional	50.46	25.224	.591	.842
Reliable	50.80	25.101	.560	.843
Stable	50.78	24.792	.572	.842
Successful	50.82	25.337	.456	.849
Tactful	51.27	26.023	.432	.850
Works well with others	51.02	25.398	.457	.849

4. 9. 2 Independence

An independence scale was created by summing across a number of impressions related to independence. These impressions included:

- Confident;
- Independent;
- Risk taker;
- Willing to take a stand
- Would defend own beliefs

Other comparable studies have used similar impressions to create an independence factor. Johnson and Roach-Higgins (1987) used the impressions: independent, willing to take risks, willing to take a stand, would defend own beliefs, self-reliant, and self-sufficient. Gibson and Balkwell (1990) used the impressions: confident, independent, self-reliant, willing to take a stand and defends beliefs to create their independence factor.

A Cronbach alpha test was run (see Table 2) with an initial coefficient of .62. However, the removal of the 'risk taker' impression increased this to .68, so the decision was made to exclude this impression. A coefficient of .68 ensured that the independence grouping was considered internally consistent (DeVellis, 2003). But as this .68 coefficient is at the lower end of being accepted as consistent and the group has less than 10 measures, it was also relevant to use the mean inter-item correlation statistic (DeVellis, 2003; Field, 2005; Pallant, 2007), which was acceptable at .37 (Briggs & Cheek, 1986).

Table 2

Internal Consistency of Independence Impressions

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Confident	12.81	2.582	.370	.569
Independent	12.79	3.000	.280	.609
Risk-taker	13.96	3.069	.158	.681
Willing to take a stand	13.34	2.546	.654	.439
Would defend own beliefs	13.28	2.646	.511	.499

4. 9. 3 Employment potential

An employment potential scale was created by summing across the majority of the employment impressions, which included:

- Applicant would fit in well with other people;
- Applicant has good leadership potential;
- Applicant has good potential for success;
- Applicant has good potential for fulfilling the job description;
- Other people would like to work with this applicant; and
- I would recommend this applicant be put forward for an interview.

Other comparable studies, such as Gibson and Balkwell (1990), have used similar traits to create an employment potential factor, including the impressions: fits in well with others, good leadership potential, good potential for success, good potential to fill special qualifications, others would like to work for and would hire.

A Cronbach alpha test was run, and as the coefficient was .68 (see Table 3), the competence grouping was considered internally consistent (DeVellis, 2003). However, as this is once again at the lower end of acceptably consistent ratings and the group has less than 10 measures, it was once more relevant to use the mean inter-item correlation statistic (DeVellis, 2003; Field, 2005; Pallant, 2007), which is .27 and fits within the ideal range for this static of .2 and .4 (Briggs & Cheek, 1986).

Table 3

Internal consistency of Employment Potential Impressions

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Applicant would fit in well with other people	18.96	3.918	.318	.671
Applicant has good leadership potential	19.01	3.265	.428	.641
Applicant has good potential for success	18.61	3.354	.582	.583
Applicant has good potential for fulfilling the job description	18.18	3.739	.396	.647
Other people would like to work with this applicant	19.06	4.005	.347	.662
I would recommend this applicant be put forward for an interview	18.33	3.676	.425	.638

4.9.4 Single impressions

All other impressions were analysed as single impressions and not grouped into factors.

- Risk taker;
- Adaptable;
- Creative;
- Practical;
- Attractive;
- Feminine;
- Masculine;
- Applicant has good potential for long service;

- Applicant would work well under the direction of someone else;
- Salary.

4. 10 Analysis of data

All data was coded in an Excel spreadsheet (see Appendix L: Coding key), and then analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

There were three possible choices for the data analysis:

- (a) Independent t-tests comparing the two levels of each of the three factors separately,
- (b) A one-way ANOVA with eight levels, or
- (c) A three-way factorial ANOVA in which each of the three factors had two levels each.

Independent t-tests could have been used to compare dependent variables on (a) cosmetics versus no cosmetics, (b) eyeglasses versus no eyeglasses, and (c) hair up versus hair down, but t-tests would not allow for testing interaction effects or for controlling other factors. A one-way ANOVA would have allowed for comparing dependent variables across each of the eight crossed factors (i.e., cosmetics, glasses, hair up; cosmetics, glasses, hair down; cosmetics, no glasses, hair up; cosmetics, no glasses, hair down; no cosmetics, glasses, hair up; no cosmetics, glasses, hair down; no cosmetics, no glasses, hair up; no cosmetics, no glasses, hair down), but would not have allowed for disentangling the effects of the three factors (cosmetics, glasses, hair). Therefore, the three-way ANOVA was chosen because it allowed for testing the main effect of each factor while controlling for the other factors as well as for testing interaction effects (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2004; Neter, et al., 1996).

Initially, each respondent was assigned to one of eight photographic conditions:

1. Eyeglasses yes, cosmetics yes, hairstyle up
2. Eyeglasses yes, cosmetics yes, hairstyle down
3. Eyeglasses yes, cosmetics no, hairstyle up
4. Eyeglasses yes, cosmetics no, hairstyle down
5. Eyeglasses no, cosmetics yes, hairstyle up
6. Eyeglasses no, cosmetics yes, hairstyle down
7. Eyeglasses no, cosmetics no, hairstyle up
8. Eyeglasses no, cosmetics no, hairstyle down

The above conditions were combined and also split into three separate factors: (1) eyeglasses (yes versus no), (2) cosmetics (yes versus no), and (3) hairstyle (up versus. down). When the ANOVA was computed, all three factors were entered into the analysis. This allowed for examining the main effect of each factor, while collapsing across the levels of the other factors, but it also allowed for examining the interactions between the factors.

Independent *t* tests were conducted on all the combined measures to determine whether there were any significant gender differences. Where a significant gender difference was found, gender was included as a fourth independent variable in the ANOVA calculation.

Estimated marginal means and standard deviations were used in the analysis rather than actual means and standard deviations because the eight conditions in the study had differing sample sizes. Therefore, it was thought that estimated marginal means and standard deviations would be more informative, as they achieve more accurate figures when sample sizes across groups are not the same (Pallant, 1997).

4. 11 Conclusion

This chapter has detailed the rationale and development of the stimulus materials and the measures and the procedures used to carry out this research. It also discussed the justification of the three scales encompassing the research factors: competence, employment potential and independence. Finally, reasoning was provided for the three-way factorial ANOVA used to analyse the results of the study. These results will be exhibited in the following chapter, which presents the findings from the questionnaire.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter first provides a description of the research respondents and then outlines the assumptions of the analysis techniques used. This is followed by presentation of the results of the three key research questions. Finally, other meaningful and noteworthy main and two-way interactions between the grooming conditions are examined.

5.2 The sample

Of the target of 614 recruitment consultants, 36 were immediately returned via the postal service marked 'addressee gone away'. In total, 119 respondents completed a questionnaire; however, five questionnaires were incomplete and were removed from the data set. Therefore, a total of 114 respondent questionnaires were analysed, equating to a response rate of 18.6%. Seventy-five (66%) respondents completed the hardcopy questionnaire and the remaining 39 (34%) completed the online version of the questionnaire.

The low response rate is thought to be due to a combination of two main factors. Firstly, this study targeted recruitment consultants in their workplace environment, which is busy; therefore, the questionnaire may have been viewed as an unnecessary interruption to their already full workload. Secondly, the research was undertaken in Britain, as this is where the author resides, but the covering letter, as required by the Massey University Ethics Committee, was sent on Massey University letterhead, which includes New Zealand address details and many references to Massey University. This may have adversely affected the response rate, as it was highly unlikely that the university would be known to potential participants and, as a result, they may have questioned the legitimacy and integrity of the research.

Studies of a similar nature to this research have generally not published response rates, as they have utilised student samples (Cox & Glick, 1986; Kyle & Mahler, 1996; Huguet, Croizet & Richetin, 2006; Workman & Johnson, 1991; Terry, 1989). Therefore, there are no known expected response rates for this type of research; however, the Recruitment and Employment Confederation's (REC) 'Recruitment Industry Trends' annual study, which utilises a mailed questionnaire sent to British recruitment agencies, achieves on average a 5% response rate (T. McManus, personal communication, 24 May 2010). The relatively low response rate in this study may not suggest non-response bias, as it may be due to the decline in mail survey response rates generally (Gendall, 2000) over the last 15 years.

Of the respondents, 77 (68%) were female and 37 (32%) were male. A research study undertaken by BMG in June/July 2009 on behalf of the REC to determine 'a profile of recruiters', contacted 401 random British recruitment consultants and managers via telephone interviews, and found that 57% were female and 43% were male. The higher number of female respondents in this study reflects the higher number of females currently employed as recruitment consultants in Britain. Agencies in the REC study were selected for interview at random, using the most recent list of recruitment and employment agencies, obtained from the Experian National Business Database.

In this study, 83 (73%) of the participants were White British, while 19 (17%) classified themselves as Other White Background. In the 2009 study undertaken by the REC, 91% of the participants were classified as White, so there was a very similar ethnic arrangement.

In regard to age, 19 (17%) were aged 24-29, 57 (50%) were aged 30-39 and 28 (25%) were aged 40-49. This is a slightly older age profile than the REC study

where in comparison, 42% were aged 21-29, 33% were aged 30-39, and 17% were aged 40-49.

Of the 114 respondents, 25 (22%) had spent 0-1 years working in recruitment, with 50% having 5 or more years' experience. This compares very similarly with the REC study, with 49% having over 5 years' work experience in the recruitment industry. Thirty-four (30%) participants worked in organisations with 5-10 staff employed and 34 (30%) worked in organisations with over 101 staff employed.

Sixty (55%) of the respondents worked in London, whilst the remaining respondents were located within the rest of England, with only 5 (4%) responding from outside of England.

5.3 Assumptions of analysis techniques

5.3.1 ANOVA assumptions

The three scales created and the single impressions were checked for normality by testing skewness and kurtosis, which, in all instances, were between -2 and +2 and therefore the data was assumed to be normally distributed (Groeneveld & Meeden, 1984). The data was checked for outliers using box and whisker plots. Outliers were not detected in any of the single impressions; however, one outlier was found in each of the 'independence' and 'employment potential' scales and four clustered outliers were located in the 'competence' scale. The data was checked to ensure it was correctly inputted, which it was, and as skewness and kurtosis were within the normal range, a decision was made not to remove the outliers.

The observations were assumed to be independent because there was no contamination from one condition to another. The observations were not collected in a group setting, but by individual recruitment agents completing the questionnaire independently in their own time (Pallant, 2007).

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances was used to check for homogeneity of error variance. Levene's Test was significant (less than 0.05) for the following single impressions: 'attractiveness', 'independence', 'masculinity' and 'risk-taker'. However, the ANOVA model is robust against departures from these distributional assumptions and can be relied upon when distributional assumptions are violated as above (Neter, Kutner, Nachtsheim & Wasserman, 1996).

5.3.2 t test assumptions

The observations were captured using a five-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree), ensuring that the interval points on the scale were always equal (Field, 2005).

Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variance is automatically calculated in SPSS. Where the variances of the two groups were significantly different, the results for 'Equal variances not assumed' were used. When the variances were not different, the results for 'Equal variances assumed' were used.

5.4 Statistical power and effect size

Statistical power (*SP*) was calculated in SPSS using the ANOVA calculation. For those relationships that neared significance ($p < 1$), a-priori sample sizes were generated using the G-Power programme (Erdfelder, Faul, and Buchner, 1996), as indicators for future research. Using a medium effect size ($f = .25$) and 80% power, the G-Power programme suggests that 128 respondents would be necessary for further analyses to find a statistically significant moderate relationship where one exists. Sample sizes were not calculated where the effect-size statistic indicated that there was little to no relationship.

Statistical power for the t tests was calculated using the G-Power programme.

The effect size for independent sample t tests used the d statistic.

5.5 Planned Analyses

5.5.1 Cosmetics

The first research question explored whether the wearing of cosmetics affected competence, employment potential and recommended starting salary.

Question 1:

Will the job applicant wearing cosmetics be perceived as being more competent, having greater employment potential and being worthy of being assigned a higher starting salary than those not wearing cosmetics?

5.5.1.1 Cosmetics and competence

The first part of the research question was not supported as although the job applicant not wearing cosmetics was rated as more competent ($M = 55.33$, $SE = 0.71$) than when she was wearing cosmetics ($M = 53.71$, $SE = 0.75$), the main effect of cosmetics did not reach significance, $F(1, 106) = 2.47$, $p = .12$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, $SP = .34$ (see Table 4, Appendix M).

5.5.1.2 Cosmetics and employment potential

The job applicant not wearing cosmetics was rated as having marginally more employment potential ($M = 22.69$, $SE = 0.29$) than when she was wearing cosmetics ($M = 22.23$, $SE = 0.31$), but the main effect of cosmetics did not reach significance, $F(1, 106) = 1.15$, $p = .29$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, $SP = .19$ (see Table 5, Appendix M).

5.5.1.3 Cosmetics and recommended starting salary

Finally, the job applicant not wearing cosmetics received higher starting salary recommendations ($M = 3.71$, $SE = 0.16$) than when she was wearing cosmetics

($M = 3.46$, $SE = 0.17$), but the main effect of cosmetics did not reach significance ($F(1, 106) = 1.14$, $p = .29$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, $SP = .19$ (see Table 6, Appendix M).

5. 5. 2 Hairstyle

The second research question asked whether a modification of hairstyle affected independence, employment potential and recommended starting salary.

Question 2:

Will the job applicant wearing her hair down be perceived as being less independent, having less employment potential and deserving of a lower starting salary than when wearing her hair pulled up away from the face?

5. 5. 2. 1 Hairstyle and independence

The job applicant wearing her hair up was rated as being more independent ($M = 14.22$, $SE = 0.24$) than when she wore her hair down ($M = 13.65$, $SE = 0.23$), and although the difference approached significance, the main effect of hairstyle failed to reach significance, $F(1, 106) = 2.97$, $p = .09$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$, $SP = .40$ (see Table 7, Appendix M).

5. 5. 2. 2 Hairstyle and employment potential

The job applicant wearing her hair up was rated as having marginally more employment potential ($M = 22.57$, $SE = 0.31$) than when she wore her hair down ($M = 22.34$, $SE = 0.29$); however, the main effect of hairstyle did not reach significance, $F(1, 106) = 0.28$, $p = .60$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$, $SP = .08$ (see Table 5, Appendix M).

5. 5. 2. 3 Hairstyle and recommended starting salary

Finally, the job applicant wearing her hair down received slightly higher starting salary recommendations ($M = 3.61$, $SE = 0.16$) than when she wore her hair up

($M = 3.57$, $SE = 0.17$), but the main effect of hairstyle did not reach significance ($F(1, 106) = 0.03$, $p = .87$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$, $SP = .05$ (see Table 6, Appendix M).

5. 5. 3 Eyeglasses

The third research question explored whether the wearing of eyeglasses affected competence, employment potential and recommended starting salary.

Question 3:

Will the job applicant wearing eyeglasses be perceived as being more competent, having greater employment potential and being worthy of a higher starting salary than when not wearing eyeglasses?

5. 5. 3. 1 Eyeglasses and competence

The job applicant not wearing eyeglasses was rated as marginally more competent ($M = 54.77$, $SE = 0.75$) than when she wore eyeglasses ($M = 54.27$, $SE = 0.71$), but the main effect of eyeglasses did not reach significance, $F(1, 106) = 0.23$, $p = .63$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$, $SP = .08$ (see Table 4, Appendix M).

5. 5. 3. 2 Eyeglasses and employment potential

The job applicant not wearing eyeglasses was rated as having marginally more employment potential ($M = 22.55$, $SE = 0.31$) than when she wore eyeglasses ($M = 22.36$, $SE = 0.29$), although, again, the main effect of eyeglasses did not reach significance, $F(1, 106) = 0.20$, $p = .66$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$, $SP = .07$ (see Table 5, Appendix M).

5. 5. 3. 3 Eyeglasses and recommended starting salary

The job applicant wearing eyeglasses received slightly higher starting salary recommendations ($M = 3.63$, $SE = 0.16$) than when she did not wear eyeglasses ($M = 3.54$, $SE = 0.17$), but the main effect of eyeglasses did not reach

significance $F(1, 106) = 0.15$, $p = .70$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$, $SP = .07$ (see Table 6, Appendix M).

5. 6 Post-Hoc Analyses

Whilst the results for the three core research questions were unanimously non-significant, the single impressions 'femininity' and 'masculinity', presented next, provide some significant main effects and some interesting and significant two-way interactions. Following this, significant two-way interactions of eyeglasses/cosmetics, hairstyle/cosmetics and eyeglasses/hairstyle are exhibited under the research factors 'competence' and 'employment potential' and the single item impressions: 'attractiveness', 'work well under direction', 'risk-taker' and 'practical'. For the single item measures, 'adaptable', 'creative' and 'potential for long service' t tests showed these measures were not affected by gender; nor were there statistically significant main or interaction effects in the associated ANOVAs. Therefore, they are not included in this results section.

5. 6. 1 Femininity

An independent t test compared males and females on the single item measure 'femininity'. A significant gender difference was found $t(112) = -2.44$, $p < .05$, $d = .48$, $SP = .66$ (see Table 8, Appendix M). Therefore, gender was included as a fourth independent variable in the ANOVA calculation.

5. 6. 1. 1 Main effects

The job applicant wearing her hair down received higher feminine ratings ($M = 3.42$, $SE = 0.09$) than when she wore her hair up ($M = 3.12$, $SE = 0.12$), with the main effect of hairstyle reaching significance $F(1, 98) = 3.91$, $p = .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$, $SP = .50$ (see Table 9, Appendix M). This shows that the statistically significant relationship has a moderate effect size.

