

CLOTHING VALUES AND CLOTHING BUYING PRACTICES
OF BLACK AND WHITE MIDDLE INCOME WOMEN

by

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Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

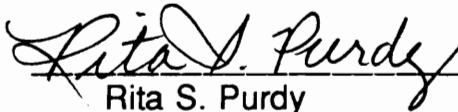
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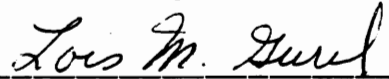
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October, 1990

Blacksburg, Virginia

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(ABSTRACT)

The purpose of this study was to determine if there were differences in clothing values between Black and White middle-income women patronizing the primary and second-order markets, and to determine if there were differences in the clothing buying practices between these groups in the two markets. A self-administered questionnaire was distributed to a purposive sample of 250 Black and White women residing in three metropolitan areas. The clothing values measured were economic, political, religious, and conformity. Eighteen clothing buying practices were included in this study. Nine practices were specifically directed toward the second-order market shoppers.

Variations were found in the rank order of clothing values within the two groups. Blacks ranked the religious value higher and conformity lower than the Whites.

Blacks scored higher on the economic and religious clothing values, while Whites scored higher on conformity.

Significant differences between Black and White middle-income women in their clothing buying practices were found in: (1) the method used to acquire the majority of clothing; (2) the percentage of personal clothing items purchased in primary stores; and (3) buying pattern for a dress costing more than \$50.00.

Significant differences between Black and White middle-income women who used the second-order market were found in: (1) length of time respondents had purchased used-clothing; (2) satisfaction with price when making used-clothing purchases; (3) shopping the Salvation Army, Goodwill, and thrift stores; purchasing of (4) pants; and buying used-clothing to wear for (5) work and (6) school.

Middle-income women who used the primary market exclusively scored higher on the conformity clothing value than did those who used the second-order market.

Black consumers who used the second-order market held higher religious clothing values and lower conformity values than did the White women.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am indebted to numerous people who supported me throughout my doctoral studies. Sincere gratitude is extended to Dr. Barbara Densmore, my committee chair and Professor of Clothing and Textiles at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, who gave me motivation, guidance and unwavering support throughout the completion of my research. In addition, I would like to offer special thanks to my other committee members, Dr. Lois Gurel, Associate Professor of Clothing and Textiles; Dr. Gina Eubanks, Assistant Professor of Clothing and Textiles; Dr. Rita Purdy, Assistant Professor of Clothing and Textiles; and Dr. S.J. Ritchey, Dean of the College of Human Resources for their encouragement, guidance and untiring efforts on my behalf.

Special thanks goes to the Textiles, Fashion Merchandising and Design faculty and staff, and Dean Barbara Brittingham, at the University of Rhode Island. Without their constant support and encouraging words, I could not have had the "pep in my step" needed to fulfill my goal.

I also wish to thank my mother, Betty Harps, and my Uncle, Wilbert Barnes, for their unfailing support and encouragement in order to help me achieve what at times appeared to be an almost impossible undertaking.

Finally, I am deeply indebted to my wonderful husband, Wilburn, my terrific children Gavin, Chancellor, and Chauncey, for without their love, constant support, understanding and patience over the years, I could not have succeeded in my endeavors.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Consumer behavior is influenced by culture (Foxall, 1980; Engel and Blackwell, 1982); clothing buying practices, a component of consumer behavior is, therefore, impacted by culture. Although many definitions of culture exist, the consensus is that "culture" results from learned behavior that is shared and transmitted by members of a distinct group. American culture consists of a large number of subcultures. Subcultures are groups different from the larger society in such factors as status, ethnic background, residence, religion or any other element that makes a group different. The subculture, while rejecting the norms of the larger society, does adhere quite strictly to a distinct set of cultural norms of its own.

Members of one subcultural group that has had a great deal of attention given to it in recent years are the Blacks. Due to slavery, Blacks have lived in the American society since the 17th century.

Another group that has also been the center of much attention, a gender group, is women. Sexism as well as racism has concerned market researchers in numerous studies. The Black woman is unique in that she is a product of both groups, gender and race.

Blacks originally came to this country as slaves, and now comprise approximately 12.3 percent of the population. The Black female has a

rich and interesting history. Because of discrimination in the American society, Black males have been suppressed; therefore, Black women have been the backbone of their families (Rix, 1990; McAdoo, 1978).

It has been suggested that there is a great degree of diversity between Blacks and Whites in terms of cultural background and personality. Blacks differ from Whites in terms of affluence, age distribution, educational background, brand preference and purchasing behavior. It is believed (Maggard, 1971) that a distinct Black market segment does exist and it is a market which is based upon sociological background, cultural history and the color caste system in the American society. Maggard also suggested that other factors such as psychological needs, wants, and frustrations which are the result of employment and income limitations are causes for this distinct market.

Values have long been a center of theoretical attention across many disciplines -- philosophy, education, political science, economics, anthropology, theology, psychology, and sociology. Values are learned from our culture, environment, family and associates. Our values are reflected in the clothing we choose to wear.

Researchers have suggested that personal values play a major role in buying behavior (Pollay, 1983; Howard and Woodside, 1984). Others have found that clothing values are similar to general values (Lapitsky, 1961; Creekmore, 1963; Purdy, 1983). It is believed that values are important

in subcultural investigations because they appear to affect consumer groups in distinctive ways (Anderson, 1986).

Clothing buying practices have been the topic of much discussion among retailers, fashion marketers, educators, and researchers during the last several decades. Clothing is one nondurable commodity that, regardless of the state of the economy, is consistently being purchased by consumers. The American Apparel Manufacturers Association (1985) reported that data on apparel consumption in the United States indicate it is a major market, accounting for over 50 billion dollars per year in consumer expenditures. It is a consumer product that is utilized by all people regardless of race, color or creed. For this reason, it appears that clothing is an ideal consumer product to research cross-cultural differences.

Throughout the years, investigators have focused their attention on the clothing buying behavior of consumers. Although studies have concentrated on both genders, the general consensus has been that females have a tendency to buy more apparel for others as well as for themselves.

Blacks comprise about 12 percent of the United States population (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1984). Although Blacks as an ethnic subculture have received lengthy analysis, little attention has been given to the group's clothing buying practices.

Earlier studies have explored the clothing buying practices of White and Black female consumers but mainly focused on differences in White and Black cultural characteristics in terms of demographics such as educational attainment, occupational status and lower income levels. Very little research has concentrated on the clothing buying practices of Black and White women belonging to the same socioeconomic level.

The second-order market is defined as the store or shop that sells used or secondhand apparel to consumers. This market has been in existence in America since colonial times (Nystrom, 1928). Recently, researchers have compared second-order market practices and strategies with the primary market, noting that consumer buying behavior in the second-order market appears to resemble the buying behavior in the primary market (Yavas, Riecken, and Battle, 1979; Yavas, Clabaugh, and Riecken, 1981). Though the retailing of used clothing has been prevalent for years, only within the last decade have investigators emphasized the impact of this market on other markets.

One of the first studies regarding the purchasing of used clothing was conducted by Winakor and Martin (1963). In this investigation the researchers analyzed yard and rummage sales. Their initial intent was to survey buyers of used apparel, but Winakor and Martin quickly discovered the difficulty of investigating this market due to the lack of "secondhand sales vocabulary and criteria for a stratified sample" (p. 357). Although previous studies have evidenced that consumers in

the second-order market tended to value price and quality of products highly, and that consumers in this market were usually White females, few investigators have focused on the utilization of this particular market by Black female consumers. Previous observations concerning clothing buying practices of Blacks indicated that this group tended to own more garments than Whites, pay more for apparel, receive more hand-me downs and purchase more used-clothing (Braguglia and Rosencranz, 1968).

Focus within the last decade has been on middle-class consumers of used products. Due to the rising Black middle-class and its growing purchasing power, more researchers have begun to evaluate this market as one of the major forces in the U.S. economy (Ness and Stith, 1984; Goldsmith, White and Stith, 1987).

The purpose of this exploratory was two-fold.

1. To determine if there were differences in clothing values between Black and White middle-class women patronizing the primary and second-order markets.
2. To determine if there were differences in the clothing buying practices between Black and White women in the primary and second-order markets.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature relevant to the present study is presented in five categories: (1) Culture, (2) General Values, (3) Clothing Values, (4) Clothing Buying Practices, and (5) Second-Order Market.

Culture

Culture is said to be one of the driving forces of consumer behavior. Being able to identify culturally related differences in consumer behavior is of the utmost interest to behavioral scientists. Murdock (1940), a noted sociologist, insisted that culture is learned, integrative, adaptive, social, implanted, and gratifying. Several years later, Moore and Lewis (1952) constricted Murdock's assumptions and suggested that culture is composed of only two characteristics: (1) culture must be learned by one person and (2) that one person must have acquired this knowledge from at least one other individual. Within each culture there are accepted patterns and ways of acting that are communicated by each member within that specific culture.

The United States is composed of many subcultures. Foxall (1980) claimed that subcultures are essential to marketing because consumer behavior often varies from one to another and "some subcultures are based almost entirely on cultural artifacts which are obtained in the marketing system" (p. 162).

Subcultures are a part of a larger culture, and they may be comprised of an ethnic group, social class group, or regional group (Alexis, 1962; Hirschman, 1980). Subcultural groups are the minority groups within a culture. McCracken (1988) suggested that subcultures are composed of individuals having certain life styles that are characteristic to that specific group. Each group member within a certain subcultural affiliation identifies with the norms, values and attitudes of that particular group.

In the 1960s, Frederick D. Sturdivant (1969) wrote his classic book The Ghetto Marketplace. At that time Sturdivant examined disadvantages of belonging to different subcultural market groups. His findings suggested that certain subcultures such as Blacks, Mexicans, and Puerto Ricans were treated unfairly as consumers. Sturdivant's book helped to promote universal interest in regard to minority consumers. Marketers and social scientists began to stress the importance of subcultures in the marketplace. Thus, it was during this time frame that theories and methodologies were developed concerning this important dimension. Consumer behavior models were created emphasizing the importance of subcultural factors (Sturdivant and Deutscher, 1977).