Male respondents gave the job applicant higher femininity ratings ($M = 3.40$, $SE = 0.13$) than the female respondents ($M = 3.14$, $SE = 0.08$), although this was a non-significant trend $F(1, 106) = 3.34$, $p = .07$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$, $SP = .44$ (see Table 9, Appendix M).

5. 6. 1. 2 Two-way interaction

The two-way interaction between the grooming variables eyeglasses and cosmetics in relation to femininity produced a significant interaction $F(1, 98) = 6.76$, $p = .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$, $SP = .73$, $N = 128$, (see Figure 1 below). The job applicant wearing eyeglasses (blue line), when also wearing cosmetics, received higher femininity ratings ($M = 3.43$, $SE = 0.12$) than when she was not wearing cosmetics ($M = 3.04$, $SE = 0.13$). However, the opposite effect occurred when she was not wearing eyeglasses (red line). The job applicant without eyeglasses and wearing cosmetics received lower femininity ratings ($M = 3.12$, $SE = 0.20$) than when she was not wearing cosmetics ($M = 3.49$, $SE = 0.13$).

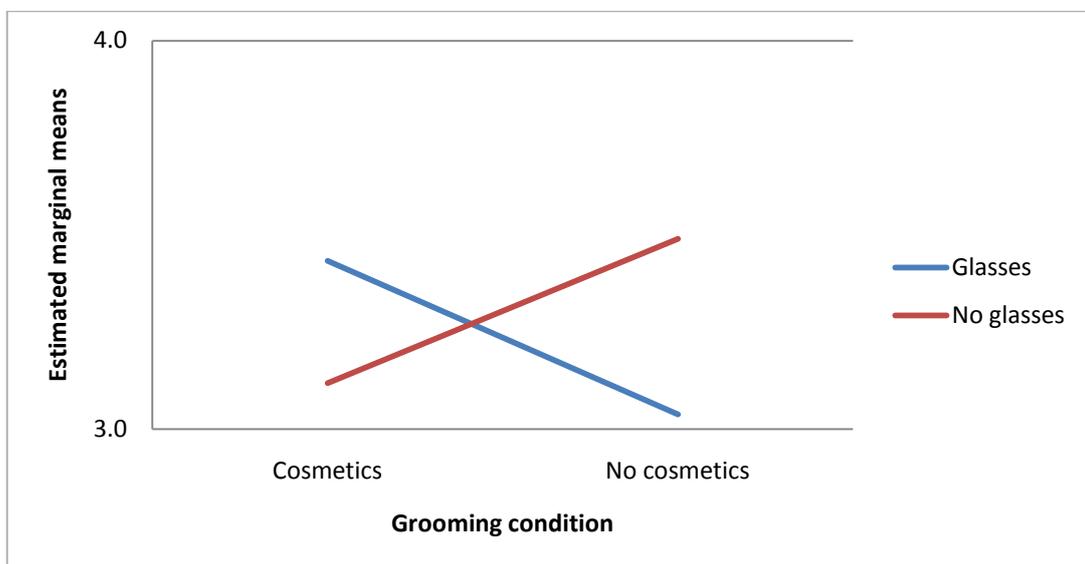


Figure 1. Femininity and the two-way interaction of eyeglasses and cosmetics

5. 6. 2 Masculinity

An independent t test compared males and females on the single item measure 'masculinity'. A significant gender difference was found $t(112) = 2.91, p < .01, d = .59, SP = .83$ (see Table 10, Appendix M). Therefore, gender was included as a fourth independent variable in the ANOVA calculation.

5. 6. 2. 1 Main effects

Female respondents gave the job applicant higher masculinity ratings ($M = 2.85, SE = 0.08$) than the male respondents ($M = 2.48, SE = 0.13$), with the main effect of gender reaching significance $F(1, 98) = 6.24, p = .01, \eta_p^2 = .06, SP = .70$ (see Table 11, Appendix M).

The job applicant wearing her hair up received higher masculinity ratings ($M = 2.81, SE = 0.12$) than the job applicant wearing her hair down ($M = 2.52, SE = 0.09$), with the main effect of hairstyle nearing, but, not reaching significance $F(1, 98) = 3.71, p = .06, \eta_p^2 = .04, SP = .48$.

Neither the wearing nor absence of cosmetics affected masculinity ratings $F(1, 98) = 0.01, p = .934, \eta_p^2 = .00, SP = .05$. The same lack of a main effect was seen for the eyeglasses (on or off) condition $F(1, 98) = 0.00, p = .95, \eta_p^2 = .00, SP = .05$.

5. 6. 2. 2 Two-way interactions

While the main effect of eyeglasses did not reach significance in relation to masculinity, an interesting finding, although not significant, was the interaction between gender and eyeglasses $F(1, 98) = 2.99, p = .09, \eta_p^2 = .03, SP = .40$ (see Figure 2 below). The job applicant rated by female respondents (blue line) received higher ratings of masculinity if she wore eyeglasses ($M = 2.98, SE = 0.11$) than when not wearing eyeglasses ($M = 2.72, SE = 0.11$). However, the opposite effect occurred for the job applicant rated by male respondents (red line), as she received lower ratings of masculinity when wearing eyeglasses ($M = 2.36, SE = 0.14$), compared to when not wearing eyeglasses ($M = 2.60, SE = 0.21$).

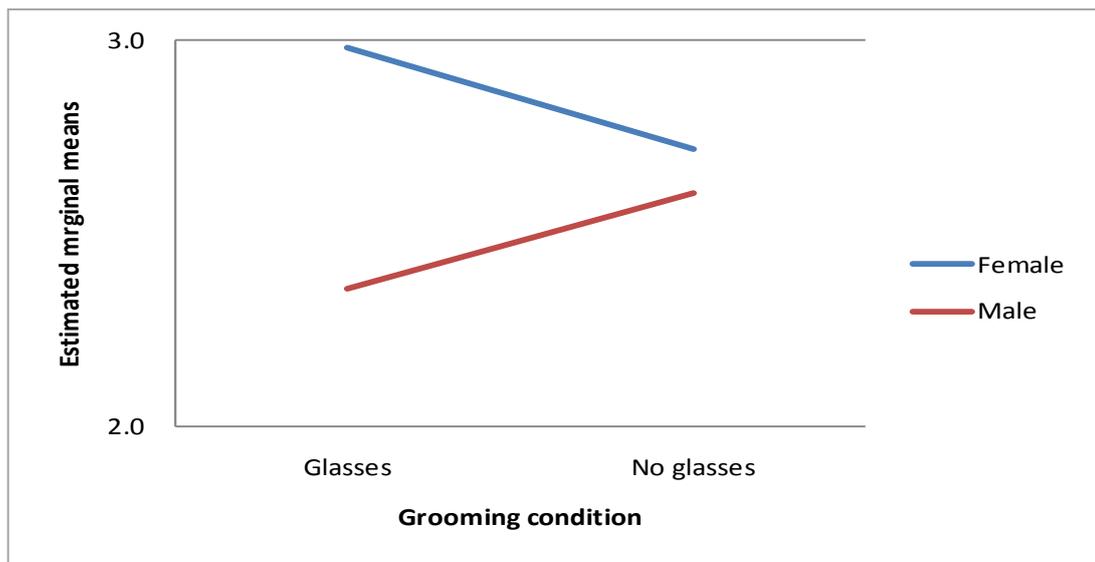


Figure 2. Masculinity and the two-way interaction of gender and eyeglasses

5. 6. 2. 3 Two-way interactions continued

While not significant, the two-way interaction between gender and hairstyle also produced an interesting result $F(1, 98) = 3.14, p = .08, \eta_p^2 = .03, SP = .42$, as the job applicant rated by female respondents (blue line) received almost identical ratings of masculinity regardless of whether she wore her hair up ($M = 2.86, SE = 0.11$) or down ($M = 2.84, SE = 0.11$), illustrated by the almost horizontal blue line in Figure 3. However, the job applicant rated by male respondents (red line) received higher ratings of masculinity with her hair up ($M = 2.75, SE = 0.21$), and lower ratings of masculinity when wearing her hair down ($M = 2.21, SE = 0.14$).

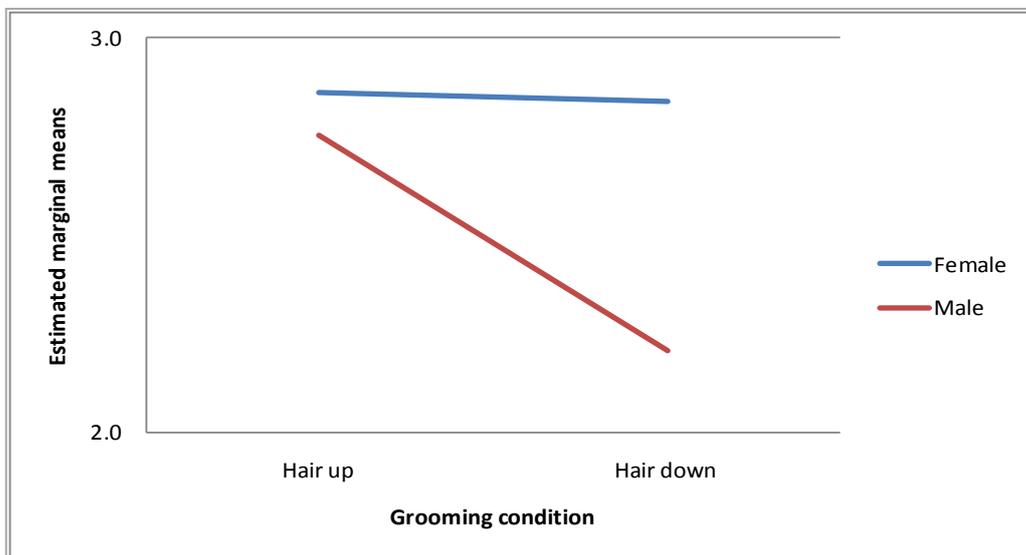


Figure 3. Masculinity and the two-way interaction of gender and hairstyle

5. 6. 3 Competence two-way interaction

While not significant at the $p = .05$ level, there was an indication of a relationship between hairstyle and eyeglasses $F(1, 106) = 3.10, p = .08, \eta_p^2 = .03, SP = .42$. The job applicant wearing her hair up (blue line) and not wearing eyeglasses received higher competence ratings ($M = 56.29, SE = 1.15$) than when she was wearing eyeglasses ($M = 53.98, SE = 0.97$). However, the opposite effect occurred when she wore her hair down (red line), as when wearing eyeglasses she received higher competence ratings ($M = 54.57, SE = 1.04$) than when she was not wearing eyeglasses ($M = 53.25, SE = 0.97$). The job applicant wearing her hair down and with no eyeglasses received the lowest competence ratings, and she received the highest competence ratings whilst wearing her hair up with no eyeglasses, as seen in Figure 4.

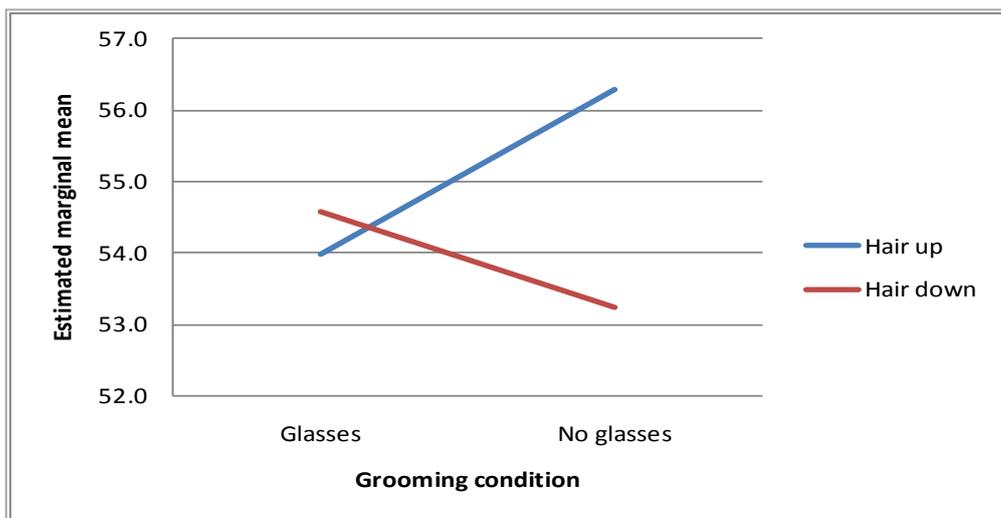


Figure 4. Competence and the two-way interaction of eyeglasses and hairstyle

5. 6. 4 Employment potential two-way interaction

The interaction between hairstyle and eyeglasses in relation to the measure employment potential was significant $F(1, 106) = 6.15, p = .02, \eta_p^2 = .06, SP = .69$, and is shown in Figure 5. The job applicant wearing her hair up (blue line) and not wearing eyeglasses received higher employment potential ratings ($M = 23.19, SE = 0.47$) than when wearing eyeglasses ($M = 21.95, SE = 0.40$). However, the opposite effect occurred when she wore her hair down (red line), such that when wearing eyeglasses, she received higher employment potential ratings ($M = 22.78, SE = 0.43$) than when not wearing eyeglasses ($M = 21.91, SE = 0.40$). The job applicant wearing her hair up and with no eyeglasses received the highest employment potential ratings.

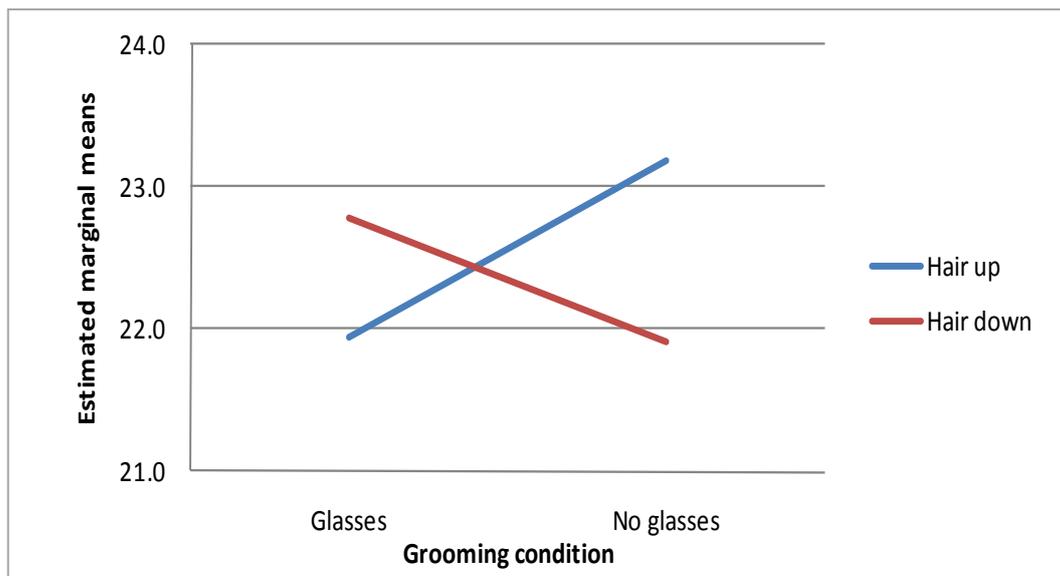


Figure 5. Employment potential and the two-way interaction of hairstyle and eyeglasses

5. 6. 5 'Attractiveness' two-way interaction

Whilst the main effects of cosmetics, eyeglasses and hairstyle did not reach significance in relation to the single measure 'attractiveness' (see Table 12, Appendix M). Figure 6 demonstrates the significant interaction between hairstyle and cosmetics $F(1, 106) = 5.74, p = .02, \eta_p^2 = .05, SP = .66$. For the job applicant wearing her hair up (blue line), when also wearing cosmetics she received higher attractiveness ratings ($M = 3.49, SE = 0.12$) than when she was not wearing cosmetics ($M = 3.26, SE = 0.11$). However, the opposite effect occurred when she was wearing her hair down (red line), as when this was combined with cosmetics she received lower attractiveness ratings ($M = 3.14, SE = 0.11$) compared to when she was not wearing cosmetics ($M = 3.45, SE = 0.11$).

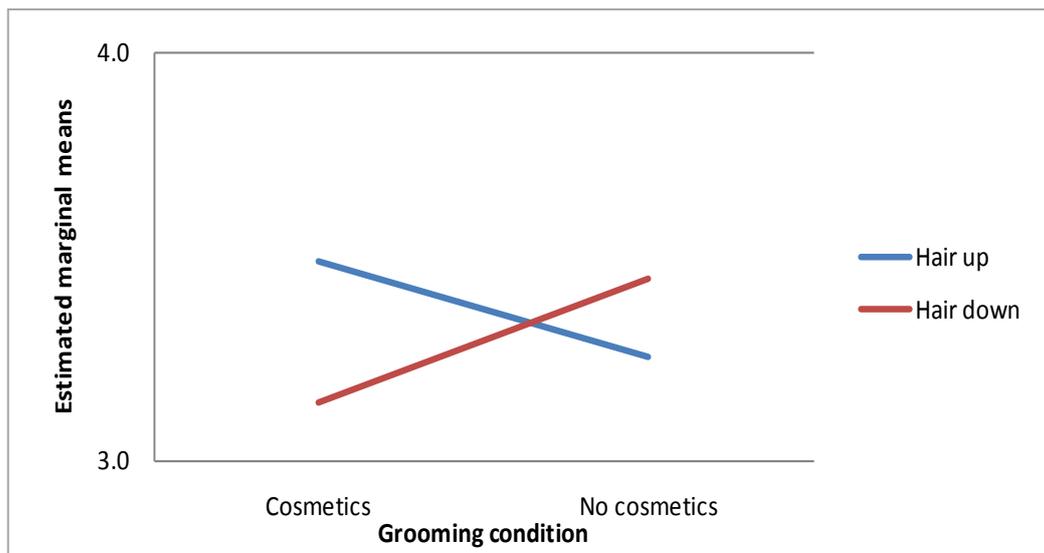


Figure 6. Attractiveness and the two-way interaction of hairstyle and cosmetics

5. 6. 6 'Work well under direction' two-way interaction

Figure 7 shows the significant interaction between hairstyle and eyeglasses in relation to the single impression 'would work well under direction of someone else' $F(1, 106) = 4.79, p = .03, \eta_p^2 = .04, SP = .58$. The job applicant wearing her hair up (blue line), when also wearing eyeglasses, received lower 'work well under direction' ratings ($M = 3.49, SE = 0.11$) than when she was not wearing eyeglasses ($M = 3.76, SE = 0.13$). Yet, the opposite effect occurred when the job applicant wore her hair down (red line), as she received higher ratings when she wore eyeglasses ($M = 3.79, SE = 0.12$), compared to when she was not wearing eyeglasses ($M = 3.54, SE = 0.11$). The main effect of cosmetics, eyeglasses and hairstyle not reaching significance (see Table 13, Appendix M).