The Black market segment has been of great importance and interest to researchers since the early 1960s. One reason is because this subcultural group is one of the largest groups of its kind in America.

Although Blacks first trickled across from Africa to America in the 17th century, relatively little examination has been given to their clothing buying practices based on cultural values.

There is evidence that suggests that Blacks in the United States participate in a distinctive culture of their own. It has been said that cultural patterns have enabled Blacks to cope within the American society. For instance McAdoo (1978) and Hirschman (1980) indicated that historic events have revealed that Blacks could not depend on the support of the United States institutions in times of need and have traditionally depended on their families. Therefore, extended families have provided care for mothers, fathers, children and other relatives.

Slavery, as an origin of Black culture prompted the development of slave oriented communities and systems of behavior as a result of certain circumstances. Out of these communities, Blacks began to develop their own cultural patterns based on religion and family relationships, as well as their own attitudinal perceptions about Whites, freedom, and autonomy (Foxall, 1980; McAdoo, 1978). It has been suggested that Blacks participate in a distinctive culture which is shown in their education, music, language, religion and clothing behavior (Billingsley, 1968; Foxall, 1980). Foxall (1980) felt that culturally, one's religious upbringing had a bearing upon how an individual feels, thinks and acts.

Though Foxall felt that religious values impact one's behavior, he suggested that many examiners of subculture frequently make mistakes in accepting the theory that there is a distinct Black subculture in the United States. He argues that there is no single Black market which is evidenced by the differences among educated Blacks living in the North and the rural Blacks residing in the South.

Washington (1987) investigated minority cultural factors and stated from his findings that cultural norms are important factors within each minority group. He felt that the church was one of the most important institutions within the black community because of this group's strong religious beliefs. Washington believed that the church, not the government, shaped the cultural values in many communities.

Barnhill (1967) suggested that cultural influences permeate consumer behavior. These influences are thought to have a lasting effect on each consumer from birth to death. Barnhill said that:

Consumption behavior starts at the breast, or the bottle, or whatever is the culturally accepted mode of feeding a newborn child. Consumption behavior is modified as the human organism develops and as physical, social and psychic values change. . . . the consumer is within a culture and in every case the kind of consumer activities in which people engage are culturally determined (p. 83).

In 1961, Bullock investigated consumer behavior differences among Blacks and Whites. He reported that the Blacks wanted group distinction like their White counterparts. Bullock felt that because of their racial identification, Blacks would tend to always be affiliated with an inferior group, while the White population would be perceived as being superior. This classic study demonstrates the ideology that cultural affiliation has a hierarchy which is based upon the subcultural groups.

Feldman and Star (1968) investigated racial factors in shopping behavior and found that low income Whites were twice as likely as non-white counterparts to participate in in-home shopping by telephone. Wells (1987) examined the cosmetic market for women and discovered that the Black consumers in his study spent more money on cosmetics compared to their White counterparts.

Studies have traditionally compared minority groups on measures standardized on white samples (Bauer and Cunningham, 1970; Bullock, 1961). Cultural and social status differences were sometimes minimized or overlooked. There has been an increasing awareness that ethnic minorities, although physically related to the majority culture, cannot be readily or effectively compared with dominant cultural groups members on conventional assessment measures (Darden, 1977; Hirschman, 1980).

General Values

Throughout America's history, values have been a focus of theoretical attention across many disciplines -- psychology, sociology, philosophy, political science, marketing, home economics, theology and education. Numerous investigators have focused on the personal values held by people in the United States (Rokeach, 1973; Henry, 1976; Hinton and Margerum, 1984). Values have been defined as "one's basic beliefs or ideas about what things are important, desirable, good" (Storm, 1987, p. 317).

Various researchers have established definitions for values. For example Rokeach (1973), a well-noted researcher of values, defined values as "a standard or yardstick to guide actions, attitudes, comparisons, evaluations, and justifications of self and others" (p. 160).

It has been suggested that one's values are similar or different according to such factors as age, sex, education, ethnic background, social class, residence and religious upbringing. Also, family is said to be the first and most pervasive influence upon values (Pollay, 1983).

Bratton (1970) stated that values come from experiences people have as they mature and respond to experiences, to authority and to contacts with other people. Values will change as individuals and their environment change.

Values are said to help give direction and purpose to life (Hill, 1971). They influence behavior by being a foundation for making decisions and choosing goals. Several different values may be involved in each choice or decision. Therefore, individuals place their values in a rank order. This helps them to prioritize their values.

Spranger (1928) was one of the earlier investigators of values. He believed that in order to investigate human behavior, it necessitated studying one's personal values. Spranger finalized his theory by grouping people into six ideal types of men. He felt that even though a person possessed a little of all of the six ideal type traits, each one seemed to possess a particular dominant value. Spranger's six basic values were economic, political, religious, social, theoretical, and aesthetic.

Rokeach (1973) defined a value as a long-term belief that one mode of conduct (instrumental value) or end-state of existence (terminal value) is preferable over other modes of conduct or end-states of existence. He defined instrumental values as individual beliefs which are socially as well as personally accepted in all standpoints with regard to all objects (i.e. self-control, ambition, independence). Rokeach looked at certain ways in which people reached certain goals and termed them terminal values. The terminal values represented factors such as family security, leading an exciting life, pleasure and self-respect. After defining outcome values, Rokeach then assigned instrumental values such as honesty, responsibility, ambition, helpfulness, forgiveness.

It was observed by Rokeach in 1973, that age correlated with personal values. He examined 744 women and 665 men who were 21 years of age or older. Findings indicated that the younger respondents valued wisdom, responsibility, happiness, and love, while older respondents valued true friendship, a comfortable life, forgiveness and cheerfulness. Although Rokeach discovered from his findings that there were differences in the priority of values among the age groups, these differences were not strongly significant. Therefore it was concluded that one's age did not significantly impact one's personal values. Many marketing investigators have used the Rokeach Value Survey (1973) consisting of 18 instrumental values and 18 terminal values.

Ness and Stith (1984) studied middle-class values in Blacks and Whites. Their sample consisted of 25 Black and 25 White professionals. Professionalism was determined by age, education and income. The median age for the White group was 36.5 and 36.8 for the Black counterparts. Blacks in this study had a median income of \$28,500, while the Whites' median income was \$31,700. The White participants had a mean of 6.5 years of college education and Blacks trailed with a mean of 6.0. The researchers utilized Rokeach's values scale containing the 18 terminal values and 18 instrumental values to collect the data. Findings revealed that the Blacks in this study tended to show stronger middle-class values than Whites.

After the development of Spranger's theory in 1928, researchers developed a measure to test this theory's strength or weakness. For example, Allport and Vernon (1931) compared the power of personal values. They used Spranger's six ideal types or classifications to develop The Study of Values. The sample utilized in this study consisted of respondents with college educations or with some education beyond high school. The response technique used was the forced choice method which meant that a higher ranking on one value would cause a lower ranking on another value. Findings indicated that the measures for aesthetic and religious values were the most reliable, while the least reliable was the social value. Allport and Vernon also indicated that gender was found to be significant for the value measure. For example, male and female differences were found to exist. The theoretical, economic, and political values were found to be higher for males and the aesthetic, social and religious values were more important for females.

In 1951, Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey revised the 1931 Study of Values instrument. The change resulted in a rise in the diagnostic ability of the items. Several items were up-dated in terms of rewording and the method of ranking was shortened as well as revised. Although the measure of social value was reported to have low reliability in the 1931 instrument, the revised measure refined this value so it would be more

clear-cut. The researchers also reported that the reliability of the instrument before and after was increased after several changes were made (Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey, 1960).

Clothing Values

Clothing may be a tangible expression of an individual's value system. Though clothing represents only a part of consumer behavior, it may give clues to a person's values.

Horn (1968) theorized that values are not directly observable but they may be identified by noting the choices people make and the kinds of behavior that they reward. Clothing cues may identify one's cultural affiliation (Sproles, 1979; Storm, 1987; Kefgen and Touchie-Specht, 1986). It has been said that clothing is a universal cue of communication.

In every society the social attitudes and values of the people influence conduct and dress. Clothing behavior often reflects a person's acceptance or rejection of his social environment. The hippies of the 1960s dressed in such a way to portray to society that their style of dressing deviated from the norms and showed they valued nonconformity. The Afro hairstyle of the "Black is beautiful" era indicated that Blacks were proud to be affiliated with their cultural heritage.

Some characteristics have been reported as intangible concepts or convictions that have been classified as values. Bratton (1970) lists beauty, prestige, health, security, freedom, leisure, personal relationships, efficiency, and religion as some of the things people consider as values. Clothing values listed by Crekmore (1963) were exploratory, economic, political, aesthetic, social and religious.

It has been suggested that clothing values are a reflection of general values. One of the earlier studies examining the relationship of general values to clothing interests was reported by Cantril and Allport (1933). In this study 159 students representing two Universities were administered the 1931 Allport-Vernon Study of Values instrument, along with a clothing interest questionnaire. Findings indicated that the male respondents did not appear to have a positive relationship between personal values and clothing. Female respondents who ranked high on the economic and aesthetic values were perceived to have high clothing interest scores. On the other hand, women scoring high on theoretical and religious values appeared to rank low in terms of their clothing interest.

Lapitsky (1961) investigated the relationship of clothing values to general values and utilized the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey instrument to measure general values and developed a parallel clothing value measure. The purpose of Lapitsky's research was to examine the "relative importance of the aesthetic, economic, political and social (I and II) values in the clothing behavior patterns of women" (p. 70). The sample in this

investigation consisted of two female groups, one group was composed of 80 teachers and the other group was 80 undergraduate students attending the Pennsylvania State University. Lapitsky believed that the theoretical and religious values were not related to clothing values; therefore, she introduced a new value (social II) which represented conformity, acceptance, and social approval. Lapitsky then developed five clothing values which were aesthetic, economic, political, social I, and social II. Significant findings in this study revealed that positive relationships existed between the general values and the parallel clothing values.