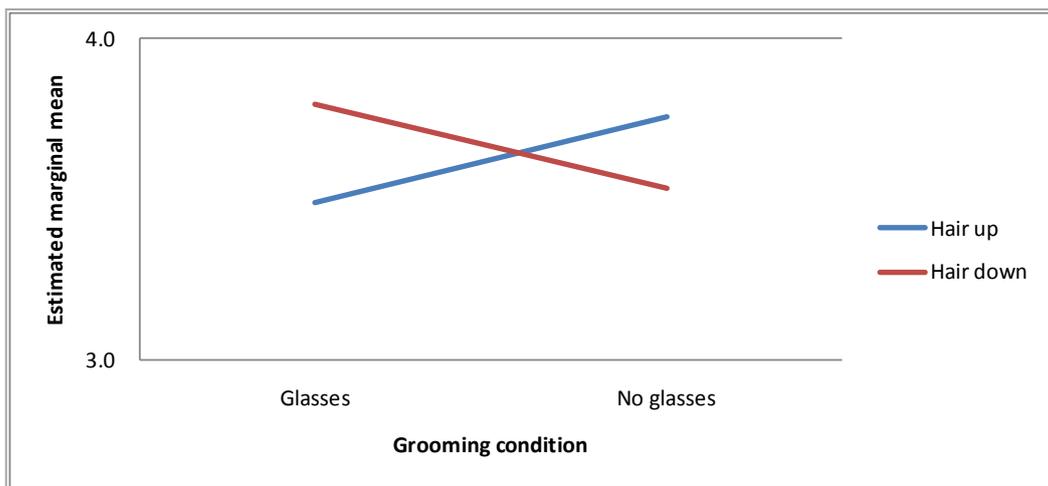


Figure 7. 'Would work well under direction' and the two-way interaction of hairstyle and eyeglasses

5. 6. 7 'Risk-taker' two-way interaction

An independent t test compared males and females on the single item measure 'risk taker'. A significant gender difference was found $t(112) = 1.95, p = .05, d = .38, SP = .48$ (see Table 14, Appendix M). Therefore, gender was included as a fourth variable in the ANOVA calculation.

The interaction between gender and cosmetics in relation to the single 'risk-taker' impression was significant $F(1, 98) = 4.44, p = .04, \eta_p^2 = .04, SP = .55$. Figure 8 below illustrates that the job applicant rated by female respondents (blue line) received similar ratings of the risk taker trait regardless of whether she wore cosmetics ($M = 2.61, SE = 0.12$) or not ($M = 2.74, SE = 0.12$). However, the job applicant rated by male respondents (red line), received higher ratings of the risk taker trait when wearing cosmetics ($M = 2.75, SE = 0.22$), and lower ratings when not wearing cosmetics ($M = 2.22, SE = 0.16$). The main effect of cosmetics, eyeglasses and hairstyle did not reach significance (see Table 15, Appendix M).

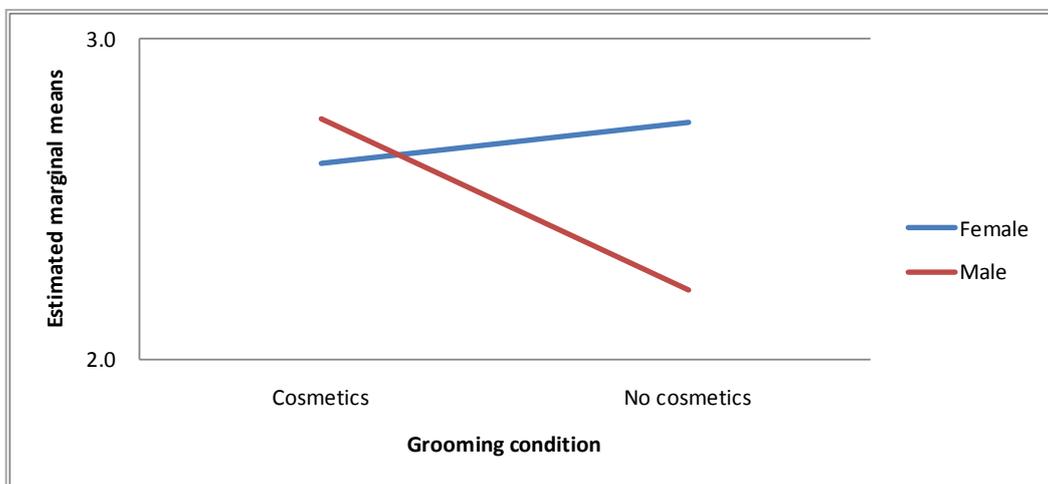


Figure 8. 'Risk-taker' and the two-way interaction of gender and cosmetics

5. 6. 8 'Practical' two-way interaction

Finally, the interaction between hairstyle and eyeglasses in relation to the single impression 'practical' was significant $F(1, 106) = 7.70, p = .01, \eta_p^2 = .07, SP = .79$. Figure 9 demonstrates that the job applicant wearing her hair up (blue line), and wearing eyeglasses received lower practical trait ratings ($M = 3.54, SE = 0.11$) compared to when she was not wearing eyeglasses ($M = 3.94, SE = 0.13$). However, the opposite effect occurred when she wore her hair down (red line), as when she was not wearing eyeglasses she received lower practical trait ratings ($M = 3.50, SE = 0.11$) compared to when she was wearing eyeglasses ($M = 3.73, SE = 0.11$). The main effect of cosmetics, eyeglasses and hairstyle did not reach significance (see Table 16, Appendix M).

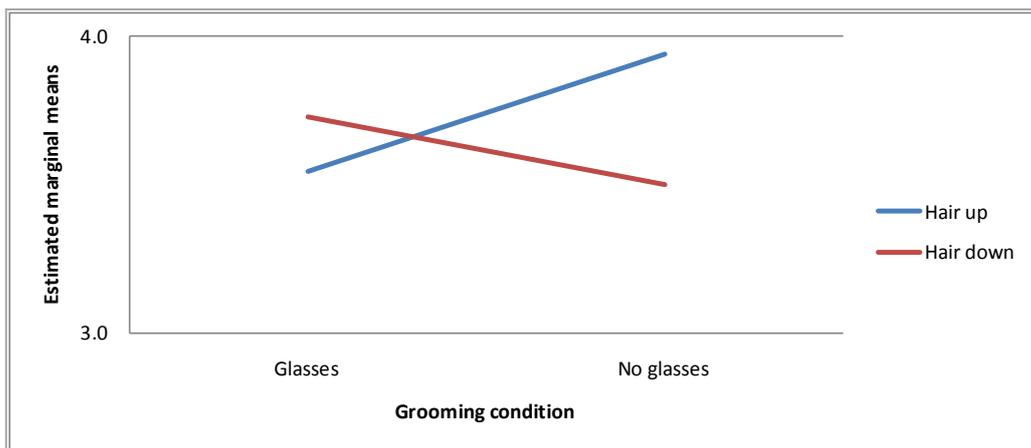


Figure 9. 'Practical' and the two-way interaction of hairstyle and eyeglasses

5.7 Conclusion

The results have shown that amendments to the grooming conditions cosmetics, hairstyle and eyeglasses did not significantly affect perceptions of employment potential, competence, independence or recommendations of salary. However, there were some significant main effects of femininity and masculinity related to the job applicant's hairstyle and the respondents' gender, and some interesting and significant two-way interactions between the grooming conditions in relation to the research factors 'competence' and 'employment potential' and the single item impressions 'attractiveness', 'work well under direction', 'risk-taker' and 'practical'. These findings will be discussed in the next chapter in relation to the associated grooming literature.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

The primary objective of this research study was to determine the influence of cosmetics, hairstyle and eyeglasses on recruitment consultants' impressions and evaluations of a female managerial applicant when other influencing nonverbal factors, including dress and attractiveness, were identical. A secondary objective was to provide recommendations for managerial grooming where possible. The results presented in the previous chapter show that changes to the grooming conditions - cosmetics, hairstyle and eyeglasses - alone did not significantly affect perceptions of employment potential, competence, independence, or salary recommendations. The first section of this chapter will consider these findings in relation to other academic research studies. The second half of this chapter will discuss the other interesting and significant two-way interactions found in this research study, focussing primarily on the impact of femininity and masculinity in regard to grooming.

6.2 Cosmetics

Previous research has indicated conflicting findings regarding the relationship between job applicants' use of cosmetics and their perceived abilities. In this study, the main effect of cosmetics did not reach significance in relation to competence, whereas Kyle and Mahler (1996), who investigated the influence of hair colour and cosmetic use on judgements of female job applicants' abilities for an accountant position, found that the applicant was rated as significantly more competent when not wearing cosmetics. Potentially, the different outcomes of these studies are due to methodological variations. For example, Kyle and Mahler (1996) used inexperienced college students to evaluate the female job applicant, whereas the present study used actual recruitment agents. Also Kyle and Mahler's (1996) job applicant was 40 years old and applied her own

cosmetics, whereas the present study used a model in her early 30s and her cosmetics were applied by a professional makeup artist.

There are no other known studies that directly evaluate competency and cosmetics, but other studies have evaluated employment potential in relation to cosmetics use. Cox and Glick (1986) explored the correlation between employment evaluations of women and the use of cosmetics and, based on the evaluations of the subjects' *curricula vitae*, found that cosmetic use had no effect on the expected performance of female applicants for an accountant position. This finding is consistent with the present study, as cosmetic use had no effect on the ratings of employment potential. However, Cox and Glick also tested the effect of cosmetic use on the expected performance of female applicants for a traditionally female role (secretary) and found that cosmetic use had a negative effect on expected job performance. Cox and Glick concluded that cosmetic use strengthens the sex-role stereotypes associated with traditionally feminine roles, as cosmetics tend to enhance the perceived sexiness, attractiveness and femininity of women, which negatively affects perceived job performance.

In this study, however, the job applicant wearing cosmetics received almost the same femininity and attractiveness ratings as when she was not wearing cosmetics. This finding is in contrast to Graham and Jouhar's (1981) concept of a positive cosmetic stereotype, which was also supported by Miller and Cox (1982), Cash et al. (1989), Workman and Johnson (1991) and Mulhern et al. (2003). However, these earlier studies were not examining grooming with actual recruitment consultants in a workplace environment. It was noted from the additional comments of the respondents in the current study that they felt uncomfortable answering questions about femininity and attractiveness; in their normal role, these questions would be completely prohibited, as recruitment consultants are professionally bound by the Sex Discrimination Act (1975). In

addition, the makeup artist applying cosmetics to the job applicant in the present study was requested to use a moderate level of cosmetics, defined by Kyle and Mahler (1996) as foundation, blusher, eye shadow, eyeliner, mascara and lipstick that were appropriate for a job interview situation. This meant that the job applicant had fairly natural and neutral-coloured cosmetics applied.

Unfortunately, other relevant published studies have not included model photographs from their experiments, so a comparison of cosmetic application levels cannot be made

The results of this study, and the studies of Cox and Glick (1986) and Kyle and Mahler (1996), are inconsistent with research by Nash et al. (2006), who found that cosmetics had a positive effect on employment potential, including cosmetic users being rated as having greater earning potential than the same women without cosmetics. This finding is directly opposed to Kyle and Mahler's (1996) research, which found a significant relationship between cosmetic use and the assignment of a lower salary, while the present study found that cosmetics had no effect on recommendations for starting salary.

These conflicting findings may be due to methodological variations, as the female subjects used in Cox and Glick's (1986) study were between the ages of 22 and 30 and had their cosmetics applied by a professional, whilst the single subject used by Kyle and Mahler (1996) was 40 years old and applied her own makeup. Yet the women in their early 30s used by Nash et al. (2006) are similar to the 34-year-old volunteer used in this study, with both studies using the services of a professional makeup artist. However, Nash et al.'s (2006) research was focussed solely on cosmetics and whilst participants were not informed of the nature of the study, the models were photographed in a fairly unnatural way, with each wearing "a white headband to keep their hair away from their face ... and a black bib to mask their clothes" (p.496), which is likely to have directed the participants'

attention solely to skin tone and complexion in a way that the current study did not.

6.3 Hairstyle

The effects of cranial hair on perceptions of any kind have rarely been examined and where they have, it has previously been in association with attractiveness and mate selection. The only research to have evaluated hairstyle in relation to independence found that perceptions of independence were not significantly affected by the length of the hairstyle (Bereczkei & Mesko, 2007). In the present study, there was a trend toward higher ratings of independence if the hair was worn up (however, a significant difference between hair conditions was not found). Terry and Krantz's (1993) research found that long hair on women was linked to decreased forcefulness. This decrease in forcefulness was attributed to hair softening the form of the face, giving a more youthful look.

The job applicant in the present study wearing her hair up was rated as having only marginally more employment potential than when she wore her hair down, with the main effect of hairstyle not reaching significance. This is similar to the findings of Terry and Krantz's (1993) study, which found that a long-haired female job applicant did not conjure up a stereotypical image of an attractive but intellectually challenged woman, and traits important to employment potential, such as maturity, rationality, stability, and intelligence, were not diminished by long hair. However, contrary to this research, Cash (1985) found in his study on the impact of grooming styles on the evaluation of women in management that long hair was a cue for non-managerial status, while hair that was shorter and simpler indicated managerial calibre. However, Cash (1985) did not separate long hair from other non-managerial status cues, so it is not possible to distinguish the effect of long hair alone on perceptions of managerial calibre in his study.

No published studies have examined how modifications to hairstyle have affected recommendations of salary, but in line with the finding above that hairstyle has no effect on perceptions of employment potential, as anticipated, amendments to the hairstyle had no effect on recommendations for the job applicant's starting salary

6. 4 Eyeglasses

A body of research has shown that the wearing of eyeglasses is positively linked with competence-related traits, such as intelligence, authority, industriousness, dependability, alertness and honesty (Thornton, Manz & Lueck, 1968; Argyle & McHenry, 1971; Hamid, 1972; Boshier, 1975; Harris, Harris & Bochner, 1982; Edwards, 1987; Bartolini, Kresge, McLennan, Windham, Buhr, & Pryor, 1988; Terry & Krantz, 1993; Harris, 1991). In this study, however, no significant difference was found in competence ratings when the job applicant was wearing or not wearing eyeglasses.

Perhaps one reason for this is that eyeglass styles have significantly changed since the body of research above was completed. Eyeglasses are now considered by many as a fashion accessory, with a much greater range of styles, colours and shapes available to suit individual wearers. Historically, thicker rimmed eyeglasses may have emphasised the eye condition myopia, which has been suggested to be linked with high intelligence (Ashton, 1984; Karlsson, 1978; Pace, 1987), but generally now eyeglasses can be quite small in size and even rimless, which may not link eyeglasses with competence traits in the same direct way. In this study, the model wore her own eyeglasses, which were of a small modern style with dark brown rims, as they were considered the most suitable choice for the individual.

The majority of other research studies do not mention the style of the eyeglasses used in their experiments. One exception to this is Thornton (1944), who used

rimless glasses made of plain clear glass; however, he still found that subjects wearing glasses were rated significantly higher in intelligence, dependability, industriousness and honesty than the same people without eyeglasses. This finding can potentially be explained by the differing methodologies used, as in Thornton's (1944) study the subjects were presented in person to a group of respondents, firstly wearing eyeglasses, and then later reintroduced without eyeglasses. Respondents were asked to judge the subjects on certain personality traits during each meeting. Given that other grooming factors and behaviour did not change during these presentations, it is likely to have focused attention on the presence or absence of eyeglasses in a way that the present study did not. Especially as in the present study respondents viewed a single photograph depicting one of the eight different grooming conditions and they were not comparing multiple grooming conditions. In addition, even though the eyeglasses were rimless and made of plain glass, in the early 1940s eyeglasses were viewed as more functional than fashionable, which is likely to have drawn more attention to the eye condition myopia and its link with competency-related traits.

In this study, eyeglasses had no effect on the ratings of employment potential. Terry and Krantz (1993) found that while eyeglasses were associated with heightened competency traits, they were also associated with diminished forcefulness. Given that wearing eyeglasses did not provide the competence boost to the job applicant that was achieved in previous studies, combined with a potential decrease in perceived forcefulness, it is not surprising that employment potential ratings were not improved by the wearing of eyeglasses or that eyeglasses had no effect on starting salary recommendations. Conversely, employment potential ratings were not decreased with eyeglass wearing and a potential reason for this and the findings above are that respondents in the

present study were generally indifferent to the wearing, or not wearing, of eyeglasses because eyeglasses in this style era are a commonly worn accessory, either used for fashion or functional reasons.