In 1963, Creekmore refined and used Lapitsky's measure to see if there was a relationship between specific general values and clothing interest. Along with these variables, the researcher added striving for basic needs. Creekmore's sample consisted of 300 female college students. The instrument consisted of three parts, which included the AVL Study of Values, a Clothing Interest Inventory and an Activities Measure. Findings revealed that significant relationships did exist between psychological needs, clothing interest, and general values.

Mendoza (1965), another researcher of clothing values, studied the relationship between certain clothing values and certain general values. Her study involved a cross-cultural investigation that compared the clothing values of 160 American University women and 160 Filipino University women. In creating the instrument for her study, Mendoza adapted and expanded six values from Lapitsky's (1961) clothing value

measure and used two of Creekmore's (1963) values (sensuous and exploratory). Eight clothing values were investigated in Mendoza's cross-cultural study. The values were economic, political, social, theoretical, aesthetic, religious, exploratory and sensuous. Findings indicated that differences and similarities within each culture did exist. Mendoza's research is a further indication that clothing values are related to general values. For example, data revealed that positive correlations resulted between seven pairs of clothing values and general values.

Conrad (1973) examined the relationship between personality factors, demographic variables and clothing values. The sample in the study involved college females residing in Canada of French and English descent. Conrad used an instrument which consisted of Mendoza's rendition of Lapitsky's measure; thus the values that held her interest were aesthetic, economic, social, religious, political, theoretical, sensuous, and exploratory. She also included in her research a personality factors measure. Findings revealed that again, similarities as well as differences existed between the two groups. Conrad discovered that within each group, there was a significant difference between theoretical and social values, theoretical and exploratory values, and exploratory and economic values. It should also be noted that Conrad found a significant difference between the religious and political clothing values among the English women.

Purdy (1983) investigated the relationship between clothing values, interpersonal values, and life satisfaction in two generations of Central Appalachian women. Her sample consisted of 211 female respondents, which represented 118 women over 60 years old and 93 high school seniors. All of the subjects resided in central Appalachia. The instruments that Purdy refined and employed included a measure of six clothing values which were based on Lapitsky's (1961) clothing values measure, the Gordon (1960) Survey of Interpersonal Values, and a life satisfaction measurement which was based on the 1961 Neugarten, Havighurst, and Tobin instrument.

Findings revealed that regardless of age, the economic clothing value ranked high for each group. The younger respondents prioritized in the following order, aesthetic, altruism, conformity and political values, whereas the older women ranked economic and religious clothing values higher. Purdy also established that differences in values across the age groups did exist, but similarities prevailed as well. Purdy's study also indicated that general values are parallel to clothing values.

Researchers have indicated that one's personal values are indicative of the individual's clothing values. Numerous investigations have examined personal and clothing values, but few have studied the values of Blacks as a cultural group.

Clothing Buying Practices

Clothing buying practices have been a topic of much interest among researchers. A few studies, within the last decade, have investigated social class differences in apparel behavior and store selection of Blacks and Whites. Earlier observations pertaining to clothing buying practices of Blacks were based on the researcher's restricted observations that were obtained while comparing purchasing behavior of White and Black females. Studies prior to 1980 seemed primarily to investigate low-income female consumers.

It has been evidenced that women are the principal purchasers of clothing within households. Numerous studies which have focused on the clothing buying practices of women have found that these practices are related to socioeconomic class (Burns, 1964; Cotrone, 1967). It has been noted by Stone and Form (1957) that among women from all socioeconomic levels, the middle-class women knew exactly what they planned to purchase when shopping for clothing.

Due to the increase in the number of working women within the last decade, observers of clothing behavior have focused their attention on professional women. Apple (1986) attempted to obtain information about the clothing selection and buying behavior of professional women. This study explicitly recognized and examined these professionals' apparel life styles, types of retail outlets shopped, their use of fashion information sources, store attributes desired, and the relationship of

these factors to specific demographic variables. Significant findings in this study revealed that economic clothing values were rated highly by these women in making their clothing purchasing decisions. Women scoring high on economic values were inclined to pay less for suits and spend less on clothing yearly than did women scoring lower on economic values. It was also found that these professional respondents frequently patronized discount, department and specialty stores.

Researchers have suggested that Blacks differ from Whites in terms of wealth, purchasing patterns, brand choice, and media usage (Assael, 1984; Glasser and Moynihan, 1975; Hiltz, 1970). Classic marketing studies exist pertaining to Black-White purchasing behavior (Edwards, 1932; Humes, 1947; Alexis, 1962; Bauer and Cunningham, 1970; Gibson, 1978). Although each of these studies did not identify product buying behavior, each reported that the Blacks in their investigations spent more money on clothing in proportion to their incomes than they spent on other important goods.

Previous clothing studies comparing Blacks and Whites seemed primarily to investigate low-income consumers (Braguglia and Rosencranz, 1968; Hunter, 1967). Braguglia and Rosencranz (1968) investigated the clothing buying practices of 40 Black and 40 White low-income women in Columbia, Missouri. They concluded that Blacks tended to pay more for clothing, own more garments, receive more hand-me downs and purchase more used clothing than the White sample. Braguglia and Rosencranz

also reported that more Whites than Blacks were aware of fiber content of garments. Data revealed that both groups shopped department stores more frequently than any other type of retail outlet.

Smith (1974) researched a sample consisting of 144 Black professional women in South Louisiana. The term professional meant that each female in the sample held a Bachelor of Science degree or higher. Smith measured fashion preferences and clothing buying practices. Findings indicated that the Blacks in her study purchased the majority of their clothing in department and specialty shops but did not value clothing as a status symbol. This was indicative that this sample of women felt the political clothing value had little importance.

Edmonds (1979) examined the clothing buying behavior of 578 employed Black and White females in Washington, D.C. She concluded from her findings that significant Black-White differences did exist in regard to shopping frequency and store patronage. Edmonds' research also suggested that more Blacks than Whites were fashion conscious with the White group appearing to be more conservative. It was concluded in Edmonds study that differences in race and lifestyle impacted significantly on one's clothing buying practices.

Samli and Edmonds (1987) hypothesized that the Black females in their investigation would tend to be "attribute oriented" while the White females would be inclined to be more "activity oriented". The investigators defined "attribute orientation" as placing importance on

certain store attributes such as display windows, sales personnel, promotional sales, and impulse buying. "Activity orientation" was described as the importance that an individual attaches to such factors as decision making and self-reliance. Findings supported their hypothesis by revealing that the Black respondents were inclined to be more impulsive, more impressed by window displays, and were influenced by sales people to a higher degree than were the Whites.

The 1960s prompted a multitude of researchers to examine the consumption patterns of Black consumers (Alexis, 1962; Bauer and Cunningham, 1970; Olandipupo, 1970). Numerous investigations have attempted to examine buying behavior of Blacks, but few have explored the clothing buying practices of Blacks and not treated this group as a homogeneous one.

Studies have addressed the impact of social class on consumer behavior. Marketers have studied social class in order to determine the strategy for a particular market segment (Coleman, 1983; Engel, Blackwell and Miniard, 1986; Assael, 1987). In recent years, the many problems accompanying the clothing consumption behavior of Blacks have been acknowledged (Smith, 1974; Harps, 1976; Edmonds, 1979; Samli, Tozier and Harps, 1978; Samli, Tozier and Harps, 1980).

Harps (1976) investigated the clothing buying practices of 141 unmarried Black women in the Washington, D.C. metropolitan area, from three different social classes. She observed that the upper-middle

class females compared to those in the upper-lower class were not inclined to preplan the price to pay for garments. It was reported that the upper-middle class Black women placed emphasis on clothing to indicate one's social status or to give the wearer self-assurance. Thus, in this study the political clothing value appeared to be important to Black women.

Social class differences in the clothing buying behavior of single, professional Black women were analyzed by Samli, Tozier, and Harps (1978). The 141 respondents were single and between the ages of 18 and 40 years old. The females were all employed in Washington, D.C. Significant findings indicated that regardless of the social class, the sample did not preplan the cost of apparel purchases. Data suggested that even though the sample consisted of women from different social classes, there were no significant differences in this aspect of their clothing buying behavior.

Samli, Tozier, and Harps (1980) reported on social class differences in the store selection process of single Black, professional women. The store choices involved were department stores, discount stores, and specialty shops. Findings indicated that the Black sample stressed store characteristics more than information search in choosing retail outlets to purchase apparel. Findings also revealed that these Black single females preferred to shop in discount and department stores more so than specialty shops.

Second-Order Market

The clothing buying behavior of consumers in the second-order retail market has gained increased attention within the last several years. A review of literature has indicated that the racial and personal background of users of second-hand stores have often been ignored.

The second-order market has been a part of the American culture since the colonial period. It prospered before the industrial revolution and has played a prominent role in American history during wars and periods of economic depression and recession (Yavas, Clabaugh and Riecken, 1981).

Researchers have implied that shopping motives and buying behavior of secondhand merchandise consumers are analogous to those using the primary market (Dovell and Healy, 1977; Yavas, Clabaugh and Riecken, 1981). The second-order market compared to the primary market (department stores, discount stores, factory outlets, specialty stores) has generally lacked a clear formal structure.

Second-order retailers can be classified according to their orientations, profit versus nonprofit, and permanent versus temporary (Dreyfus, 1980; Yavas, Riecken and Clabaugh, 1982). Therefore, secondhand stores such as Goodwill are permanent, nonprofit retailers, while consignment and other used-merchandise retailers are identified as permanent profit

retailers, and garage sales and flea markets are defined as temporary or noncontinuous, profit retailers.

Yavas, Riecken and Battle (1979) found that two important motives for buying used merchandise were price and quality. Gatlin (1980) further supported findings that second-order market users rated price and quality highly. An analysis of data has also shown that price and quality are two important motives in purchasing goods among primary market consumers (Britton, 1975; Rucker, 1981).

It has been suggested that consumers of the second-order market are bargain hunters. Dovell and Healy (1977) discovered that approximately 75 percent of the garage sale shoppers in their study attempted to bargain for lower prices, while 33 percent tried to negotiate a 50 percent reduction in price.