6.5 Femininity and masculinity

6.5.1 Hairstyle

In this study, changes to hairstyle had an impact on the job applicant's perceived femininity and masculinity. Hair worn down was found to enhance perceived femininity significantly, which concurs with Mesko and Bereczkei's (2004) study and a historically held view that long hair is a symbol of sex in western society (Morris, 1985; Synnott, 1987). In Bereczkei and Mesko's (2006) later study, they found that hair length affected certain personality judgements, with long hair communicating femininity.

Conversely, when the job applicant in this study wore her hair up, she received higher masculinity ratings, although this result failed to reach significance. Given that the strength of the relationship is estimated to be small to moderate, and the power of the test was low, it is possible that with a larger sample size (estimated to be at 191 participants), a significant effect could have been found, if one exists. No previous studies have evaluated masculinity in regard to hairstyle, so this remains an area for future research.

Interestingly, Hinsz et al. (2001) found that women wearing their hair up may signal age appropriateness: that is, younger women and girls tend to wear their hair longer, whilst older women have shorter length hair or wear their hair tied back. Mesko and Bereczkei's (2004) research concurred with this finding, as they also identified that hair worn up in a bun decreased youthfulness.

Potentially, there is a link between maturity and masculinity in regard to hairstyle, and hair which is worn shorter or pulled back may communicate a more mature

job applicant who is perhaps seen as more masculine. Cash (1985) found that long hair was a cue for non-managerial status, while shorter, simpler hairstyles indicated managerial calibre. Potentially, it could be the combination of maturity and masculinity that is signalled by pulled-back hair that increases perceptions of managerial calibre and ultimately managerial success, which Schein (1973) found that both men and women stereotype as requiring more masculine than feminine traits.

The relationship between masculinity and hairstyle is also illustrated by the two-way non-significant trend between gender and hairstyle. Whilst female respondents gave the job applicant almost identical ratings of masculinity regardless of how the job applicant wore her hair, when rated by male respondents, the job applicant received higher ratings of masculinity when her hair was worn up and lower ratings of masculinity when her hair was worn down. Interestingly, Cunningham, Roberts, Barbee, Druen and Wu (1995) found that young men preferred women with long hair rather than short hair and Jacobi and Cash (1994) found that females believed men preferred women with longer hair. Yet, unlike these studies, the current research did not find a significant link between hairstyle and attractiveness, but only between hairstyle and masculinity.

6. 5. 2 Gender

Another interesting finding in regard to femininity and masculinity was that female respondents gave significantly higher masculinity ratings to the job applicant than did male respondents. Conversely, male respondents gave higher femininity ratings than did female respondents, although this was a non-significant trend. Women judging women potentially have a stronger view on what equates to femininity than men do, and it is possible that they felt the managerial style of dress, including the plain blouse, navy jacket, and lack of jewellery, was constraining the job applicant's femininity. It may also have been viewed as an outdated 'dress for success' grooming style, which is not as relevant in the current corporate environment as it was in the 1980s. Other studies have also found gender differences, as Cash (1985) found that male respondents made more favourable hiring decisions if a job applicant was viewed in a managerial (less feminine) grooming style as opposed to a non-managerial (more feminine) style, while female respondents did not. Indeed, the female respondents sometimes made more favourable hiring decisions if the job applicant demonstrated a more feminine grooming style.

6. 5. 3 Gender and eyeglasses

Another interesting finding was a non-significant trend for a two-way interaction between gender and the wearing of eyeglasses. While female respondents rated the job applicant as more masculine with eyeglasses than without, the opposite trend occurred with male respondents, as they gave lower ratings of masculinity to the job applicant wearing eyeglasses and higher ratings when she was viewed without eyeglasses. Harris (1991) similarly found that men perceived women wearing eyeglasses as more attractive and feminine, whereas women thought that eyeglasses would make them look less so. This finding is also consistent with a body of research (Terry, 1989b; Terry & Hall, 1989; Terry & Brady, 1976;

Terry & Kroger, 1976) that has found that women have a more negative image of eyeglasses than have men, which possibly results from the premium placed on female femininity and attractiveness in our society and is also a reason why women are more likely than men to use contact lenses (Terry, 1989).

Previous research on eyeglasses in relation to femininity and masculinity is ambiguous; while Ruth and Richards (1974) that found women wearing eyeglasses were seen as less feminine, Harris et al. (1982) found no support for this proposition and found no gender differences between the raters. Indeed, Harris (1991) found that eyeglasses had a propensity to enhance the perceived femininity of women. Nonetheless, Terry (1989) found that female eyeglass wearers were more likely to attract only negative social assessments; eyeglasses detracted from attractiveness, but they did not increase masculinity. Cash (1985) also found that eyeglasses provided more masculine managerial status cues. The non-significant trend in this study highlights that more research is needed, as there is currently inconclusive evidence to confirm how eyeglasses affect perceptions of femininity and masculinity and how this impacts on employment decisions.

6. 5. 4 Eyeglasses and cosmetics

This mixed view of whether eyeglasses increase or decrease femininity or masculinity may also be connected to the significant two-way interaction between eyeglasses and cosmetics in relation to femininity in this study. When the job applicant wearing eyeglasses also wore cosmetics, she received higher femininity ratings than when she was not wearing cosmetics. Given that female respondents in particular perceived the job applicant wearing eyeglasses as more masculine, adding cosmetics potentially softened the job applicant's appearance and thereby increased the femininity ratings.

However, the opposite effect occurred when the job applicant was not wearing eyeglasses. In this case, she received lower femininity ratings with cosmetics and higher femininity ratings when she was not wearing cosmetics. Interestingly, no significant main effects were found for the affect of cosmetics or eyeglasses separately on femininity. These findings oppose the body of research that found that the use of cosmetics increased femininity and attractiveness (Graham & Jouhar, 1981; Workman & Johnson, 1991 & 1991b; Cash, Rissi & Chapman, 1985; Cox & Glick, 1986; and Kyle & Mahler, 1996).

One possible explanation for this is that overall, respondents gave higher scores when they viewed the job applicant with a balance of feminine (no eyeglasses) and masculine (no cosmetics) grooming elements. Therefore, when the job applicant was viewed without eyeglasses and wearing cosmetics - both feminine grooming elements - she was not rated as highly, even though respondents were rating her on the femininity trait. This is in line with research by Cash (1995 & 1990), which suggests that grooming that enhances femininity in women may detract from their perceived competence in situations that are assumed to require masculine traits for success. Potentially, the recruitment agents who were responding with the aim of evaluating the job applicant's curriculum vitae for a specific managerial accounting role might give higher trait ratings when they viewed a job applicant with a mixture of feminine and masculine grooming elements because it came closest to their idea of a 'best fit' of femininity appropriate for a workplace environment.

6.6 Other significant two-way interactions

There were a number of other significant two-way interactions found in this study that serve to consolidate the main grooming interactions found regarding femininity and masculinity. The two-way interaction between hairstyle and eyeglasses was significant for the impressions 'employment potential', 'would

work well under direction' and 'practical', and nearing significance for the impression 'competence'. Under all of these impressions, the job applicant wearing her hair up and not wearing eyeglasses received higher trait ratings than when she was wearing eyeglasses. The opposite effect occurred when she wore her hair down, as when wearing eyeglasses she received higher trait ratings than when she was not wearing eyeglasses. Interestingly, it appears that in this study, respondents gave higher scores when they viewed the job applicant with a balance of masculine and feminine grooming elements.

When the job applicant wore her hair down and no eyeglasses, thus demonstrating two potentially feminine elements, and her hair up and eyeglasses, demonstrating two potentially masculine elements, her trait ratings were not as high as when she combined masculine and feminine grooming attributes.

This finding complements research by Johnson et al. (1984), who evaluated dress and managerial competencies and concluded that women managers can legitimately assume some degree of masculinity in their dress, but not to the point that their dress conflicts with their gender role. This finding is also consistent with Forsythe et al. (1984), who found that dress that is very masculine may not be judged as positively as dress that includes some feminine elements, as in their study the most positive responses went to applicants wearing moderately masculine dress.

6.7 Attractiveness

The significant two-way interaction between hairstyle and cosmetics in relation to attractiveness follows the same pattern as above for hairstyle and eyeglasses, which may also be explained by the proposed link between feminine and masculine grooming elements. That is, the job applicant wearing her hair up

received higher attractiveness ratings when also wearing cosmetics than when she was not wearing cosmetics. However, when she wore her hair down, the opposite effect occurred. When hair was down and combined with no cosmetics, the job applicant received higher attractiveness ratings than when she was wearing cosmetics. As with the other traits, respondents gave higher attractiveness scores when they viewed the job applicant with a balance of masculine and feminine grooming.

Whilst physical attractiveness may be historically associated with considerable social power, in this study, it is not necessarily associated with power in the work environment. This finding is in line with research by Cash (1985 & 1990), which suggests that physical features or grooming that enhances femininity or attractiveness in women may detract from their perceived competence in situations that are assumed to require masculine traits for success.

Obviously, unlike the other traits, attractiveness is focussed solely on appearance and this finding is contrary to a body of research that found that the use of cosmetics increases femininity and attractiveness (Graham & Jouhar, 1981; Workman & Johnson, 1991 & 1991b; Cash, Rissi & Chapman, 1985; Cox & Glick, 1986; and Kyle & Mahler, 1996). However, given that the recruitment agents were given the task of assessing the job applicant's curriculum vitae for a specific managerial accounting role, it is possible that they evaluated the job applicant in terms of the most appropriate level of attractiveness for the workplace environment and the 'best fit' for the role they were trying to fill. A job applicant with a very feminine and hence attractive appearance is perhaps not as appropriate for a managerial role, as both men and women stereotype success in the managerial role as requiring more masculine than feminine traits (Schein, 1973). Likewise, a very masculine appearance may also be considered less acceptable for future success in a work environment, as Johnson et al. (1984)

found that dress that is masculine to the point of conflicting with a woman's gender role was not viewed as favourably as dress that is moderately masculine.

6.8 'Risk-taker'

The single impression 'risk-taker' was affected by gender, as the two-way interaction between gender and cosmetics on this impression was significant. The job applicant rated by female respondents received similar ratings of the 'risk-taker' trait regardless of whether she wore cosmetics or not. However, the job applicant rated by male respondents received higher ratings of the risk-taker trait when wearing cosmetics and lower ratings when not wearing cosmetics. As cosmetic users themselves, female respondents may possess a contrasting view of the use of cosmetics. While no other study has specifically looked at cosmetics in relation to the 'risk-taker' attribute, and it is generally acknowledged that cosmetics are now socially and morally acceptable, the use of cosmetics has historically been linked with a lack of chastity in women (Banner, 1983). Interestingly, in Workman and Johnson's (1991) study, male respondents rated the model wearing moderate or heavy cosmetics as more likely to provoke sexual harassment and to be sexually harassed than did the female respondents. While this is not in the same 'risk-taker' context, as the male respondents in this study were rating the job applicant in a work environment, it is a thought provoking finding nonetheless.

6.9 Conclusion

The results indicate that amendments to the grooming conditions did not significantly affect perceptions of employment potential, competence, independence, or recommendations of salary. However, there were some significant main effects of femininity and masculinity related to the job applicant's hairstyle and the respondents' gender. Hairstyle changes impacted on the job applicant's perceived femininity and masculinity, with long hair significantly

enhancing perceived femininity. Interestingly, female respondents gave significantly higher masculinity ratings to the job applicant than did male respondents.

There were also a number of other significant two-way interactions that serve to consolidate the main grooming interactions found regarding femininity and masculinity. The two-way interaction between hairstyle and eyeglasses was significant for the impressions 'employment potential', 'would work well under direction' and 'practical', and nearing significance for the impression 'competence'. Under all of these impressions, it appears that respondents gave higher scores when they viewed the job applicant with a balance of masculine (hair up, eyeglasses and no cosmetics) and feminine (hair down, no eyeglasses and cosmetics) grooming elements. Therefore, a job applicant with a very feminine appearance may not be viewed as appropriate for a managerial role, and likewise, a very masculine appearance may also be considered less acceptable for future managerial employment. This concurs with other research, which suggests that physical features and grooming that heighten women's attractiveness and femininity may conflict with their judged capability in situations that require perceived masculine traits for success (Cash & Trimmer, 1984)

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

The aim of this research project was to examine how employment decisions regarding women in management may be influenced by gender-related aspects of women's grooming style. Specifically, it set out to explore the influence of cosmetics, hairstyle, and eyeglasses on recruitment consultants' impressions and evaluations of a female managerial accountant job applicant. In this final chapter, the limitations of the research will be examined, and then possible directions for future research studies will be outlined. Finally, the key findings and final summations will be made in the conclusion.

7.2 Limitations

Several methodological issues require consideration. Firstly, this research evaluated the influence of grooming on Caucasian women only, and hence the generalisation of results will be relevant only to this demographic group. Further, the response rate may also have impacted negatively on the generalisation of the data. In this research, the gender-neutral position of an accountant was studied. The disadvantage of using this occupation is that stereotypes related to this job may interact with personal cues and, therefore, caution should be exercised in generalising these findings to other occupations.

As is the case with the majority of research studying the effect of physical appearance cues on employment decisions, this study did not include a no-photo condition. Therefore, the findings of this study can draw conclusions only regarding the relative effects of hairstyle, cosmetic and eyeglass use. However, actual recruitment decisions are seldom made in the absence of physical grooming cues.

There has been extensive use of photographs and line drawings when researching the influence of physical appearance. However, Argyle and McHenry's (1971) research, which examined the influence of eyeglasses on perceptions of intelligence, found that eyeglasses had a significant effect on respondents' perceptions of the wearer when briefly viewing a slide of the wearer, but not when viewing a five-minute videotape of the wearer. Guion and Gibson (1988) suggested that facial attractiveness conveyed by still photographs does not bias interviewers when they interact with the applicant. Thus, the use of silent videotape may offer an increased number of nonverbal cues about a job applicant in comparison to the use of photographs or line drawings (Forsythe, 1990). In this research, videotape was not utilised because the study was trying to approximate normal practice by sending a curriculum vitae to a recruitment agent for evaluation and a videotape would not constitute such practice.

Another limitation of this study is that each participant reviewed only one job applicant. This is slightly unrealistic, as, in real life, recruitment consultants would normally review a number of job applicants before putting candidates forward for an interview with a prospective employer. Some could also claim that the results of this research are directly attributable to the features of the single model used, and to be more realistic, each participant could review several job applicants and make judgements on each. However, in using this method, the impact of attractiveness would not be held equal. To do this, pre-testing by an independent judging panel of a larger group of potential models on a number of personal and appearance characteristics would determine a smaller number of models who represented the most similar levels of attractiveness (Goudge & Littrell, 1989).

7.3 Directions for future research

Compared to the marketing efforts of the multi-billion-dollar cosmetic and personal care manufacturing industry, very little research has investigated the

impact of female grooming on impression formation, and even less has evaluated this concept within a workplace environment. Future studies utilising larger recruitment consultant samples would be most beneficial, as the small sample size in the current study meant that most results suffered from a low level of power where a significant effect was unlikely to have been found even where it existed. Therefore, further studies using a larger sample size would be useful.

Future studies should explore the circumstances under which cosmetic use could be advantageous to women in the workforce, because this aspect of grooming in particular suffers from conflicting research findings. In addition, whilst there has been a substantial amount of research into perceptions of eyeglass wearers, much of this research is now outdated and very few of the studies focus on eyeglass wearing in the corporate setting. Hence, there is currently inconclusive evidence to confirm how eyeglasses affect perceptions of femininity and masculinity.

Future research should also examine grooming conditions with different age groups; for example, younger women, entering the workforce often start in positions of low power, and if their grooming projects a strong attractive and feminine impression, this may affect many aspects of their employment situation, including remuneration and promotional opportunities.

Finally, in this study, and in the majority of other studies, the model used was Caucasian, and it would be enlightening to examine women from different ethnic groups to determine whether similar results were found.

7.4 Conclusion

This research study explored the influence of cosmetics, hairstyle and eyeglasses on recruitment consultants' impressions and evaluations of a female managerial applicant when other influencing factors were held equal. The

findings of this research are reasonably clear, as the main effect of the grooming conditions, cosmetics, eyeglasses, and hairstyle, had no significant impact upon perceptions of competence, employment potential, independence, or recommendations for starting salary. These findings suggest that women applying for a managerial position, such as an accountant, could do whatever suits them in terms of grooming, and whatever makes them feel more confident.

However, it appears that the two-way interactions between grooming styles may continue to play a subtle role in the selection process. Respondents gave higher trait scores when they viewed the job applicant with a balance of masculine (hair up, eyeglasses and no cosmetics) and feminine (hair down, no eyeglasses and cosmetics) grooming styles. This was particularly pertinent to hairstyle and eyeglasses. Therefore, a job applicant with a very feminine appearance is perhaps not perceived as appropriate for a managerial role, and likewise, a very masculine appearance may also be considered less acceptable for future managerial success.

The respondent's gender also affected the influence of the grooming conditions, particularly in regard to whether the grooming condition was perceived to be masculine or feminine. Long hair was found to enhance perceived femininity significantly and there was a trend for hair worn up to increase masculinity ratings, particularly as rated by male respondents. The non-significant interaction between gender and eyeglasses indicated that female respondents rated the job applicant wearing eyeglasses as more masculine, whilst male respondents rated her as less masculine. Overall, the female respondents gave significantly higher masculinity ratings to the job applicant than did the male respondents.

Conversely, the male respondents gave higher femininity ratings than did the female respondents, although this was a non-significant trend.

Our culture places a premium on female attractiveness; from a young age, girls are socialised, and women are under pressure to conform to beauty ideals (Mazur, 1986; Wolf, 1991), with grooming used extensively by women in western society to improve or maintain an attractive appearance. While femininity and attractiveness have historically yielded power in social situations, women are unlikely to be aware that enhancing these impressions may affect subsequent work interactions. It is also particularly unlikely that women are aware of all of the consequences associated with grooming, given the limited and conflicting academic research results to date, and the vast sums spent globally by the grooming industry on promoting its products.

Overall, unlike most other aspects of physical appearance, grooming, like clothing, can be easily manipulated. Therefore, according to the findings of this study, women applying for management positions could be perceived in a more favourable light when wearing a balance of masculine and feminine grooming styles. This study highlights the fact that grooming is an important variable to study in the recruitment process, and cosmetics, hairstyle and eyeglasses are three potentially influential appearance cues.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Model information sheet and Model consent form

Model consent form

Person in photograph:

I hereby grant Joanna Heke the indefinite right to use the photographs resulting from the photo shoot, and any reproductions or adaptations of the photographs for all general purposes in relation to Joanna Heke's research work including, without limitation, the right to use them as stimulus materials in the research study and in any subsequent publication of the research study, including publication in books, newspapers, magazine articles and electronic publications. This consent also serves to waive all rights of compensation which I may have in connection with the use of my photographs.

Name and address: (please print)

.....
.....

Signature:

Date:

Model information sheet

Researcher:

Joanna Heke, postgraduate student, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand.

Research name:

The influence of grooming style on recruiters' evaluations of female applicants for a managerial position.

Brief description of research study:

This research explores the influence of cosmetics, hairstyle and eyeglasses on recruitment consultants' evaluations of female applicants for a management accountant role. The sample to be studied is a population of recruitment consultants employed in recruitment agencies that are members of the Recruitment and Employment Confederation (REC). It is proposed that 1000 recruitment agencies will be sent a packet of information including an invitation to participate, a fictitious job description, a fictitious résumé with a photo attached of a female model representing one of eight grooming conditions, with a short ten minute questionnaire to complete and return in a freepost envelope. Subjects will also be offered the opportunity to complete the study online. The model will be photographed for the eight different grooming conditions in colour, using a high-resolution digital camera by a professional photographer.

Signature: *Joanna Heke*

Date: *27th June 2009*

I have fully discussed the content of this form with the person modelling for the photographs and made it clear that their name and identity will not be revealed in descriptive text or commentary in connection with the images.

APPENDIX B: Photographs of eight experimental conditions



No cosmetics, hair up, eyeglasses



Cosmetics, hair up, eyeglasses



No cosmetics, hair up, no eyeglasses



Cosmetics, hair up, no eyeglasses



No cosmetics, hair down, eyeglasses



Cosmetics, hair down, eyeglasses



No cosmetics, hair down, no eyeglasses



Cosmetics, hair down, no eyeglasses

APPENDIX C: Fictitious job description

Fictional Management Accountant Job Description

Our client works within the wholesale industry and is seeking to recruit a candidate with excellent management accountancy experience and exceptional Excel skills to this full time permanent position within their group head office function based in London. The successful candidate will report to the Financial Controller.

Main duties and responsibilities

- To prepare monthly, quarterly and annual consolidated management accounts and board packs in accordance with agreed timescales.
- To prepare the annual statutory consolidated financial statements and non-statutory half-yearly accounts.
- To prepare the year-end audit to include liaison with auditors.
- Responsibility for the production of the balance sheet, profit & loss, cash flow forecasting and budgets.
- Maintenance of accounting ledgers and input of month-end journals.
- To maintain schedules of debtors, prepayments, creditors and accruals to ensure management and annual accounts are prepared in accordance with UK generally accepted accounting practices.
- To calculate fixed asset depreciation charges.
- To prepare quarterly VAT returns and the preparation of annual corporation tax returns.
- To provide monthly reports to budget holders and project managers showing details of payments, commitments, income and expenditure.
- Extensive analysis of management reports, including investigation and explanation of all variances to budget.
- To assist with training and management, as necessary, of a small team of staff.
- To improve the systems surrounding all aspects of the company's budgets, forecasts and business planning.
- Liaison with external service providers as required.
- Other ad hoc projects as required.

Experience

- Used to working in fast-moving environments, providing accurate and timely information to a high standard.
- High degree of communication skills, with the ability to interact with a broad selection of employees and key stakeholders across the business.
- Experience of working with a computerised accounting system.
- Experience in planning, budgeting and forecasting.

Skills, knowledge and abilities

- Ability to work independently to a high standard of accuracy with financial data.
- Ability to present clear reports and to communicate effectively.
- Advanced working knowledge of Excel.
- Ability to work under pressure; manage a diverse and competing workload and to ensure that deadlines are met.

Qualifications

Qualified CIMA/ACCA, and at least two years' experience in a similar position.

APPENDIX D: Fictitious curriculum vitae

Fictional Job Applicant

Curriculum Vitae

Katherine Hall

Telephone: 07766554265

Email: khal500@btinternet.com

Date of birth: 3 December 1977 (32)

Nationality: British

Education

Professional Qualifications
2007 Association of Chartered Certified Accountants (ACCA) qualified accountant.

1994 -1998 University of Nottingham
BA (Hons) Economics 2:2

1986 -1993 Wayland High School, Bedford
10 GCSEs: six A's and four B's
3 A Levels: Mathematics B, English B, History B

Profile

A results driven ACCA qualified management accountant with a broad range of experience in both practice and industry. A confident and hard working individual with excellent analytical skills and strong commercial experience gained with Board level exposure. An effective communicator at all levels with a proven ability to work well under pressure.

System skills

Excel (to advanced levels including macros), Word, PowerPoint, Access, SAP and Oracle.

Employment history

2007 – present

Management Accountant - Elementa Consulting Ltd

Elementa Consulting provides building services solutions for the education, residential, hotels, health, retail, commercial, urban regeneration and industrial sectors. Reporting to the Finance Controller, responsibilities include:

- Preparation and analysis of management accounts and board pack.
- Preparing monthly cash flow forecast.
- Providing support and management information to senior management and directors.
- Responsible for the financial controls for companies within the group.
- Reconciliation of balance sheet accounts.
- Preparing month-end journals for prepayments, accruals and depreciation.
- Responsible for preparation of statutory accounts and year-end file for submission to the auditors.
- Preparation of the year-end tax pack.
- On-job training and support for junior members of the finance team.

2004-2007**Assistant Management Accountant – Systems Group Integration Ltd**

Systems Group Integration provides high quality services, solutions and products for all aspects of distributed IT architecture. Reporting to the Financial Controller, responsibilities included:

- Preparation of monthly management accounts and budget holder reporting.
- Accruals and prepayments.
- Fixed asset register, additions and depreciation, capital reporting and balance sheet reconciliations.
- Setting up of a new business finance function and its monthly reporting requirements.
- Mid-year forecasting and the budget setting process for annual budgets.
- Providing finance department support to operational and senior management.

2001 – 2004**Assistant Accountant - Panasonic Logistics UK Ltd**

Panasonic Logistics UK Ltd is a leading supplier of consumer and business related electronics products. Reporting to the principal accountant, responsibilities included:

- Payroll.
- Month-end and year-end journals.
- Monthly and ad hoc invoicing.
- Supervision of purchase ledger.
- Debtors' statements and reconciliation.
- VAT returns – quarterly and annual.
- Banking and bank reconciliation.
- Assisting with month-end reporting.
- Ad hoc analysis as required.
- Assisting with annual business planning.

1999 – 2001**Graduate Accountancy Trainee - Moore Stephens.**

Moore Stephens is a leading chartered accountancy firm. Gained experience in practice management and all round financial and management accounting for small and growing business enterprises. Responsibilities included:

- Assisting in preparation of accounts and budgets, including variance analysis.
- Assisting in preparation of VAT returns and PAYE advisor to clients.
- Assisting in preparation of business plans for clients.

1993-1994

Gap year spent travelling to South East Asia, Australia and New Zealand.

Interests:

Running (3 half-marathons), netball, travelling, reading.

References:

Excellent references available on request.

APPENDIX E: Research questionnaire

Employment Impressions Questionnaire

Please be considerate of your employer and complete this questionnaire in a scheduled break or after work hours.

Thinking about the fictitious job applicant, based on reading the job description and reviewing the job applicant's Curriculum Vitae, please rate them on the following personality and employment potential impressions

Personality impressions

1. Adaptable

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

3. Believable

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

5. Confident

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

7. Competent

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

9. Creative

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

11. Friendly

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

2. Attractive

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

4. Cheerful

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

6. Conscientious

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

8. Composed

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

10. Feminine

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

12. Independent

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

13. Intelligent

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

15. Loyal

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

17. Practical

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

19. Reliable

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

21. Stable

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

23. Tactful

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

25. Works well with others

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

14. Likeable

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

16. Masculine

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

18. Professional

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

20. Risk-taker

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

22. Successful

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

24. Willing to take a stand

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

26. Would defend own beliefs

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Employment impressions

27. This applicant would fit in well with other people?

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

28. This applicant has good leadership potential?

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

29. This applicant has good potential for success?

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

30. This applicant has good potential for fulfilling the job description?

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

31. Other people would like to work with this applicant?

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

32. This applicant has good potential for long service?

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

33. This applicant would work well under the direction of someone else?

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

34. I would recommend this applicant be put forward for an interview?

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither disagree nor agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

35. Assuming this job applicant was selected for employment I would recommend this applicant be offered a starting salary of?

- £28,000
- £31,000
- £34,000
- £37,000
- £40,000

General opinions

36. Now thinking generally about management accountant positions that you have recruited for in the past 12 months, please indicate which statement you AGREE with the most.

It is easier to place female applicants in management accountant jobs
Please explain why _____

It is easier to place male applicants in management accountant jobs
Please explain why _____

There is no difference between placing male and female applicants in management accountant jobs
Please explain why _____

37. In general, do you think that male and female applicants for management accountant roles are judged using the same criteria?

Yes
 No, please explain why _____

38. Are there any comments you would like to add?

Demographics

39. What is your age?

- 18–23
- 24-29
- 30-39
- 40-49
- 50-59
- 60 and over

40. What is your gender?

- Female
- Male

41. What is your ethnic group?

- White British
- White Irish
- Other White background
- Mixed: White and Black Caribbean
- Mixed: White and Black African
- Mixed: White and Asian
- Mixed: Other Mixed background
- Indian
- Pakistani
- Bangladeshi
- Chinese
- Other Asian background
- Black Caribbean
- Black African
- Other Black background
- Other Ethnic Group

42. How many years have you spent working in recruitment?

- 0-1
- 2-3
- 3-4
- 5-6
- 7-9
- 10-15
- 16 years or over

43. Approximate number of staff employed in your organisation?

- 0-4
- 5-10
- 11-20
- 21-30
- 31-50
- 51-100
- 101 and over

44. Please indicate the UK country in which you are employed

England, please indicate the county in which you are employed:

- Avon
- Bedfordshire
- Berkshire
- Buckinghamshire
- Cambridgeshire
- Cheshire
- Cleveland
- Cornwall
- Cumbria
- Derbyshire
- Devon
- Dorset
- Durham
- East Sussex
- Essex
- Gloucestershire
- Hampshire
- Herefordshire
- Hertfordshire
- Isle of Wight
- Kent
- Lancashire
- Leicestershire
- Lincolnshire
- London
- Merseyside
- Middlesex
- Norfolk
- North Humberside
- North Yorkshire
- Northamptonshire
- Northumberland
- Nottinghamshire
- Oxfordshire
- Rutland
- Shropshire
- Somerset
- South Humberside
- South Yorkshire
- Staffordshire
- Suffolk
- Surrey
- Tyne and Wear
- Warwickshire
- West Midlands
- West Sussex
- West Yorkshire
- Wiltshire
- Worcestershire

Northern Ireland

Scotland

Wales

Thank you for your time. Please enclose and return this questionnaire in the reply paid envelope provided.

APPENDIX F: Invitation letter



MASSEY UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS
KAUPAPA WHAI PAKIHI

20 November 2009

Academic research: the views of Recruitment Consultants

My name is Joanna Heke, I am a graduate student studying communication management and I am currently working on my Master of Business thesis through Massey University. **I am researching the influences on recruitment consultants when employment selection decisions can only be based on limited job applicant information.**

I am writing to **invite you to participate** in this important research study and am **contacting you because your employer is a member of the Recruitment and Employment Confederation (REC)**. This research is not a REC initiative, but I have liaised with REC and obtained your address details from the publicly searchable REC database.

Following is a job description for the role of management accountant and a job applicant's Curriculum Vitae (including a photograph of the applicant) submitted for consideration for this role. **Please read through the job description and then evaluate the suitability of the applicant for the job by reading through their CV. Then answer the brief questionnaire – it will take you less than 10 minutes.** Although, please be considerate of your employer and complete the questionnaire in a scheduled break or after work hours. Please note that the job description and the job applicant's CV are fictitious and developed for the purpose of this research only.

Once you have completed the questionnaire **please return it in the freepost envelope** provided. **Alternatively**, if it is more convenient for you, **you can complete the questionnaire online** by logging on to the Internet and typing the link below into your computer browser.

www.surveymonkey.com/assess

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Your responses will be confidential and will be reported only as group data. Your consent to participate in the research will be implied by your completing and returning the questionnaire. **Please respond by the 23rd December 2009 to enable me to meet my reporting deadline.** Your completed questionnaire, once returned to me, will be kept and stored securely for five years, after which time it will be destroyed.

Te Kunenga
ki Pūrehuroa

Massey University - Department of Communication, Journalism and Marketing
Private Bag 11222, Palmerston North 4442 T +64 6 350 5799 F +64 6 350 5889 www.massey.ac.nz

If you have any questions about this research please contact joannaheke@hotmail.com or telephone 07766554265 or contact my supervisors, Marianne Tremaine M.G.Tremaine@massey.ac.nz or Niki Murray n.s.murray@massey.ac.nz. This is an important study and your co-operation in providing the information will be invaluable. Thank you very much for your time and insight. If you would like to receive a summary copy of the final research results, please do not hesitate to let me know and I will forward them on to you.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "Joanna Heke". The script is cursive and fluid.

Joanna Heke
Massey University

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 09/35. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Karl Pajo, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone 0064 4 801 5799 extension 6929, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz

APPENDIX G: Online research questionnaire

[SURVEY PREVIEW MODE] Survey - Mozilla Firefox

File Edit View History Bookmarks Tools Help

http://www.surveymonkey.com/...

1. Please be considerate of your employer and complete this in a break or after work hours.

17%

Please do not complete this if you have already completed the paper version of this questionnaire. If you would like to terminate your involvement in this research study, you can close this browser at any time.

Thinking about the fictitious job applicant, based on reading the job description and reviewing the job applicant's Curriculum Vitae please rate them on the following personality and employment potential impressions



1. Adaptable

Done

Windows Live Hotm... Create a Survey - Su... [SURVEY PREVIEW ... Third draft report - ...

Launch Internet Explorer Browser
Finds and displays information and Web sites on the Internet.

Desktop 10:21 Tuesday 13/07/2010

[SURVEY PREVIEW MODE] Survey - Mozilla Firefox

File Edit View History Bookmarks Tools Help

http://www.surveymonkey.com/...