Although the second-order market has existed since colonial times, little research has focused on the consumers of this market. Earlier studies (Brewton, 1973; Braguglia and Rosencranz, 1968) have suggested that low-income consumers utilize this market due to price.

One of the first attempts to survey consumers of used clothing was a study by Winakor and Martin (1963). The purpose of this investigation was to analyze yard and rummage sales. The researchers quickly discovered difficulty in assessing this market due to a lack of used-merchandise vocabulary. Therefore, Winakor and Martin created a

secondhand clothing sales category and reported particulars of the sales.

Major findings from Winakor's and Martin's study were:

- (1) Sales were given throughout the year, mainly in the Spring and Fall.
- (2) Sellers sold more infant's clothing than children's and adult's apparel.
- (3) Sellers found it difficult to price clothing.

One research study (Rucker, 1981) examined the thrift shop market which is a permanent profit-oriented, second-order retailer. Rucker's purpose was to define this market and observe the users of clothing and textile products. It was concluded that clothing was a significant thrift store product. The shoppers were also fashion conscious in that they valued fashionability of items.

Richardson (1982) theorized that used-clothing is consumed largely by middle to upper-income consumers rather than lower to middle-income consumers. The majority of the sample that she investigated at that time had incomes of \$17,000 or more. A significant finding was that the primary reason people patronized secondhand retailers was to save money.

During the early 1980s, garage sales were so widespread that Herrmann and Soiffer (1984) wrote an article from their research classifying garage sales holders and garage sale shoppers. They felt that the second-order market has a stronger inclination to attract middle-income consumers rather than low-income users.

Morrow (1985) investigated purchasers and consignors of used clothing in consignment shops. Significant findings indicated that purchasers and consignors had more similarities than differences. Friends were found to be the advertising media for the consignment stores.

The clothing buying behavior of consumers in the second-order market has gained increased attention with in the last decade. A review of literature has indicated that the racial and personal background of consumers buying in secondhand stores have often been ignored. Therefore, research is limited concerning the clothing buying practices of Blacks.

CHAPTER III

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This section of the study includes the following sections: (1) Specific Statement of the Problem, (2) Assumptions, (3) Definitions of Terms, (4) Theoretical Framework, (5) Hypotheses, and (6) Scope and Limitations.

Specific Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this exploratory was two-fold.

1. To determine if there were differences in clothing values between Black and White middle-class women patronizing the primary and second-order markets.
2. To determine if there were differences in the clothing buying practices between Black and White women in the primary and second-order markets.

Assumptions

1. Clothing values are indicative of general values.
2. There are individual differences in the emphasis placed on clothing and these differences can be measured.
3. Consumer buying practices are influenced by race.

Definitions of Terms

The following terms are defined with implications particularly for this study.

Values

Values are defined as basic beliefs or ideas about what things are important, desirable, or good.

Clothing Values

The instrument developed for this study was a partial adaptation of Purdy's clothing values (1983). Therefore, the definitions of the clothing values used were those that were defined by Lapitsky (1961) and Mendoza (1965). Clothing values indicate the "wishes, desires, interests, motives or goals which an individual considers worthwhile" (Lapitsky, 1961, p. 3).

The values used in this study were:

Economic. "The desire for the practical in the conservation of time, energy and money in relation to clothing use and selection" (Mendoza, 1965, p. 4).

Political. "The desire for obtaining prestige, distinction, leadership or influence through clothing usage" (Mendoza, 1965, p. 4).

Religious. "The expressing of a man's deepest values or the expression of his relation to some larger scheme as is found in the functional use of clothing. Desire for spiritual values" (Mendoza, 1965, p. 4).

Conformity. "The desire for obtaining social approval through clothing usage with conformity playing a prominent role" (Lapitsky, 1961, p. 4).

Clothing Buying Practice

In this study clothing buying practices include all clothing purchasing activities such as types of retail outlets shopped, types of apparel purchased and the number of times one shops for clothing.

Middle-Income Level

For the purpose of this study, middle-income was defined as having a total household income of \$25,000-79,999 per year.

Primary Market

Primary market was defined as the retail outlets that sell new or unused goods directly to the ultimate consumers.

Second-Order Market

The second-order market consists of all the used clothing retail outlets. This market includes retailers such as consignment stores, thrift stores, garage or yard sales. This market is also referred to as the secondhand market.

Theoretical Framework

Culture has been said to have an impact on general values. Within a culture there are subcultures which are groups that hold strong ideas, beliefs, and values. It is evident that subcultural values do exist in the

United States. Blacks belong to a subculture and are said to hold certain ideas and beliefs that are particular to their culture which are different from that of other subgroups. The church has been the focal point for this subcultural group. Without these religious convictions, the Black family would have been unprepared to rise against poverty, and discrimination. Washington (1987) and Foxall (1980) reported that Blacks in the United States displayed stronger religious and family values than the White population. Ness and Stith (1984) stated that the middle-class Blacks of the 1980s possessed more traditional middle-class values than the White middle-class. Theorists have stated that the "mainstreaming effect" of the Black consumer market segment has led to Blacks possessing stronger traditional, White values (Goldsmith, White and Stith, 1987).

Findings (Lapitsky, 1961) have established that general values are parallel with clothing values. Mendoza (1965) and Conrad (1973) found this to be true in their studies. After examining both general and clothing values, Mendoza reported that similarities existed as well as differences between her sample of American and Filipino university women. Conrad (1973) studied Canadian women of different descents. Although the samples in this study were of the same race, but different descent, it was concluded that differences and similarities did exist.

Clothing buying behavior is an aspect of consumer behavior that is readily observed. Studies have reported that differences do exist in the purchasing practices of Black and White low-income women (Braguglia and Rosencranz, 1968; Murphy, 1972). Edmonds (1979) found that there were differences as well as similarities regarding the clothing buying practices of Black and White professional women. Although Harps (1976) sample was composed of all Blacks, differences were found among the women within different social classes.

During the last decade, the second-order market has been an important phenomenon among consumers of clothing. The topology for second-order retailers can be either temporary, permanent, profit, or nonprofit. Yavas, Riecken and Clabaugh (1982) examined consumer purchasing behavior within the second-order market and found the purchasing behavior of these consumers to be similar to that of consumers within the primary market. Therefore, if differences exist between the two groups for the primary market, they may exist for the second-order market. Previous studies have reported that consumers in the second-order market placed a higher value on price and quality than did consumers in the primary market. It has been reported that users of the second-order market have been mostly White females within the lower-income range (Burns, 1964; Richardson, 1982), but little research on Black middle-income women has been reported.

In the 1960s, Winakor and Martin (1963) attempted to survey consumers of secondhand clothing but failed for lack of consistent terminology. Therefore, these researchers developed a method to classify the sales as profit-oriented or nonprofit-oriented and temporary or occasional. In 1984, Herrmann and Soiffer published an article from their research on the second-order market. In this research users and buyers within this specific market were categorized. As far as income was concerned, Herrmann and Soiffer stated that the second-order market was more apt to attract middle-income buyers.

Henry (1976) a marketing researcher indicated in this report that when socioeconomic status was controlled, Blacks appeared to show traits similar to their White counterparts. It has also been suggested that middle-class Blacks exhibit stronger American values than middle-class Whites (Frazier, 1957; Darden, 1977).

The review of literature provides evidence that values are determined by cultural or ethnic affiliation and general values parallel clothing values. The studies reviewed have established that general values impact clothing buying practices; thus, clothing values may influence the usage of primary and second-order markets.

This study has been designed to explore the differences in clothing values between Black and White middle-income women and to investigate their clothing buying practices. It is predicted that differences will occur between the two racial groups.

Hypotheses

Based on the assumptions and the theoretical framework, six hypotheses were formulated.

Hypothesis 1. Within the two groups, there will be variations in the rank order of the clothing values.

Hypothesis 2. There will be differences in the clothing values between Black and White middle-income women.

Hypothesis 3. There will be differences between the Black and White middle-income women on the following clothing buying practices:

- A. Method of clothing acquisition
- B. Most important factor considered in making purchasing decisions
- C. Specific proportion of income planned for clothing purchases
- D. Frequency of shopping primary stores
- E. Percentage of personal clothing items purchased in primary stores
- F. Buying pattern for dress costing less than fifty dollars
- G. Buying pattern for dress costing more than fifty dollars
- H. Influence of merchandise displays
- I. Influence of special sales

Hypothesis 4. There will be differences between Black and White middle-income women who use the second-order market on the following clothing buying practices:

- A. Reason for purchasing used-clothing
- B. Length of time purchasing used-clothing
- C. Percentage of personal clothing purchased in used-clothing stores
- D. Frequency of shopping used-clothing stores
- E. Satisfaction with price of used-clothing
- F. Satisfaction with quality of used-clothing
- G. Patronage of garage sales
- H. Patronage of vintage/antique stores

- I. Patronage of secondhand stores
- J. Patronage of Salvation Army, Goodwill, Thrift stores
- K. Purchasing of pants
- L. Purchasing of skirts
- M. Purchasing of blouses
- N. Purchasing of dresses
- O. Purchasing of undergarments
- P. Purchasing of suits
- Q. Purchasing of coats
- R. Purchasing of accessories
- S. Wearing used-clothing for relaxing at home
- T. Wearing used-clothing for work
- U. Wearing used-clothing for school

Hypothesis 5. There will be differences in clothing values between middle-income women who use the primary market exclusively and those who use the second-order market.

Hypothesis 6. There will be differences in clothing values between Black and White middle-income women who use the second-order market.

Scope and Limitations

The study was limited to middle-class Black and White female respondents residing in one of the three metropolitan areas chosen for data collection. The areas were Washington, D.C.; Providence, Rhode Island; and Boston, Massachusetts. Criteria included the usage of second-order and primary retail outlets.

CHAPTER IV

PROCEDURE

The procedure for this study is divided into four sections: (1) Selection and Development of the Measures, (2) Selection of the Sample, (3) Method of Data Collection, and (4) Statistical Treatment of the Data.

Selection and Development of the Measures

The instrument consisted of three sections: (1) Clothing Values, (2) Personal Clothing Buying Practices, and (3) Demographic Information.

Clothing Values

The first section of the questionnaire measured clothing values. This measurement was an adaptation and revision of Purdy's (1983) clothing value instrument. Purdy's measure was based on Lapitsky's (1961) Clothing Values instrument.

Although Purdy's instrument consisted of six clothing values (aesthetic, economic, political, religious, altruism, and conformity), the researcher in this study purposely chose to measure only four clothing values. They were: (1) religious, (2) political, (3) economic, and (4) conformity. Earlier research revealed that political, religious, economic, and conformity factors were highly prioritized by the Black market segment (Foxall, 1980; Hirschman, 1980; Washington, 1987).

The final instrument, a survey questionnaire, included an adaptation of Purdy's (1983) items. Some of the items were without modifications and several items had editorial modifications (See Section I, Appendix A). Nine items were assigned to each of the four values being investigated; thus, a total of 36 items were included in this instrument.

In choosing the 36 items, the researcher first reviewed Purdy's six values and the 15 items that were assigned to each of these values in her study. For the purpose of this study, the researcher was only interested in the items pertaining to the religious, political, economic, and conformity values. Since Purdy's item analysis included correlations, the researcher chose nine items for each clothing value by prioritizing them according to the strength of their correlations.

After selecting nine items representing each clothing value, triads were created to insure that the items were not repeated in the instrument. The researcher randomly chose the group orders so that the triads would fall in different orders.

The final items used in this instrument were grouped in three's and respondents were asked to select the most important, choose one as least important, and leave one of the three statements blank. An example of value statements used in the directions for responding to the instrument is as follows:

	MOST IMPORTANT	LEAST IMPORTANT
To have a hot meal at noon	<u> X </u>	<u> </u>
To have a good night's sleep	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
To get plenty of fresh air	<u> </u>	<u> X </u>

Personal Clothing Buying Practices

The section that measured personal clothing buying practices was developed by the researcher although Harps' (1976) personal clothing buying practices measure was used as a guide. For the purpose of this study the researcher defined clothing buying practices as including all clothing purchasing activities such as type of retail outlets shopped, types of apparel purchased and the number of times one shops for clothing.

Eighteen clothing buying practices were included in this study. Among the 18 clothing buying practices, nine were specifically directed toward the second-order market shoppers. Therefore, the consumers using the secondhand market were to answer all 18 clothing buying practices questions while the users of the primary market only, needed to respond to only ten practices in this section. Closed-ended questions were developed for data collection because it is felt that closed-ended questions require fewer instructions than open-ended items and could be completed more readily. Refer to questionnaire, Section II, Appendix A.

Demographic Information

Questions in this section were developed to gather background information from the sample. Data were collected to obtain information in relation to race, age, education, marital status, number of people in household, total household income and employment. This information was desired to ascertain if the two groups were similar and to provide information to help explain possible differences (Section III, Appendix A).

Earlier observations have indicated the clothing buying practices differ between Black and White women with low income levels (Hunter, 1967; Cotrone, 1967), but little research has been published showing differences between the two groups for middle-income consumers. Therefore, the researcher in this study investigated Black and White females with a total household income in the \$25,000-79,999 range. Although recent data have indicated that there is disparity among incomes of the two races (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, January 1989), it was felt that this income range was high enough to be well above poverty level and was representative of the United States median annual income within the current decade (See Table 22, Appendix B).

Pretesting

A preliminary survey was conducted in March 1989 to pretest the first constructed survey. A twelve page questionnaire was used to obtain data from 40 respondents. Out of the 40 participants, 20 were

Black females, and 20 were White females. This pretest sample was felt to be representative of the target subjects. Data produced from the pretest indicated that the original questionnaire, which contained all six of the values in Purdy's (1983) study with fifteen items for each value, was too long. The majority of the respondents complained of fatigue and that there were too many items to consider. After pretesting, the items were reduced to 36 and only four of the six values from Purdy's instrument were included. It was also necessary to reword some of the clothing buying practice questions at this time. Several questions were eliminated because the researcher felt they had no purpose for this study.

After refining and modifying the original questionnaire, it was again pretested. Cronbach's coefficient alpha index of reliability was used to determine the internal consistency for the items on the clothing values in the pretest. Results were: religious (.60), political (.68), economic (.62), and conformity (.56). The researcher was able to pretest this survey in the locality of several used-clothing stores and inside two shopping malls. The sample consisted of 40 Black and 40 White participants. From the second pretest, information was obtained on the time of completion and clarity of the survey. It was necessary to make editorial modifications on the section that contained questions concerning clothing buying practices.

Selection of the Sample

The sample in this study consisted of 250 females residing in three metropolitan areas. These areas were Washington, D.C.; Providence, Rhode Island; and Boston, Massachusetts. Among the sample of 250, there were 125 Black and 125 White respondents. Within the two groups, there were 50 Black and 50 White respondents that shopped secondhand retail outlets as well as the primary market. Since the goal of the research was to compare Black and White females, it was necessary to eliminate those who did not meet this criterion. Laws mandated that researchers do not discriminate when distributing questionnaires within shopping malls. Therefore, the investigator had to distribute questionnaires to consumers of other races. Afterwards, only surveys obtained from Black and White females were used to obtain data for this specific study. Another standard was that the respondents had to be in the middle-income range as determined by the researcher. Data that were collected from respondents not meeting the criteria were set aside for future investigations.

Purposive sampling was utilized in the selection of the sample. Purposive sampling is nonprobability sampling that is characterized by the use of judgment and is a deliberate effort to obtain a representative sample by including presumably typical groups in the sample (Kerlinger 1973). Therefore, the researcher visited shopping malls as well as secondhand store locations in order to find the appropriate sample.

Problems arose in finding individuals who fitted the desired sample criteria. For example, the researcher had great difficulty in finding an ample number of Black respondents. This meant that the investigator had to obtain Black participants from more than one metropolitan area. Questionnaires were also eliminated because some respondents (133) either had incomes that were too low or too high to be included in the study. Interestingly, the Black sample comprised the majority of the too high incomes while several White respondents had incomes that did not reach the desired range.

Method of Data Collection

A questionnaire was used to collect the data. Dillman (1978) suggests that in surveying a minority population a face-to-face survey is an ideal choice. Face-to-face surveys are defined as surveys that are handed out to the respondents by the researcher. This method also enables the surveys to be completed on the spot.

Since preestablished criteria were used to select respondents, the researcher decided that a questionnaire handed directly (face-to-face) to the participants was the most expedient method. This provided the researcher with the assurance that the race, sex, and market criteria were adequately met.

Statistical Treatment of the Data

The data obtained were coded and keyed into the Number Cruncher Statistical System (NCSS, 1989) which is a statistical analysis software package.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test Hypotheses 1 and 2 which dealt with differences between Black and White women on the basis of their clothing values. This statistical analysis is defined as "an inferential statistical procedure which compares groups in terms of the mean scores " (Huck, Cormier, and Bounds 1974, p. 58).

The t-test was also used to test Hypotheses 1 and 2. The t-test has the same purpose as a one-way analysis of variance, as it compares the means of the two groups. The difference in the t-test and the ANOVA is that the t-test compares two groups while one-way ANOVA can be used to compare two or more groups.

Cross tabulations were used to analyze data for Hypotheses 3 and 4. These hypotheses dealt with differences between Black and White women on the basis of their clothing buying practices and their usage of the second-order market. The independent samples chi-square test is a statistical analysis for determining the significance of differences between two or more independent samples. This test is used "in determining whether or not the observations are significantly different from what might be expected by chance" (Huck, Cormier, and Bounds, 1974, p. 218).

Hypotheses 5 and 6 involved differences between Black and White women on the basis of their clothing values and usage of the primary versus second-order markets. One-way analysis of variance was employed to compare the means. T-tests were also utilized in order to determine the significance of the difference between two means.

The .05 and .01 probability levels were used to reject the null hypotheses. Cross tabulations were employed on responses to demographic questions for descriptive purposes. Differences between Blacks and Whites were determined for five specific demographic variables. These were: (1) age, (2) education level, (3) marital status, (4) household income and (5) employment status.

CHAPTER V FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This Chapter presents a discussion of the data that were collected from respondents who met the criteria established for the study. The findings are presented under five major sections. (1) Background Information, (2) Clothing Values, (3) Clothing Burying Practices of the Primary Market Users, (4) Clothing Buying Practices of the Second-Order Market Users and (5) Clothing Values Related to Market Usage.

Background Information

The participants in this study consisted of 250 women that resided in three Northeastern Metropolitan areas. Of the 250 respondents, 125 were Black and 125 were White. While all 250 of the participants in the study shopped the primary market, there were 50 Black and 50 White subjects who specifically patronized the second-order market.

Age

The ages of the sample ranged from 18 to over 55 years with the majority (55 percent) of both races being 35 or younger. The age frequency distributions are shown in Table 1. Though there was no significant difference in the distributions, 36.8 percent of the Black respondents were in the 26-35 years of age category.

TABLE 1

AGE, EDUCATION, MARITAL STATUS, EMPLOYMENT STATUS,
AND INCOME OF RESPONDENTS BY RACE

Variable	White		Black		Chi Square
	No	%	No	%	
<u>Age</u>					
18-25	35	28.0	24	19.2	
26-35	34	27.2	46	36.8	
36-45	29	23.2	24	19.2	
46-55	15	12.0	20	16.0	
over 55	12	9.6	11	8.8	
Total	125	100.0	125	100.0	5.0803 d.f. = 4
<u>Education</u>					
Attended high school	7	5.6	6	4.8	
High school graduate or equivalent	32	25.6	23	18.4	
Attended college and/ or Associate degree	39	31.2	26	20.8	
College graduate	25	20.0	34	27.2	
Attended graduate school	7	5.6	14	11.2	
Master's degree	5	4.0	11	8.8	
Graduate study or degree beyond Master's	10	8.0	11	8.8	
Total	125	100.0	125	100.0	10.1535 d.f. = 6
<u>Marital Status</u>					
Married	56	44.8	52	41.6	
Single	52	41.6	44	35.2	
Divorced/Separated	12	9.6	20	16.0	
Widowed or Other	5	4.0	9	7.2	
Total	125	100.0	125	100.0	3.9577 d.f. = 3

TABLE 1 (Cont'd)

Variable	White		Black		Chi Square
	No	%	No	%	
<u>Employment Status</u>					
Full-time	58	46.4	97	77.6	
Part-time	40	32.0	13	10.4	
Retired	5	4.0	4	3.2	
Not Employed	22	17.6	11	8.8	
Total	125	100.0	125	100.0	27.3454** d.f. = 3
<u>Income</u>					
\$25,000-29,999	45	36.0	23	18.4	
\$30,000-39,999	20	16.0	31	24.8	
\$40,000-49,999	7	5.6	20	16.0	
\$50,000-59,999	20	16.0	17	13.6	
\$60,000-69,999	14	11.2	9	7.2	
\$70,000-79,999	19	15.2	25	20.0	
Total	125	100.0	125	100.0	17.8978** d.f. = 5

**Significant at the .01 level.

Over 55 percent of the total sample was found to be in the 18-35 year old range. This trend is characteristic of the population distribution in the United States (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1985).