1. Adaptable

Strongly disagree

Disagree

Neither disagree nor agree

Agree

Strongly agree

2. Attractive

Strongly disagree

Disagree

Neither disagree nor agree

Agree

Strongly agree

3. Believable

Strongly disagree

Disagree

Neither disagree nor agree

Agree

Strongly agree

4. Cheerful

Strongly disagree

Disagree

Neither disagree nor agree

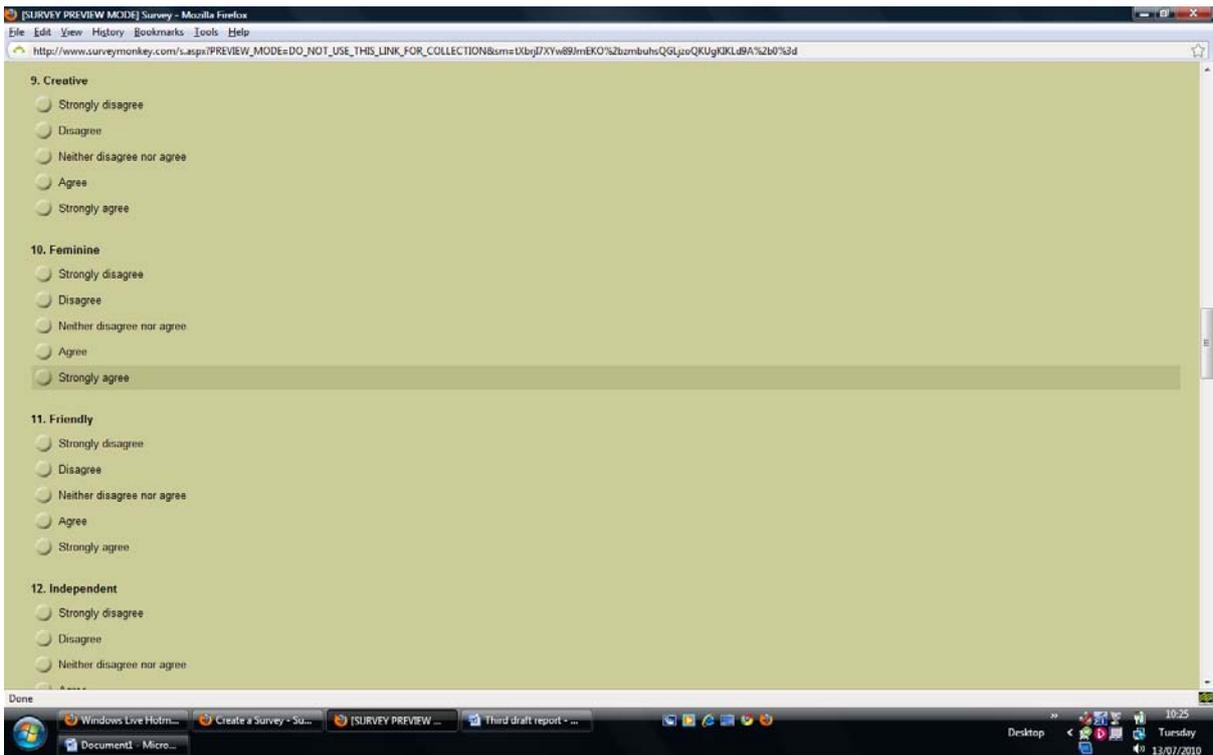
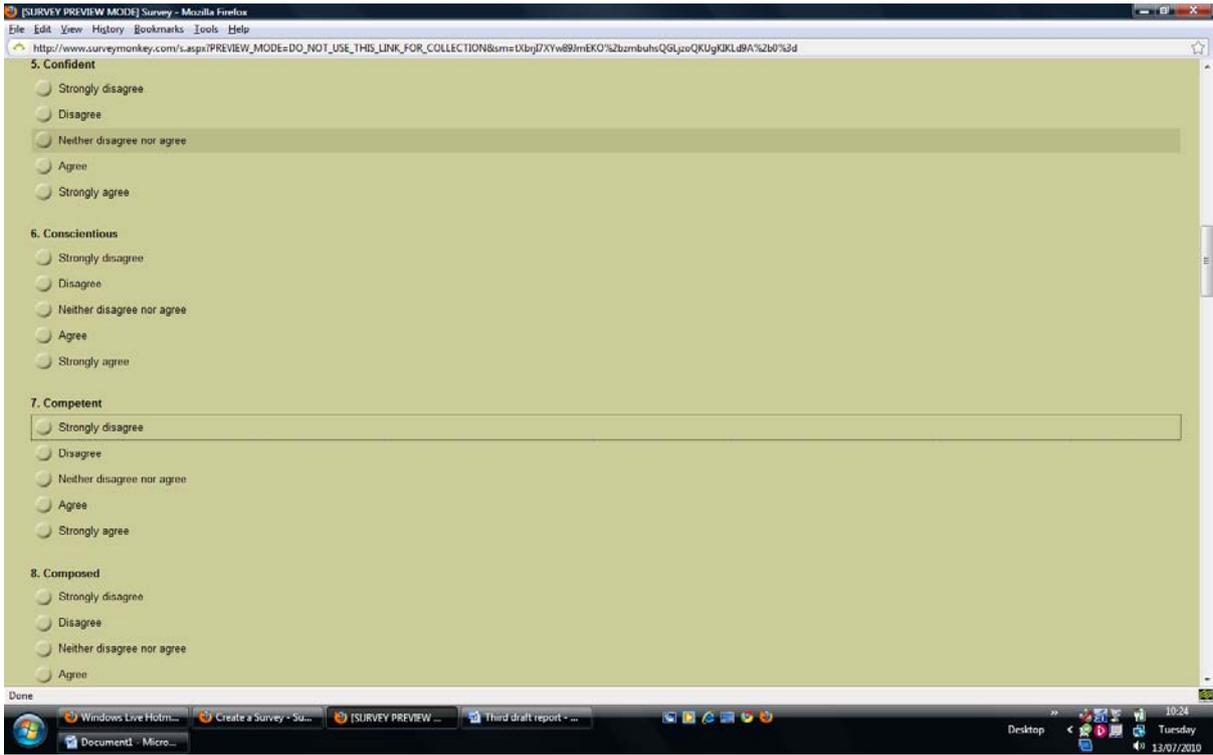
Agree

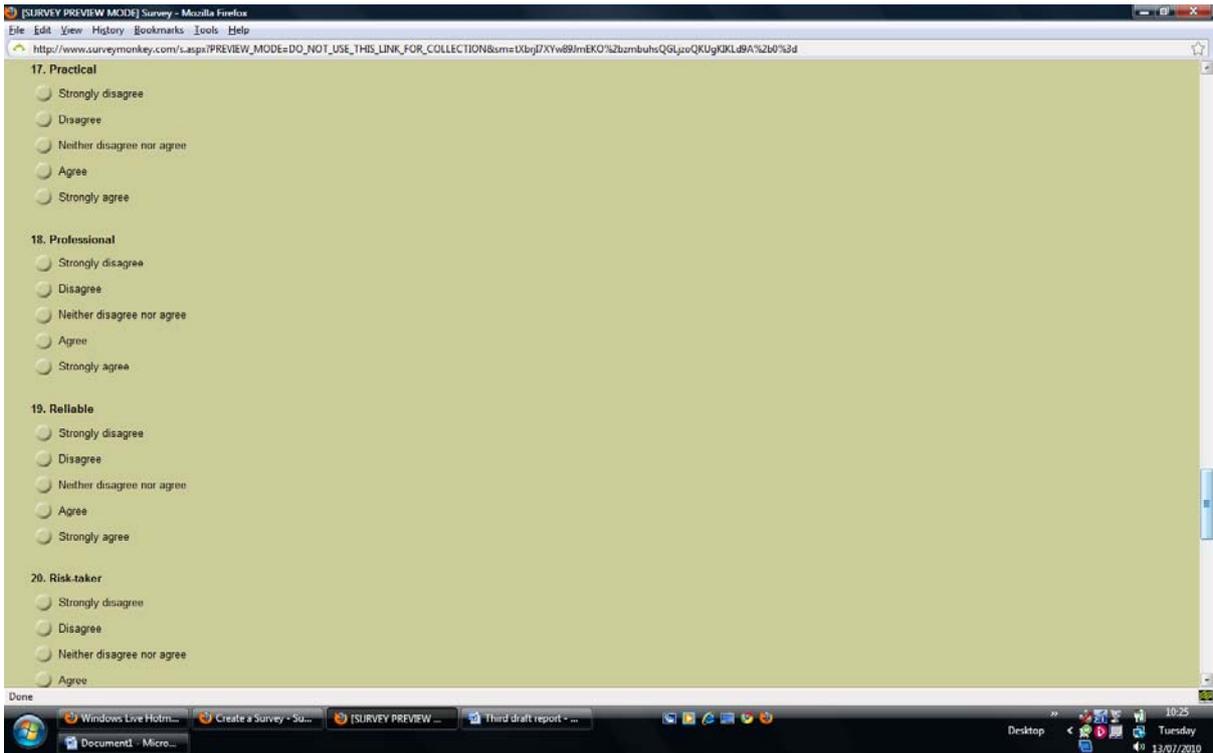
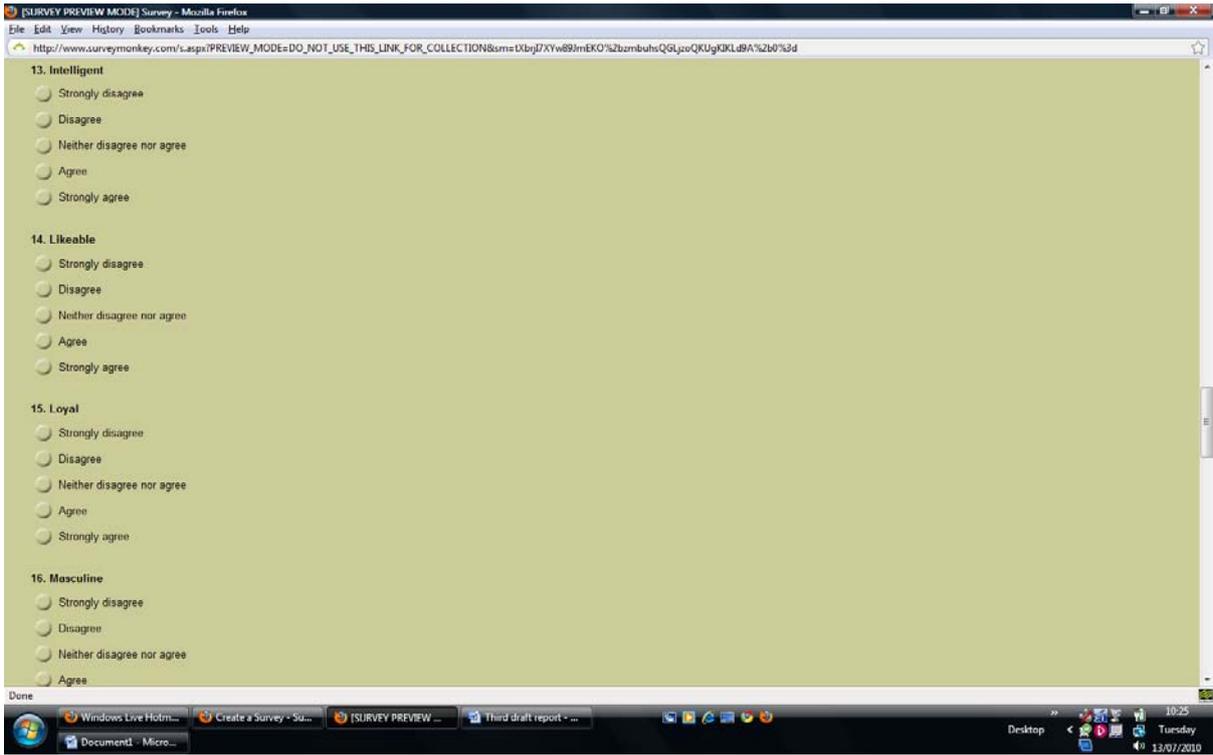
Done

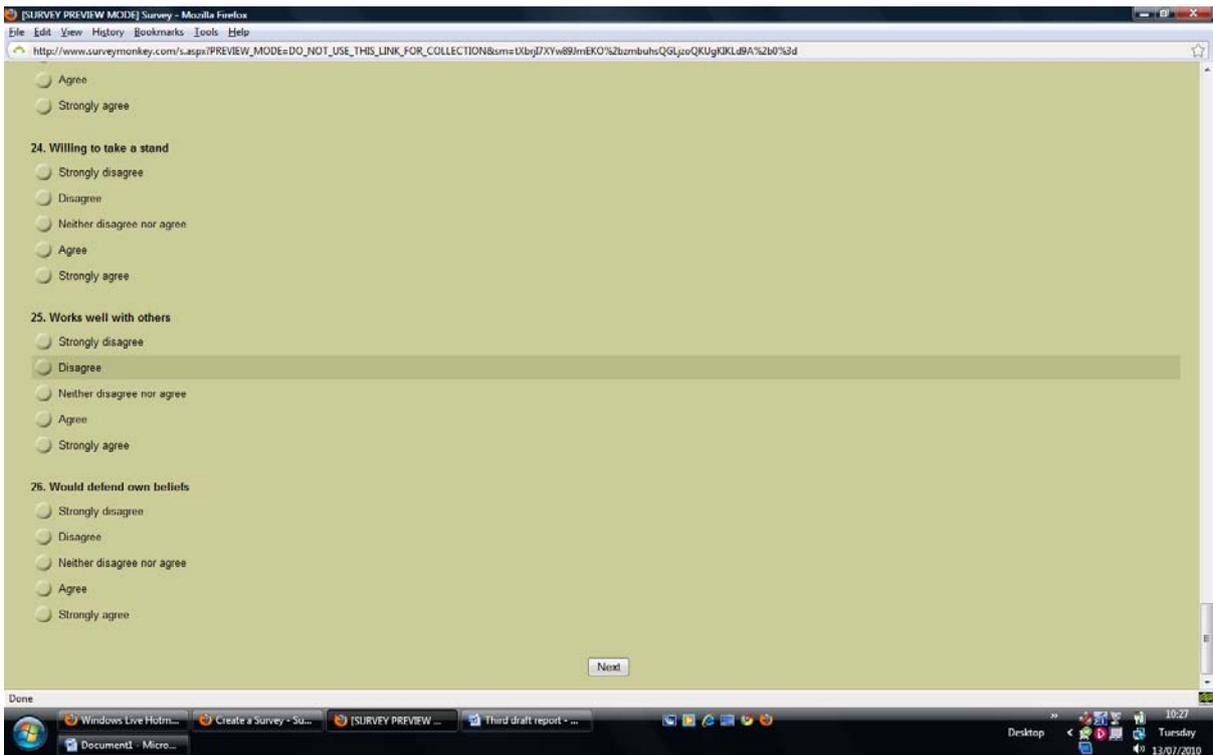
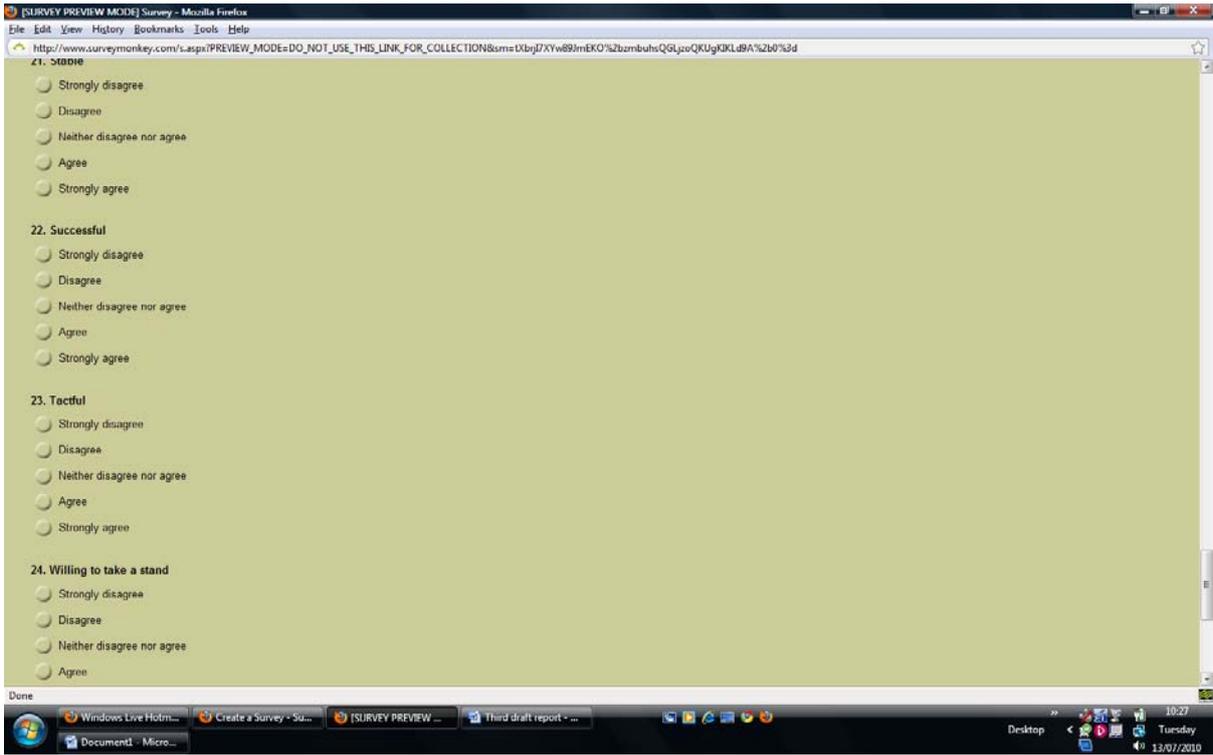
Windows Live Hotm... Create a Survey - Su... [SURVEY PREVIEW ... Third draft report - ...