Education

Table 1 shows the frequency distribution for the education variable. The educational level of the 250 participants ranged from attending high school to receiving a graduate degree. A higher percentage of Blacks were college graduates or held advanced degrees. Fifty-six percent of the Blacks had some form of college degree which only 37.6 percent of the Whites had a four-year college or more educational background.

The majority of the White females (62.4 percent) were high school graduates or pursued at least two years of college. It appears from the data that a higher proportion of Black females in the study were more advanced than Whites in terms of education. However, the chi-square test showed no significant difference in the distributions.

Reports have indicated that the Black community values education highly because in the past having an education was one method of escaping from poverty (Rix, 1990). Census data have also shown that in the 1980s more Blacks are highly educated. Education is one index of class. Due to the Black females in this study belonging to the middle class, it could be the reason for the advanced degrees. Higher educations are usually representative of higher incomes; therefore, education may have been the most important factor that placed the women in the middle-income level.

Marital Status

It is revealed in Table 1 that over 80 percent of the 250 subjects in the study were in the married or single categories. The respondents were about evenly divided between these two categories. For instance, there were 44.8 percent White and 41.6 percent Black women that were married compared to 41.6 percent White and 35.2 percent Black single respondents. The findings in this study support Edmond's study (1979), which concluded that marital status was not significantly different between her Black and White female sample.

Employment Status

There was a significant difference regarding the employment status of the females in this investigation. More than three-quarters of the Black women were employed full-time while less than half of the White women were employed full-time. A greater proportion of the White respondents worked part-time than Blacks. A higher percentage of Whites (21.6 percent) were either retired or not employed (Table 1).

Statistics have shown (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1989) that more Black females are in the work force full-time than Whites. One reason for the high number of working Black women is said to be a history of job and salary discrimination against the Black male (Rix, 1990). In order to financially support the family, the Black woman has always had to work outside the home more than her White counterpart.

Income

Although the researcher purposely set the income range, a significant difference in distribution was found in the income levels of the two races. The findings are given in Table 1. Blacks outnumbered the Whites in the \$70,000-79,999 range, while Whites had a significantly higher proportion (36 percent) in the \$25,000-29,999. The major difference between the income levels of the two groups were found to be in the income ranges below \$50,000.

In a 1988 report issued by the Bureau of the Census, the median income for Black households was \$16,410 compared to \$28,780 for the White counterparts. These statistics also are evidence of the disparity between the incomes of the two races. Research generally supports the national trend in the United States that in general, more Blacks are poorer than Whites, but data concerning this particular sample does not support the national trend. This could be attributed to the fact that the Blacks in this study held the majority of advanced degrees which could have contributed to higher incomes.

Clothing Values

A clothing value scale was administered to the sample. The clothing values that were investigated were religious, political, economic, and conformity. The possible range of scores for each value factor was nine to 27 points. The respondents were given 36 value statements in groups of

three and were asked to mark the most and least important ones in each group. The most important statement was given a weight of three, the least important which was assigned a weight of one and the unmarked statement was given a weight of two. Tables 23-26 in Appendix B give distributions of the responses to the 36 value items by race. A score for each value was calculated by summing the weights of the appropriate items. The correlation of the items to the value scores are reported in the tables.

Using Hintze's Number Cruncher Statistical System (1989), correlations were computed to determine the relationships among the four clothing values for each race separately. "When a positive correlation exists, high scores on one variable are paired with high scores on the other variable and low scores on one variable are paired with low scores on the other" (Huck, Cormier, and Bounds, 1974, p. 30). The results of the correlations are displayed in Table 2. Since the measure forced respondents to make choices, negative correlations were expected by the researcher.

The significant negative correlations found among the four clothing values showed that discriminatory characteristics do exist among the four clothing values. The correlations were: political and religious (-.40, .47); economic and religious (-.31, -.19); conformity and religious (-.44, -.30); economic and political (-.36, -.42); and conformity and economic (-.33, -.51).

TABLE 2

INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG CLOTHING VALUES

Clothing Values	Religious	Political	Economic
		<u>Whites (N = 125)</u>	
Political	-.40		
Economic	-.31	-.36	
Conformity	-.44	-.10	-.33
		<u>Blacks (N = 125)</u>	
Political	-.47		
Economic	-.19	-.42	
Conformity	-.30	-.07	-.51

As in Purdy's (1983) study, the economic value emphasizes the practical use of time, energy and money, whereas the political clothing value asserts status and prestige. The religious clothing value demonstrates the spiritual aspects of clothing while the conformity clothing value is defined as wearing apparel in order to gain approval of others. Purdy's correlations were: political and religious (-.61, -.52); conformity and religious (-.33, -.26); economic and political (-.40, -.23); and conformity and economic (-.47, -.36). The findings in this study supported Purdy's findings.

The mean scores of the clothing values are shown in Table 3. These scores were computed by using the one-way analysis of variance to test for differences among the means of the two groups separately.

The means for the White respondents were, in descending order, economic, political, religious and conformity. The highest ranking clothing value mean among the Black respondents was economic, followed by political, religious and conformity. In both groups, the economic clothing value ranked first with the political value placing second. Purdy (1983) in her study of young and old Appalachian women reported that the economic clothing value ranked first.

There were order differences for the conformity and religious values. Blacks ranked the religious value higher than conformity, while for the White participants there was no significant difference between the mean scores on the conformity and religious values.

TABLE 3

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE CLOTHING VALUE MEANS BY RACE

Clothing Value	Mean Score		t	p
	White (N=125)	Black (N=125)		
Economic	22.33 ^{a+}	23.61 ^{a+}	-3.22	0.00**
Political	18.68 ^{b+}	18.09 ^{b+}	1.52	0.13
Conformity	16.14 ^{c+}	14.38 ^{d+}	5.25	0.00**
Religious	15.72 ^{c+}	16.88 ^{c+}	-3.34	0.00**

**Significant at .01 level.

+a, b, c, d are significantly different from each other at .05 level.

T-tests were used to test the difference between the means by race for the four clothing values. A significant difference for all but one of the values was found. Blacks scored higher on the economic and religious values than did the Whites, who scored higher on the conformity clothing value. There was no significant difference for the political value. These findings support Foxall's (1980) and Washington's (1987) investigations that Blacks have strong religious values.

Clothing Buying Practices of the Primary Market Users

According to the chi square test, statistically significant differences by race were found in the method utilized to acquire most of the sample's personal clothing (Table 4). Eighty-five percent of the White respondents purchased the majority of their clothing as ready-to-wear as compared to 91.9 percent of the Blacks buying ready-to-wear apparel as their major method of clothing acquisition. Only 13.3 percent of the White sample purchased most of their clothing secondhand and even fewer Blacks (2.4%) bought most of theirs as used-clothing. Findings revealing that the Blacks in this study purchased less used-clothing disagree with those of Braguglia and Rosencranz (1968) who reported that the Blacks in their investigation tended to purchase more used-clothing than the White participants. Data indicated that more Blacks (5.7%) made their personal clothing than Whites (1.7%).

TABLE 4

METHOD OF ACQUISITION AND MOST IMPORTANT FACTOR WHEN
BUYING PERSONAL CLOTHING BY RACE

Item	Race				Chi Square
	Whites		Blacks		
	No.	%	No.	%	
<u>How most of personal clothing is acquired</u>					
Buy ready-to-wear	102	85.0	113	91.9	
Buy used clothing	16	13.3	3	2.4	
Make own clothing	2	1.7	7	5.7	
Total	120	100.0	123	100.0	12.201** d.f. = 2
<u>Most important factor when choose personal clothing</u>					
Price	39	31.2	35	28.0	
Style	6	52.8	76	60.8	
Brand	7	5.6	3	2.4	
None of the above	13	10.4	11	8.8	
Total	125	100.0	125	100.0	2.6871 d.f. = 3

**Significant at .01 level.

Differences in the importance placed on selected factors when choosing personal clothing were not significant. Table 4 shows the frequency distributions of responses for this item. The majority of both races felt that style was the most important factor to consider when choosing to buy clothing. Of the White females 52.8 percent rated style as the most important factor, compared to 60.8 percent of the Blacks ranking it as their most important consideration. In Harps' (1976) study of clothing buying practices of employed Black women from three different social classes, the largest proportion of women from all socio-economic classes stated that style was the most important factor to consider in preplanning purchases. Brand was viewed in this study as the least important factor to consider when purchasing apparel by both races.

There were no statistically significant differences between the two races in planning a specific proportion of their income (Table 5) for clothing purchases. However, 84.8 percent of the Whites and 84.0 percent of the Blacks indicated that they did not plan a specific proportion of their income for clothing purchases. Only 16.0 percent of the Blacks and 15.2 percent of the Whites respectively, planned a percentage of their income for clothing expenditures.

The survey respondents were asked about the frequency that they shopped primary stores. Frequency distributions are shown in Table 5. Though there were no significant differences, the majority of the subjects in both groups shop the primary market at least twice a month or more.