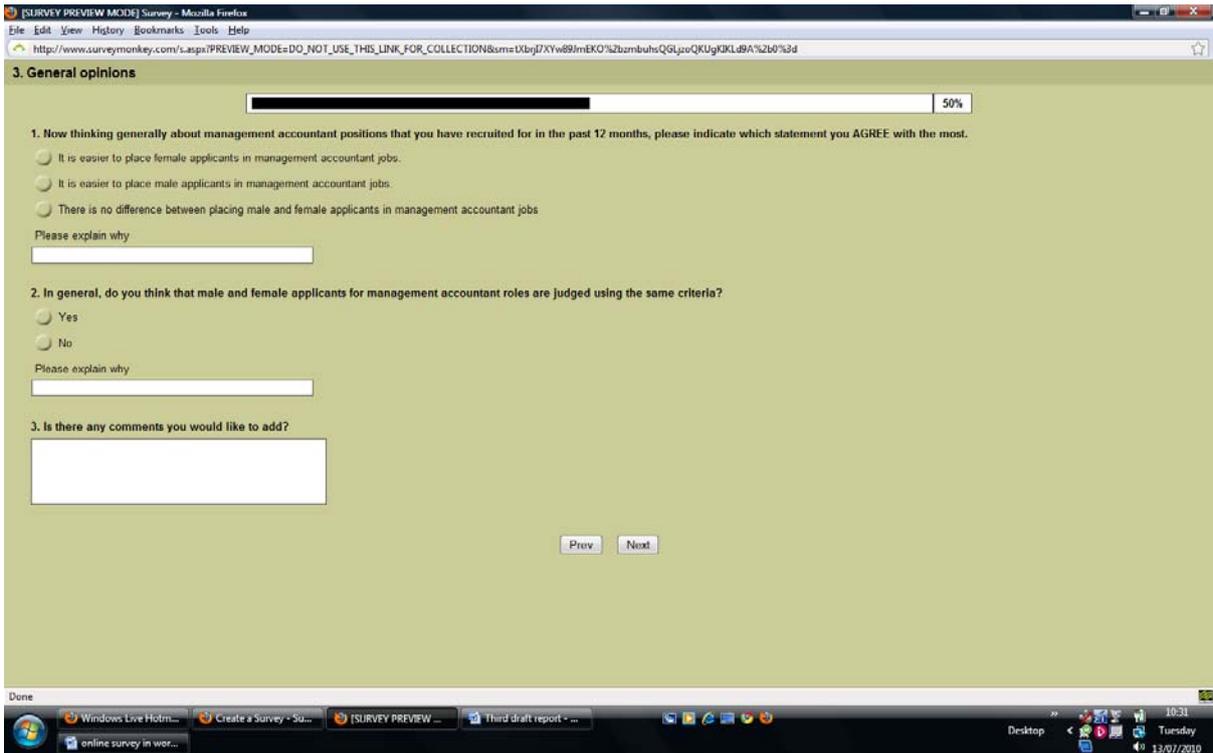
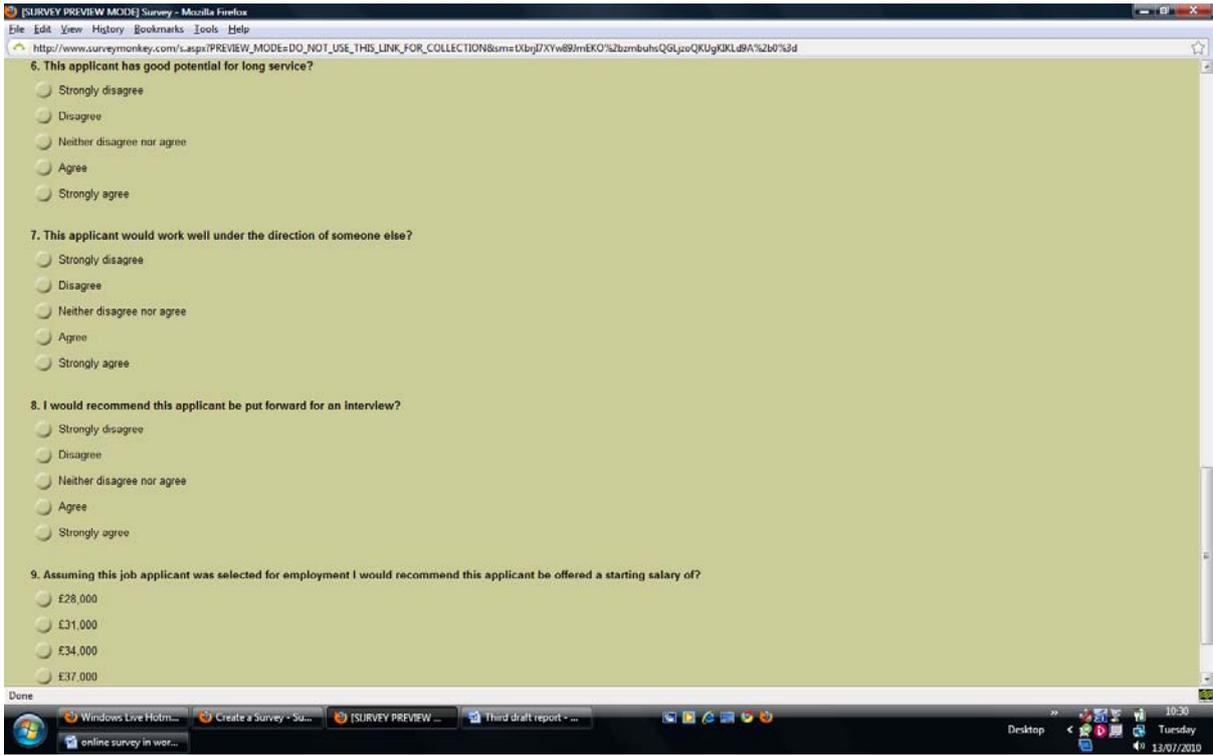
Document1 - Micro...

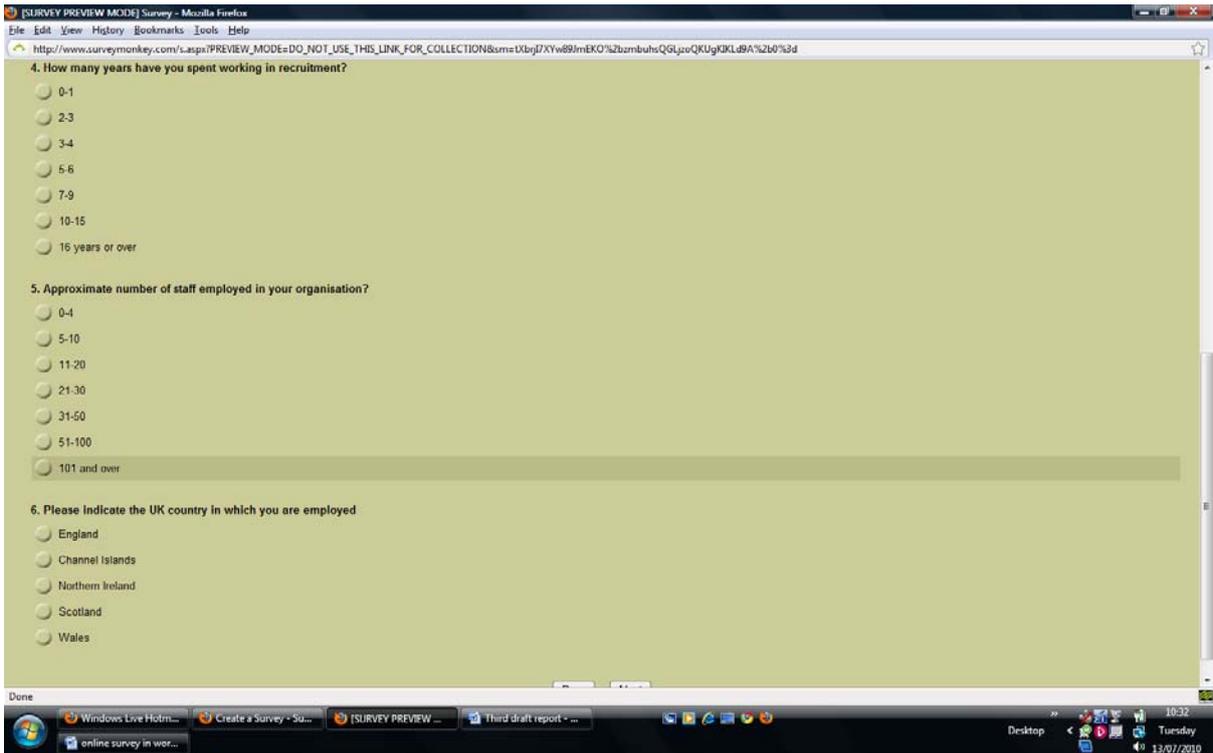
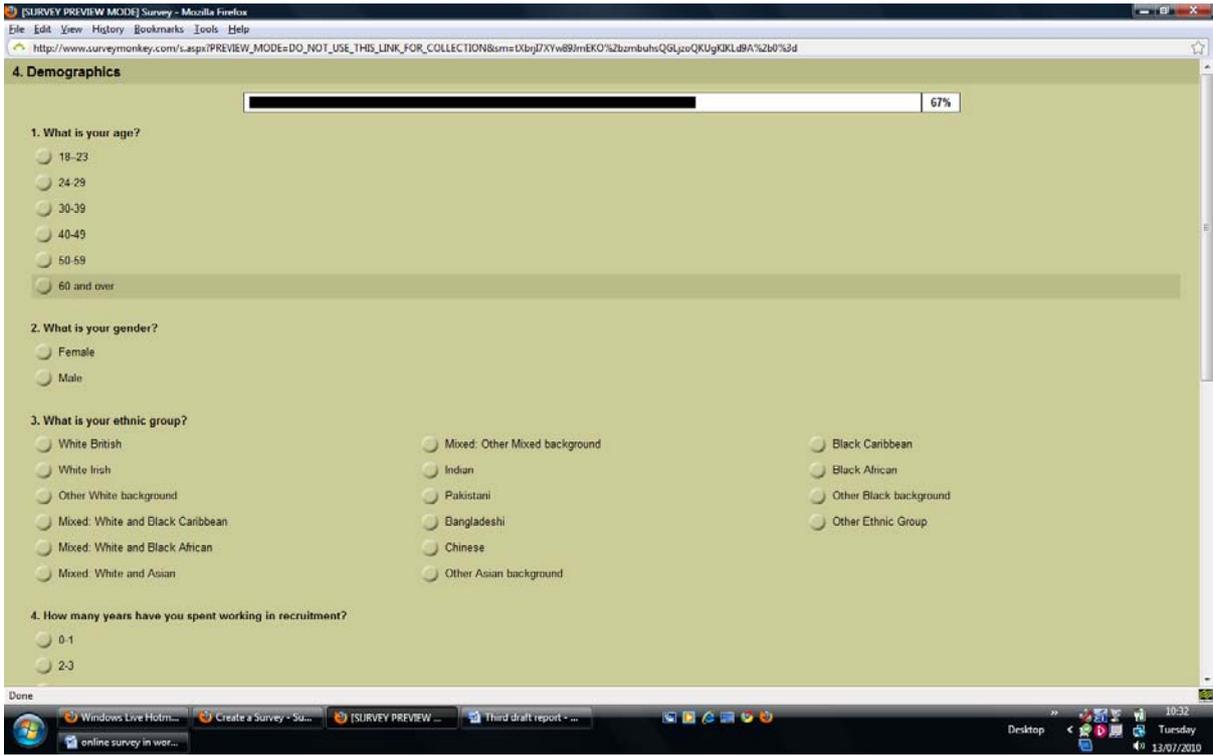
Desktop 10:22 Tuesday 13/07/2010

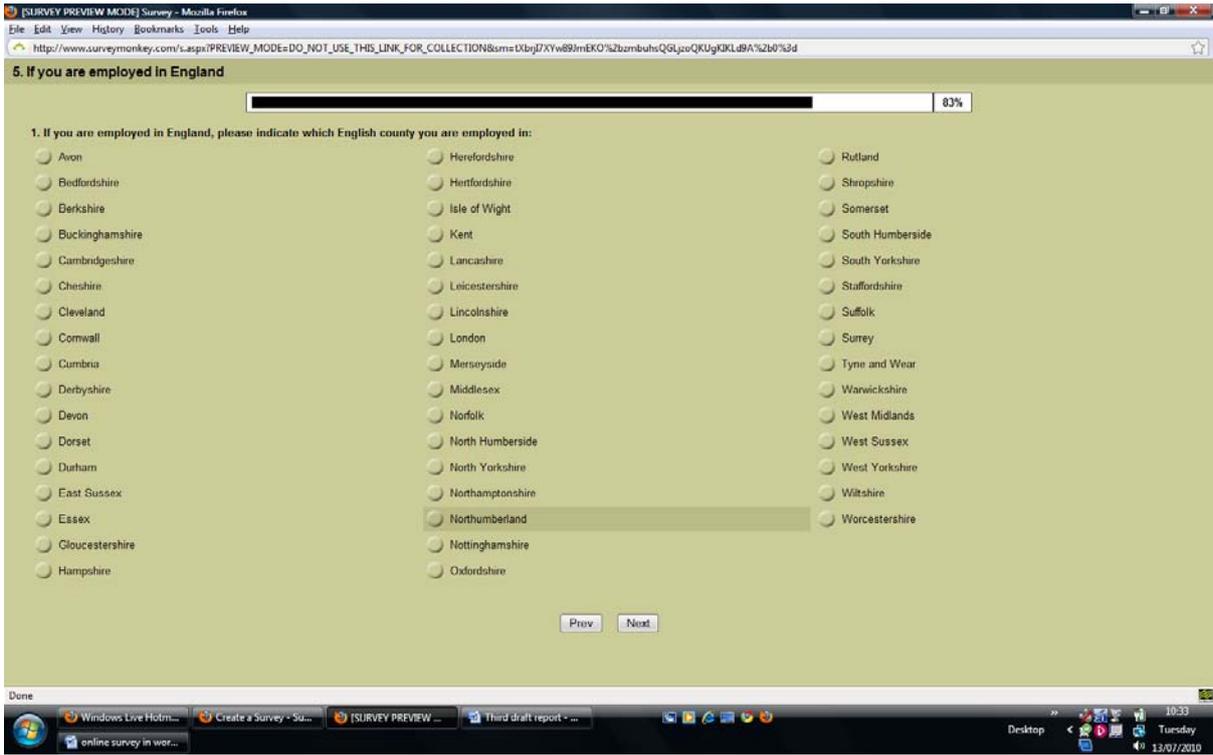












APPENDIX H: Pilot study invitation letter



21 September 2009

Academic research: Pilot study - the views of Recruitment Consultants

My name is Joanna Heke, I am a graduate student studying communication management and I am currently working on my Master of Business thesis through Massey University, New Zealand. **I am researching the influences on recruitment consultants when employment selection decisions can only be based on limited job applicant information.**

I am writing to **invite you to participate** in this important research study. Your contact details were obtained from an online search for UK recruitment consultants on www.yell.com

Following is a job description for the role of management accountant and a job applicant's Curriculum Vitae (including a photograph of the applicant) submitted for consideration for this role. **If you would like to take part in this research please read through the job description and then evaluate the suitability of the applicant for the job by reading through their CV. Then answer the brief questionnaire;** which involves rating the job applicant on a number of personality and employment potential impressions. **Alternatively,** if it is more convenient for you, **you can complete the questionnaire online** by logging on to the Internet and typing the link below into your computer browser.

www.surveymonkey.com/recruit

I would greatly appreciate you taking the time to complete this – **it will take you less than 10 minutes.** Although, please be considerate of your employer and complete the questionnaire in a scheduled break or after work hours. Please note that the job description and the job applicant's CV are fictitious and developed for the purpose of this research only.

As this is a pilot study for a larger research project and I would also be very grateful if you could provide me with your opinions on the curriculum vitae, the job description and the questionnaire by answering a very short feedback assessment. Once you have completed the questionnaire and feedback assessment **please return them in the freepost envelope** provided.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Your responses will be confidential and will be reported only as group data. Your consent to participate in the research will be implied by your completing and returning the questionnaire and feedback assessment. **Please respond by the 16th October 2009 to enable me to meet my reporting deadline.** Your completed questionnaire, once returned to me, will be kept and stored securely for five years, after which time it will be destroyed.

If you have any questions about this research please contact joannaheke@hotmail.com or telephone 07766554265 or contact my supervisors, Marianne Tremaine M.G.Tremaine@massey.ac.nz or Niki Murray n.s.murray@massey.ac.nz.

This is an important study and your co-operation in providing the information will be invaluable. Thank you very much for your time and insight. If you would like to receive a summary copy of the final research results, please do not hesitate to let me know and I will forward them on to you.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "Joanna Heke". The script is cursive and fluid.

Joanna Heke
Massey University

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 09/35. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Karl Pajo, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone 0064 4 801 5799 extension 6929, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz

APPENDIX I: Feedback assessment on pilot study

Feedback assessment on pilot study

Thank you for completing the research questionnaire. This study is a pilot study for a larger research project and **I would be very grateful if you could provide me with some feedback on the curriculum vitae, the job description and the questionnaire by answering the following questions:**

1. How long did it take to read through the curriculum vitae and job description and complete the questionnaire?

2. Did you complete the paper or online questionnaire?

3. Were the instructions given for completing the questionnaire clear and easy to follow?

4. Were any of the questions ambiguous or difficult to answer? If so, please detail which questions and why.

5. Did you have any concerns regarding the curriculum vitae? If so, please explain.

6. Did you have any concerns regarding the job description? If so, please explain.

7. Was the layout of the curriculum vitae, job description and questionnaire clear and easy to follow?

8. Do you have any other comments/suggestions that could improve the research material or the questionnaire? If so, please detail.

Many thanks for your time and input. Please enclose and return this feedback assessment along with the questionnaire in the reply paid envelope provided.

APPENDIX J: First reminder letter



30 November 2009

REMINDER: Please complete your Recruitment Consultant questionnaire

Ten days ago I sent you a letter and a questionnaire pack requesting your participation in an important survey on the influences on recruitment consultants when employment selection decisions can only be based on limited job applicant information.

If you have recently completed and returned the questionnaire please accept my thanks. Since no personal data is retained with the questionnaire for reasons of confidentiality, I am unable to identify whether or not you have already completed the questionnaire.

If you have not yet returned your completed questionnaire I would be most grateful if you could. A previous pilot study showed that it definitely does take less than 10 minutes to complete.

Please mail the questionnaire as soon as possible in the post-paid envelope that was sent with the questionnaire. **If you have misplaced the questionnaire** you can still take part by reviewing the attached fictional job description and job applicant CV and then **logging on to the Internet and typing the link below into your computer browser to complete the questionnaire.**

www.surveymonkey.com/assess

However, please be considerate of your employer and complete the questionnaire in a scheduled break or after work hours.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Your responses will be confidential and will be reported only as group data. Your consent to participate in the research will be implied by your completing and returning the questionnaire. **Please respond by the 23rd December 2009 to enable me to meet my reporting deadline.** Your completed questionnaire, once returned to me, will be kept and stored securely for five years, after which time it will be destroyed. Please note that the job description and the job applicants CV are fictitious and developed for the purpose of this research only.

I am counting on your response.

Te Kunenga
ki Pūrehuroa

Massey University - Department of Communication, Journalism and Marketing
Private Bag 11222, Palmerston North 4442 T +64 6 350 5799 F +64 6 350 5889 www.massey.ac.nz

If you have any questions about this research please contact joannaheke@hotmail.com or telephone 07766554265 or contact my supervisors, Marianne Tremaine M.G.Tremaine@massey.ac.nz or Niki Murray n.s.murray@massey.ac.nz.

This is an important study and your co-operation in providing the information will be invaluable. Thank you very much for your time and insight. If you would like to receive a summary copy of the final research results please do not hesitate to let me know and I will forward them on to you.

Yours sincerely,

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Joanna Heke
Massey University

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APPENDIX K: Second reminder letter



17 December 2009

REMINDER: Please complete your Recruitment Consultant questionnaire

I recently sent you a letter and a questionnaire pack requesting your participation in an important survey on the influences on recruitment consultants when employment selection decisions can only be based on limited job applicant information.

If you have recently completed and returned the questionnaire please accept my thanks. Since no personal data is retained with the questionnaire for reasons of confidentiality, I am unable to identify whether or not you have already completed the questionnaire.