TABLE 5

PLANNING A SPECIFIC PROPORTION OF INCOME AND FREQUENCY OF
SHOPPING PRIMARY STORES BY RACE

Item	Race				Chi Square
	Whites		Blacks		
	No.	%	No.	%	
<u>Plan a specific proportion of income by period or year when preparing to purchase clothing</u>					
Yes	19	15.2	20	16.0	
No	106	84.8	105	84.0	
Total	125	100.0	125	100.0	0.0304 d.f. = 1
<u>How often you shop in primary stores</u>					
Weekly or less	18	14.9	28	22.8	
Twice a month	44	36.4	41	33.3	
Once a month	41	33.9	39	31.7	
Once or twice a year	18	14.9	15	12.2	
Total	121	100.1+	123	100.0	2.5863 d.f. = 3

+Percentages may not total 100.0 percent due to rounding.

The women were asked to reveal the percentage of personal clothing items they purchased in primary stores (Table 6). According to the chi square value, there were statistically significant differences found in the percentage of clothing purchased in primary stores by race. Among the respondents who could estimate the amount purchased, 59.8 percent of the Black women purchased over 50 percent of their apparel in primary stores. Approximately 28 percent of the White females bought over 50 percent of their clothing items in this market. About 15 percent of the total number of participants responding purchased less than 10 percent of their clothing in the primary market.

Chi square analysis shows that there was no significant difference with regard to race in the buying pattern for a \$50.00 or lower priced dress (Table 7). The largest proportion of the subjects in both groups indicated that they did not plan purchases for items costing less than \$50.00. A slightly higher percentage of Blacks (46.4 percent) than Whites do not plan \$50.00 or less dress purchases. In the Samli, Tozier, and Harps study conducted in 1978, significant findings concluded that regardless of the social class, the respondents in their study did not preplan the cost of clothing purchases.

TABLE 6

PERCENTAGE OF PERSONAL CLOTHING ITEMS PURCHASED
IN PRIMARY STORES BY RACE

Item	Race				Chi Square
	Whites		Blacks		
	No.	%	No.	%	
<u>Percentage of personal clothing items purchased in primary stores</u>					
Less than 10%	22	19.5	10	9.3	
10-20%	28	24.8	3	2.8	
20-30%	9	8.0	11	10.3	
30-40%	9	8.0	6	5.6	
40-50%	13	11.5	13	12.1	
Over 50%	32	28.3	64	59.8	
Total	113	100.1 ⁺	107	99.9 ⁺	35.9911** d.f. = 5

**Significant at .01 level.

⁺Percentages may not total 100.0 percent due to rounding.

TABLE 7

BUYING PATTERN FOR DRESSES COSTING LESS AND MORE
THAN FIFTY DOLLARS

Item	Race				Chi Square
	Whites		Blacks		
	No.	%	No.	%	
<u>Buying pattern for dress less than \$50</u>					
Buy at beginning of season	36	28.8	23	18.4	
Buy at clearance sales, end of season	42	33.6	44	35.2	
Don't plan purchases for items less than \$50	47	37.6	58	46.4	
Total	125	100.0	125	100.0	4.0633 d.f. = 2
<u>Buying pattern for dress more than \$50</u>					
Buy at beginning of season	42	33.6	21	16.8	
Buy at clearance sales, end of season	28	22.4	59	47.2	
Don't plan purchases for items more than \$50	55	44.0	45	36.0	
Total	125	100.0	125	100.0	19.0460** d.f. = 2

**Significant at .01 level.

There were statistically significant differences found in the buying pattern for a dress retailing at more than \$50.00 (Table 7). Over 47 percent of the Black sample revealed that they would buy a dress for more than \$50.00 by shopping clearance and end of the season sales. A smaller percentage of White females (22.4 percent) reported this shopping pattern. It was found that 33.6 percent of the White subjects tended to purchase a dress costing more than \$50.00 at the beginning of the season. When shopping for clothing at the beginning of the season, customers usually purchase merchandise at the regular instead of sale prices, thus, supporting the fact that more Blacks than Whites buy clearance and end of the season merchandise. Braguglia and Rosencranz in their 1968 study reported that Blacks were more inclined to pay more for their apparel. Therefore, data in this study indicated the opposite of Braguglia and Rosencranz's findings.

Although the women were asked if the display of merchandise had an impact on their shopping behavior, no significant difference between the two races was found. The distributions (Table 8) revealed that at least 50 percent of the total sample felt that the display of merchandise did influence their clothing shopping behavior.

There was no significant difference between the races in the influence of special sales on clothing buying behavior (Table 8). Data indicated that a vast majority of the women in both groups patronized stores because of special sales.

TABLE 8

INFLUENCE OF MERCHANDISE DISPLAYS AND SPECIAL
SALES ON SHOPPING BEHAVIOR BY RACE

Item	Race				Chi Square
	Whites		Blacks		
	No.	%	No.	%	
<u>Display of merchandise influence shopping</u>					
Yes	71	56.8	74	59.2	
No	26	20.8	27	21.6	
Haven't given any thought	28	22.4	24	19.2	
Total	125	100.0	125	100.0	0.3886 d.f. = 2
<u>Special sales cause patronage</u>					
Yes	78	62.4	86	68.8	
No	30	24.0	25	20.0	
No opinion	17	13.6	14	11.2	
Total	125	100.0	125	100.0	1.1351 d.f. = 2

Clothing Buying Practices of the Second-Order
Market Users

One of the purposes of the study was to investigate the clothing buying practices of second-order market users and compare the results by race. This market was defined by the researcher as a market consisting of all the used-clothing retail outlets such as consignment stores, thrift shops, garage or yard sales.

Within the two racial groups, there were 100 who patronized the second-order market. A question was presented within the survey to identify users of this market. In order to obtain an adequate sample of 50 users in each group, the researcher continued collecting data until the prerequisite was met.

The respondents were asked why they purchased used clothing. Frequency distributions (Table 9) indicated that the majority of the second-hand clothing consumers cited price as their reason for buying used clothing. More Whites (24 percent) considered quality to be an important factor than Blacks (16 percent). Only seven percent of the total sample felt that updated styles were important in making used clothing purchases.

TABLE 9

REASON FOR AND LENGTH OF TIME PURCHASING USED-CLOTHING
BY RACE

Item	Race				Chi Square
	Whites		Blacks		
	No.	%	No.	%	
<u>Why purchase used-clothing</u>					
Quality	12	24.0	8	16.0	
Price	35	70.0	38	76.0	
Updated styles	3	6.0	4	8.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	1.0661 d.f. = 2
<u>Length of time purchasing used-clothing</u>					
1-2 years	14	28.0	2	4.0	
3-4 years	4	8.0	13	26.0	
5-6 years	4	8.0	10	20.0	
7-8 years	11	22.0	10	20.0	
Over 8 years	17	34.0	15	30.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	16.5088** d.f. = 4

**Significant at .01 level.

There were significant differences in the length of time the participants had been purchasing used clothing (Table 9). At least 30 percent of both racial groups had purchased secondhand clothing for over eight years. Over 60 percent of the White respondents patronized this market for five to eight years, while 70 percent of the Black females shopped in the market for five years or more. Data indicated that about equal numbers had purchased used clothing for seven years; but a higher proportion of Whites (28 percent) than Blacks (4 percent) had been using the second-order market for two years or less.

Table 10 shows the percentage of total personal clothing that was purchased in used-clothing stores. Although the chi square value did not reveal any statistically significant differences between the two groups, more than one-half of this sample purchased 20 percent or less of their personal clothing in secondhand stores. More White subjects (32 percent) than Black (12 percent) purchased over 20 percent of their apparel from used clothing retailers.

The respondents were asked about the frequency of shopping in used-clothing stores (Table 11). There were no significant differences found, but approximately 66 percent of the White women shopped this type of store once a month or more often, while 46 percent of their Black counterparts frequented this type of retailer for their clothing purchases.

TABLE 10

PERCENTAGE OF PERSONAL CLOTHING PURCHASED IN
USED-CLOTHING STORES BY RACE

Item	Race				Chi Square
	Whites		Blacks		
	No.	%	No.	%	
<u>Percentage of total personal clothing that is purchased in used-clothing stores</u>					
Less than 10%	17	34.0	24	48.0	
10-20%	11	22.0	12	24.0	
Over 20%	16	32.0	6	12.0	
Don't know	6	12.0	8	16.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	6.0698 d.f. = 3

TABLE 11

FREQUENCY OF SHOPPING USED-CLOTHING STORES
BY RACE

Item	Race				Chi Square
	Whites		Blacks		
	No.	%	No.	%	
<u>How often you shop in used-clothing stores</u>					
Weekly or more often	10	20.0	4	8.0	
Twice a month	15	30.0	8	16.0	
Once a month	8	16.0	11	22.0	
At least twice a year	13	26.0	18	36.0	
Once a year	4	8.0	9	18.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	7.9051 d.f. = 4

Differences by race on satisfaction with price paid for used clothing were significant (Table 12). Seventy-two percent of the Whites were very satisfied, 14 percent were somewhat satisfied, with 14 percent indicating indifference or dissatisfaction. On the other hand, 44 percent of the Black users of the secondhand market were very satisfied with price, another 44 percent were somewhat satisfied and 12 percent were neutral or dissatisfied regarding price. Even though prior findings in this study indicated that a slightly higher percentage of Blacks than Whites bought used clothing because of price, fewer Blacks (44 percent) than Whites (72 percent) were very satisfied with the prices attached to secondhand apparel.

Statistically, there was no significant difference found by race on satisfaction with quality of used clothing (Table 12). The majority of the respondents in both racial groups felt either very satisfied or somewhat satisfied with the quality of second hand apparel. Although differences by race with price satisfaction was not revealed in earlier studies (Yavas, Riecken, and Battle, 1979; Gatlin, 1980; Riecken, 1981), it was reported that two important motives for purchasing secondhand clothing were price and quality.