If you have not yet returned your completed questionnaire I would be most grateful if you could. A previous pilot study showed that it definitely does take less than 10 minutes to complete.

Please mail the questionnaire as soon as possible in the post-paid envelope that was sent with the questionnaire. **If you have misplaced the questionnaire** you can still take part by reviewing the attached fictional job description and job applicant CV and then **logging on to the Internet and typing the link below into your computer browser to complete the questionnaire.**

www.surveymonkey.com/surveys

However, please be considerate of your employer and complete the questionnaire in a scheduled break or after work hours.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Your responses will be confidential and will be reported only as group data. Your consent to participate in the research will be implied by your completing and returning the questionnaire. **Please respond by the 15th January 2010 to enable me to meet my reporting deadline.** Your completed questionnaire once returned to me, will be kept and stored securely for five years, after which time it will be destroyed. Please note that the job description and the job applicants CV are fictitious and developed for the purpose of this research only.

I am counting on your response.

Te Kunenga
ki Pūrehuroa

Massey University - Department of Communication, Journalism and Marketing
Private Bag 11222, Palmerston North 4442 T +64 6 350 5799 F +64 6 350 5889 www.massey.ac.nz

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This is an important study and your co-operation in providing the information will be invaluable. Thank you very much for your time and insight. If you would like to receive a summary copy of the final research results please do not hesitate to let me know and I will forward them on to you.

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Joanna Heke
Massey University

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APPENDIX L: Coding key

Coding key

Survey variations for all model conditions

1. Cosmetics, hair up, glasses
2. Cosmetics, hair down, glasses
3. Cosmetics, hair down, no glasses
4. Cosmetics, hair up, no glasses
5. No cosmetics, hair down, glasses
6. No cosmetics, hair down, no glasses
7. No cosmetics, hair up, glasses
8. No cosmetics, hair up, no glasses

Cosmetics

1. Yes
2. No

Eyeglasses

1. Yes
2. No

Hairstyle

1. Hair up
2. Hair down

Personality Impressions

- 1 Strongly disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Neither disagree nor agree
- 4 Agree
- 5 Strongly agree

Salary

- 1 £28,000
- 2 £31,000
- 3 £34,000
- 4 £37,000
- 5 £40,000

Male versus female applicants

- 1 It is easier to place female applicants
- 2 It is easier to place male applicants
- 3 There is no difference in placing male or female applicants

Do you think male and female applicants are judged using the same criteria?

- 1 Yes
- 2 No

Age

- 1 18-23
- 2 24-29
- 3 30-39
- 4 40-49
- 5 50-59
- 6 60 and over

Gender

- 1 Female
- 2 Male

Ethnic group

- 1 White British
- 2 White Irish
- 3 Other white background
- 4 Mixed: White and Black Caribbean
- 5 Mixed: White and Black African
- 6 Mixed: White and Asian
- 7 Mixed: Other mixed background
- 8 Indian
- 9 Pakistani
- 10 Bangladeshi
- 11 Chinese
- 12 Other Asian background
- 13 Black Caribbean
- 14 Black African
- 15 Other Black background
- 16 Other Ethnic Group

Years spent working in recruitment

- 1 0-1
- 2 2-3
- 3 3-4
- 4 5-6
- 5 7-9
- 6 10-15
- 7 16 years or over

Approximate number of staff employed in your organisation

- 1 0-4
- 2 5-10
- 3 11-20
- 4 21-30
- 5 31-50
- 6 51-100
- 7 101 and over

UK country in which you are employed

- 1 England
- 2 Northern Ireland
- 3 Scotland
- 4 Wales
- 5 Channel Islands

If England, the County in which you are employed

- 1 Avon
- 2 Bedfordshire
- 3 Berkshire
- 4 Buckinghamshire
- 5 Cambridgeshire
- 6 Cheshire
- 7 Cleveland
- 8 Cornwall
- 9 Cumbria
- 10 Derbyshire
- 11 Devon
- 12 Dorset
- 13 Durham
- 14 East Sussex
- 15 Essex
- 16 Gloucestershire
- 17 Hampshire
- 18 Herefordshire
- 19 Hertfordshire
- 20 Isle of Wight
- 21 Kent
- 22 Lancashire
- 23 Leicestershire
- 24 Lincolnshire
- 25 London
- 26 Merseyside
- 27 Middlesex
- 28 Norfolk
- 29 North Humberside

30	North Yorkshire
31	Northamptonshire
32	Northumberland
33	Nottinghamshire
34	Oxfordshire
35	Rutland
36	Shropshire
37	Somerset
38	South Humberside
39	South Yorkshire
40	Staffordshire
41	Suffolk
42	Surrey
43	Tyne and Wear
44	Warwickshire
45	West Midlands
46	West Sussex
47	West Yorkshire
48	Wiltshire
49	Worcestershire

Key to variations of online questionnaire

1. Cosmetics, hair up, no glasses = www.surveymonkey.com/recruit
2. Cosmetics, hair up, glasses = www.surveymonkey.com/surveys
3. Cosmetics, hair down, no glasses = www.surveymonkey.com/employment
4. Cosmetics, hair down, glasses = www.surveymonkey.com/questions
5. No cosmetics, hair up, no glasses = www.surveymonkey.com/study
6. No cosmetics, hair up, glasses = www.surveymonkey.com/evaluate
7. No cosmetics, hair down, no glasses = www.surveymonkey.com/assess
8. No cosmetics, hair down, glasses = www.surveymonkey.com/researching

APPENDIX M: Analysis of variance and t-test tables

Table 4

Analysis of Variance: Competence Factor

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	218.732 ^a	7	31.247	1.093	.373	.067	7.648	.451
Intercept	320138.147	1	320138.147	11193.055	.000	.991	11193.055	1.000
Cosmetics	70.544	1	70.544	2.466	.119	.023	2.466	.343
Eyeglasses	6.675	1	6.675	.233	.630	.002	.233	.077
Hairstyle	40.528	1	40.528	1.417	.237	.013	1.417	.218
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses	31.968	1	31.968	1.118	.293	.010	1.118	.182
Cosmetics * Hairstyle	1.344	1	1.344	.047	.829	.000	.047	.055
Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	88.669	1	88.669	3.100	.081	.028	3.100	.415
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	3.268	1	3.268	.114	.736	.001	.114	.063
Error	3031.759	106	28.601					
Total	341968.000	114						
Corrected Total	3250.491	113						

a. R Squared = .067 (Adjusted R Squared = .006)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Table 5

Analysis of Variance: Employment Potential Factor

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	41.410 ^a	7	5.916	1.209	.304	.074	8.465	.498
Intercept	54309.822	1	54309.822	11102.261	.000	.991	11102.261	1.000
Cosmetics	5.629	1	5.629	1.151	.286	.011	1.151	.186
Eyeglasses	.966	1	.966	.198	.658	.002	.198	.073
Hairstyle	1.352	1	1.352	.276	.600	.003	.276	.082
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses	.244	1	.244	.050	.824	.000	.050	.056
Cosmetics * Hairstyle	3.012	1	3.012	.616	.434	.006	.616	.122
Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	30.071	1	30.071	6.147	.015	.055	6.147	.690
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	5.084	1	5.084	1.039	.310	.010	1.039	.173
Error	518.529	106	4.892					
Total	57913.000	114						
Corrected Total	559.939	113						

a. R Squared = .074 (Adjusted R Squared = .013)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Table 6

Analysis of Variance: Salary Recommendations

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	5.174 ^a	7	.739	.510	.825	.033	3.570	.213
Intercept	1385.682	1	1385.682	956.222	.000	.900	956.222	1.000
Cosmetics	1.653	1	1.653	1.141	.288	.011	1.141	.185
Eyeglasses	.216	1	.216	.149	.700	.001	.149	.067
Hairstyle	.042	1	.042	.029	.865	.000	.029	.053
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses	2.214	1	2.214	1.528	.219	.014	1.528	.232
Cosmetics * Hairstyle	.437	1	.437	.302	.584	.003	.302	.085
Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	.166	1	.166	.114	.736	.001	.114	.063
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	.044	1	.044	.030	.862	.000	.030	.053
Error	153.607	106	1.449					
Total	1655.000	114						
Corrected Total	158.781	113						

a. R Squared = .033 (Adjusted R Squared = -.031)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Table 7

Analysis of Variance: Independence Factor

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	25.330 ^a	7	3.619	1.193	.313	.073	8.353	.491
Intercept	20910.921	1	20910.921	6895.493	.000	.985	6895.493	1.000
Cosmetics	8.549	1	8.549	2.819	.096	.026	2.819	.384
Eyeglasses	1.337E-6	1	1.337E-6	.000	.999	.000	.000	.050
Hairstyle	9.015	1	9.015	2.973	.088	.027	2.973	.401
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses	.021	1	.021	.007	.934	.000	.007	.051
Cosmetics * Hairstyle	2.630	1	2.630	.867	.354	.008	.867	.152
Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	.074	1	.074	.024	.876	.000	.024	.053
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	3.265	1	3.265	1.077	.302	.010	1.077	.177
Error	321.450	106	3.033					
Total	22551.000	114						
Corrected Total	346.781	113						

a. R Squared = .073 (Adjusted R Squared = .012)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Table 8

Independent t test for Femininity

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Feminine	Equal variances assumed	3.337	.070	-2.441	112	.016	-.331	.135	-.599	-.062
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.342	64.172	.022	-.331	.141	-.613	-.049

Table 9

Analysis of Variance: Femininity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	12.701 ^a	15	.847	2.004	.022	.235	30.063	.938
Intercept	830.833	1	830.833	1966.515	.000	.953	1966.515	1.000
Cosmetics	.003	1	.003	.006	.936	.000	.006	.051
Eyeglasses	.092	1	.092	.217	.642	.002	.217	.075
Hairstyle	1.654	1	1.654	3.914	.051	.038	3.914	.500
Whatisyourgender	1.410	1	1.410	3.337	.071	.033	3.337	.440
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses	2.856	1	2.856	6.760	.011	.065	6.760	.731
Cosmetics * Hairstyle	.526	1	.526	1.245	.267	.013	1.245	.197
Cosmetics * Whatisyourgender	.458	1	.458	1.084	.300	.011	1.084	.178
Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	.225	1	.225	.533	.467	.005	.533	.112
Eyeglasses * Whatisyourgender	.314	1	.314	.742	.391	.008	.742	.137
Hairstyle * Whatisyourgender	.912	1	.912	2.158	.145	.022	2.158	.307
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	.001	1	.001	.001	.970	.000	.001	.050
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses * Whatisyourgender	.983	1	.983	2.327	.130	.023	2.327	.327
Cosmetics * Hairstyle * Whatisyourgender	.610	1	.610	1.443	.233	.015	1.443	.221
Eyeglasses * Hairstyle * Whatisyourgender	.441	1	.441	1.044	.310	.011	1.044	.173
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses * Hairstyle * Whatisyourgender	.184	1	.184	.435	.511	.004	.435	.100
Error	41.404	98	.422					
Total	1268.000	114						
Corrected Total	54.105	113						

a. R Squared = .235 (Adjusted R Squared = .118)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Table 10

Independent t test for Masculinity

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Masculine	Equal variances assumed	.000	.994	2.906	112	.004	.387	.133	.123	.651
	Equal variances not assumed			3.061	81.447	.003	.387	.126	.135	.638

Table 11

Analysis of Variance: Masculinity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	11.882 ^a	15	.792	1.873	.035	.223	28.093	.918
Intercept	552.210	1	552.210	1305.555	.000	.930	1305.555	1.000
Cosmetics	.003	1	.003	.007	.934	.000	.007	.051
Eyeglasses	.002	1	.002	.004	.949	.000	.004	.050
Hairstyle	1.571	1	1.571	3.714	.057	.037	3.714	.479
Whatisyourgender	2.638	1	2.638	6.236	.014	.060	6.236	.696
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses	.631	1	.631	1.491	.225	.015	1.491	.227
Cosmetics * Hairstyle	.020	1	.020	.048	.827	.000	.048	.055
Cosmetics * Whatisyourgender	.716	1	.716	1.693	.196	.017	1.693	.252
Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	.177	1	.177	.419	.519	.004	.419	.098
Eyeglasses * Whatisyourgender	1.266	1	1.266	2.993	.087	.030	2.993	.403
Hairstyle * Whatisyourgender	1.329	1	1.329	3.141	.079	.031	3.141	.419
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	.427	1	.427	1.009	.318	.010	1.009	.169
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses * Whatisyourgender	.167	1	.167	.395	.531	.004	.395	.095
Cosmetics * Hairstyle * Whatisyourgender	.119	1	.119	.280	.598	.003	.280	.082
Eyeglasses * Hairstyle * Whatisyourgender	.193	1	.193	.457	.501	.005	.457	.103
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses * Hairstyle * Whatisyourgender	.451	1	.451	1.067	.304	.011	1.067	.176
Error	41.451	98	.423					
Total	864.000	114						
Corrected Total	53.333	113						

a. R Squared = .223 (Adjusted R Squared = .104)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Table 12

Analysis of Variance: Attractiveness

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	4.126 ^a	7	.589	1.759	.103	.104	12.310	.689
Intercept	1195.773	1	1195.773	3567.323	.000	.971	3567.323	1.000
Cosmetics	.036	1	.036	.107	.744	.001	.107	.062
Eyeglasses	.244	1	.244	.728	.396	.007	.728	.135
Hairstyle	.157	1	.157	.467	.496	.004	.467	.104
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses	.659	1	.659	1.965	.164	.018	1.965	.284
Cosmetics * Hairstyle	1.923	1	1.923	5.738	.018	.051	5.738	.660
Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	.283	1	.283	.843	.360	.008	.843	.149
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	.002	1	.002	.005	.945	.000	.005	.051
Error	35.531	106	.335					
Total	1313.000	114						
Corrected Total	39.658	113						

a. R Squared = .104 (Adjusted R Squared = .045)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Table 13

Analysis of Variance: 'Work Well Under Direction'

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	3.657 ^a	7	.522	1.347	.236	.082	9.427	.550
Intercept	1430.793	1	1430.793	3688.024	.000	.972	3688.024	1.000
Cosmetics	.690	1	.690	1.778	.185	.016	1.778	.262
Eyeglasses	.000	1	.000	.001	.972	.000	.001	.050
Hairstyle	.043	1	.043	.111	.740	.001	.111	.063
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses	.031	1	.031	.080	.778	.001	.080	.059
Cosmetics * Hairstyle	.179	1	.179	.462	.498	.004	.462	.103
Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	1.856	1	1.856	4.785	.031	.043	4.785	.582
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	1.122	1	1.122	2.893	.092	.027	2.893	.392
Error	41.123	106	.388					
Total	1541.000	114						
Corrected Total	44.781	113						

a. R Squared = .082 (Adjusted R Squared = .021)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Table 14

Independent t test for 'risk-taker'

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			t-test for Equality of Means					
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference					
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Risk-taker	Equal variances assumed	1.121	.292	1.947	112	.054	.270	.139	-.005	.545
	Equal variances not assumed			1.901	66.970	.062	.270	.142	-.014	.553

Table 15

Analysis of Variance: 'Risk-taker'

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	8.757 ^a	15	.584	1.221	.270	.157	18.311	.721
Intercept	517.195	1	517.195	1081.487	.000	.917	1081.487	1.000
Cosmetics	.800	1	.800	1.673	.199	.017	1.673	.249
Eyeglasses	.876	1	.876	1.833	.179	.018	1.833	.268
Hairstyle	.379	1	.379	.793	.375	.008	.793	.143
Whatisyourgender	.720	1	.720	1.505	.223	.015	1.505	.229
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses	.697	1	.697	1.458	.230	.015	1.458	.223
Cosmetics * Hairstyle	.076	1	.076	.159	.691	.002	.159	.068
Cosmetics * Whatisyourgender	2.122	1	2.122	4.436	.038	.043	4.436	.550
Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	.937	1	.937	1.959	.165	.020	1.959	.283
Eyeglasses * Whatisyourgender	.463	1	.463	.967	.328	.010	.967	.164
Hairstyle * Whatisyourgender	.170	1	.170	.356	.552	.004	.356	.091
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	.000	1	.000	.000	.983	.000	.000	.050
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses * Whatisyourgender	.061	1	.061	.128	.721	.001	.128	.064
Cosmetics * Hairstyle * Whatisyourgender	.027	1	.027	.057	.812	.001	.057	.056
Eyeglasses * Hairstyle * Whatisyourgender	.633	1	.633	1.323	.253	.013	1.323	.207
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses * Hairstyle * Whatisyourgender	.078	1	.078	.163	.687	.002	.163	.068
Error	46.866	98	.478					
Total	819.000	114						
Corrected Total	55.623	113						

a. R Squared = .157 (Adjusted R Squared = .028)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Table 16

Analysis of Variance: 'Practical'

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	4.508 ^a	7	.644	1.871	.082	.110	13.096	.722
Intercept	1457.604	1	1457.604	4234.934	.000	.976	4234.934	1.000
Cosmetics	.451	1	.451	1.311	.255	.012	1.311	.206
Eyeglasses	.189	1	.189	.549	.460	.005	.549	.114
Hairstyle	.441	1	.441	1.280	.260	.012	1.280	.202
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses	.862	1	.862	2.504	.117	.023	2.504	.348
Cosmetics * Hairstyle	.085	1	.085	.248	.619	.002	.248	.078
Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	2.650	1	2.650	7.700	.007	.068	7.700	.785
Cosmetics * Eyeglasses * Hairstyle	.178	1	.178	.518	.473	.005	.518	.110
Error	36.484	106	.344					
Total	1581.000	114						
Corrected Total	40.991	113						

a. R Squared = .110 (Adjusted R Squared = .051)

b. Computed using alpha = .05