TABLE 12

SATISFACTION WITH PRICE AND QUALITY OF USED-CLOTHING
BY RACE

Item	Race				Chi Square
	Whites		Blacks		
	No.	%	No.	%	
<u>Satisfaction with price of used-clothing</u>					
Very satisfied	36	72.0	22	44.0	
Somewhat satisfied	7	14.0	22	44.0	
Neutral	7	14.0	6	12.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	12.2149** d.f. = 2
<u>Satisfaction with quality of used-clothing</u>					
Very satisfied	28	56.0	19	38.0	
Somewhat satisfied	17	34.0	25	50.0	
Neutral	5	10.0	6	12.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	3.3381 d.f. = 2

**Significant at .01 level.

The sample was asked to indicate the types of secondhand establishments where they made their clothing purchases (Table 13). According to the chi square test, no significant difference was found by race for shopping at garage sales. However, a higher proportion of the White participants (66%) patronized garage sales, while only 48 percent of the Black women shopped this type of establishment. The majority of the Blacks (52%) did not shop garage sales.

Although there was no statistically significant difference between the races, frequency distributions in Table 13 suggested that about one-half of the sample shopped vintage/antique stores while the other one-half did not.

There were no significant differences found by race in relation to the usage of secondhand stores. These stores were identified as small, permanent retailers. Over 70 percent of the total sample stated that they shopped secondhand stores (Table 14).

A significant difference existed by race in shopping for clothing at stores such as the Salvation Army, Goodwill, and thrift stores. Fifty-eight percent of the White females indicated that they shopped these types of secondhand retailers. Interestingly, 72 percent of the Black women stated that they did not shop the Salvation Army, Goodwill, or thrift stores. Data revealed that the Black females in this research were more unlikely to shop permanent, nonprofit retailers and agreed with the findings of Yavas, Riecken and Clabaugh (1982).

TABLE 13
PATRONAGE OF GARAGE SALES AND VINTAGE/ANTIQU
STORES BY RACE

Establishment	Race				Chi Square
	Whites		Blacks		
	No.	%	No.	%	
<u>Garage sales</u>					
Yes	33	66.0	24	48.0	
No	17	34.0	26	52.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	3.3048 d.f. = 1
<u>Vintage/Antique stores</u>					
Yes	24	48.0	24	48.0	
No	26	52.0	26	52.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	0.0000 d.f. = 1

TABLE 14

PATRONAGE OF SECONDHAND STORES AND SALVATION ARMY,
GOODWILL STORES BY RACE

Establishment	Race				Chi Square
	Whites		Blacks		
	No.	%	No.	%	
<u>Secondhand stores</u>					
Yes	37	74.0	35	70.0	
No	13	26.0	15	30.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	0.1984 d.f. = 1
<u>Salvation Army, Goodwill, Thrift stores</u>					
Yes	29	58.0	14	28.0	
No	21	42.0	36	72.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	9.1799** d.f. = 1

**Significant at 0.01 level.

All of the users of the secondhand market were questioned as to the particular types of used-clothing purchased. In utilizing the chi square analysis, significant differences were found by race in relation to their purchasing of pants in used-clothing stores (Table 15). Though 64 percent of the Black respondents said that they did not purchase pants in this market, 56 percent of the Whites did buy pants.

Skirts was another item of clothing that was examined. Findings indicated that there were no significant differences between the races. Over one-half of the respondents in each racial group purchased second-hand skirts (Table 15).

No statistically significant differences were found in the purchasing of blouses by race in secondhand clothing stores. The frequency distributions given in Table 16 show that 62 percent of the White sample and 56 percent of the Blacks bought used blouses.

The chi square value for differences by race in the purchasing of dresses in used-clothing stores was not significant. However, slightly more Blacks (60%) than Whites (42%) appeared to purchase dresses in secondhand stores (Table 16).

TABLE 15

PURCHASING OF PANTS AND SKIRTS IN THE SECOND-ORDER
MARKET BY RACE

Item	Race				Chi Square
	Whites		Blacks		
	No.	%	No.	%	
<u>Pants</u>					
Yes	28	56.0	18	36.0	
No	22	44.0	32	64.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	4.0258* d.f. = 1
<u>Skirts</u>					
Yes	32	64.0	27	54.0	
No	18	36.0	23	46.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	1.0335 d.f. = 1

*Significant at .05 level.

TABLE 16

PURCHASING OF BLOUSES AND DRESSES IN THE
SECOND-ORDER MARKET BY RACE

Item	Race				Chi Square
	Whites		Blacks		
	No.	%	No.	%	
<u>Blouses</u>					
Yes	31	62.0	28	56.0	
No	19	38.0	22	44.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	0.3721 d.f. = 1
<u>Dresses</u>					
Yes	21	42.0	30	60.0	
No	29	58.0	20	40.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	3.2413 d.f. = 1

There was no significant difference by race in the buying of undergarments in used-clothing stores (Table 17). The majority of each of the races, 94 percent representing the White women and 96 percent of the Black sample indicated that they did not purchase used undergarments. Only five percent of the total sample purchased undergarments from secondhand stores.

A chi square test was used and findings showed that there was no statistically significant difference by race in the purchasing of suits in secondhand stores. Table 17 shows the frequency distribution for this variable. Data indicated that 80 percent of the White subjects stated that they did not buy suits from secondhand stores. Just as many Blacks (78%) reported that they did not shop used-clothing stores for suits. More of the Black respondents in the study appeared to buy secondhand dresses than suits.

Users of the secondhand market were asked if they purchased coats in used-clothing stores (Table 18). Their responses were analyzed in relation to race and results were not statistically significant. A higher percentage of the Black respondents (62%) said that they did not buy coats in used-clothing stores, while over 50 percent of their White counterparts purchased this item.

TABLE 17

PURCHASING OF UNDERGARMENTS AND SUITS IN THE
SECOND-ORDER MARKET BY RACE

Item	Race				Chi Square
	Whites		Blacks		
	No.	%	No.	%	
<u>Undergarments</u>					
Yes	3	6.0	2	4.0	
No	47	94.0	48	96.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	0.2105 d.f. = 1
<u>Suits</u>					
Yes	10	20.0	11	22.0	
No	40	80.0	39	78.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	0.0603 d.f. = 1

TABLE 18

PURCHASING OF COATS AND ACCESSORIES IN THE
SECOND-ORDER MARKET BY RACE

Item	Race				Chi Square
	Whites		Blacks		
	No.	%	No.	%	
<u>Coats</u>					
Yes	26	52.0	19	38.0	
No	24	48.0	31	62.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	1.9798 d.f. = 1
<u>Accessories</u>					
Yes	35	70.0	31	62.0	
No	15	30.0	19	38.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	0.7130 d.f. = 1

Findings indicated (Table 18) that 70 percent of the White female respondents bought accessories in used-clothing stores and 62 percent of the Blacks in the study purchased secondhand accessories. Although the majority of both groups purchased used-accessories, there was no significant difference by race.

The respondents were asked to identify the types of activities for which used clothing was purchased. Both Whites and Blacks purchased this type of clothing for relaxing at home (Table 19). For example, 82 percent of the White participants acquired used-clothing to relax at home, whereas 76 percent of the Black respondents chose this type of activity for wearing their secondhand clothes.

A statistically significant difference was found by race in relation to buying used-clothing for work (Table 19). Seventy-eight percent of the White women wore their used-clothing purchases to work. Only 54 percent of the Black women chose to wear used apparel on the job.

Significant differences were found in the wearing of used-clothing to school by the racial groups (Table 19). Although a high percentage of the respondents chose to wear used-clothing purchases to work, a lower percentage reported that they wore these items to school. While 60 percent of the White respondents stated that they did not wear used-clothing to school, 84 percent of the Black sample indicated they did not wear used-clothing to school. Only 16 percent of the Blacks surveyed wore used-clothing to school.

TABLE 19

WEARING OF USED-CLOTHING FOR RELAXING AT HOME,
WORK, AND SCHOOL BY RACE

Item	Race				Chi Square
	Whites		Blacks		
	No.	%	No.	%	
<u>Relaxing at home</u>					
Yes	41	82.0	38	76.0	
No	9	18.0	12	24.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	0.5425 d.f. = 1
<u>Work</u>					
Yes	39	78.0	27	54.0	
No	11	22.0	23	46.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	6.4171** d.f. = 1
<u>School</u>					
Yes	20	40.0	8	16.0	
No	30	60.0	42	84.0	
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	7.1429** d.f. = 1

**Significant at .01 level.

When asked to respond on employment status, 28 of the total 250 respondents reported they were students. Therefore, the low usage of used-clothing for school might be related to whether the respondents were students.

Clothing Values Related to Market Usage

Results of the analyses by market usage of clothing value scores are given in Table 20. T-tests between the mean scores for the respondents using the two markets showed a significant difference for the conformity value. This finding indicated that the primary market users were higher on the conformity value than were those who also used the second-order market. The order of importance of the values was the same for both groups which supports Doveil and Healy's (1977) conclusion that shopping motives and buying behavior of consumers using the second-order market are analogous to those using the primary market.

Table 21 shows that statistically significant differences in mean scores according to race, occurred for the users of the second-order market. The differences existed for the religious and conformity clothing values. Data indicated that the Black consumers in this study placed the religious value higher than Whites. However, their White counterparts scored higher on the conformity clothing value. These findings additionally support those of Billingsley (1968), McAdoo (1978), Hill (1971), and Washington (1987) in reporting that Blacks hold stronger religious values than Whites.

TABLE 20
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE CLOTHING VALUE MEANS
BY MARKET USAGE

Clothing Value	Mean Score		t
	Primary Market (N=150)	Second-Order Market (N=100)	
Economic	22.73	23.33	1.45
Political	18.37	18.41	.11
Religious	16.30	16.30	0
Conformity	15.54	14.84	-1.95*

*Significant at .05 level.

TABLE 21

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE CLOTHING VALUE MEANS
AMONG THE SECOND-ORDER MARKET USERS BY RACE

Clothing Value	Mean Score		t
	White (N=50)	Black (N=50)	
Economic	22.98	23.68	-1.17
Political	18.48	18.34	0.23
Religious	15.78	16.82	-1.98*
Conformity	15.68	14.00	3.36**

*Significant at .05 level.

**Significant at .01 level.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions were drawn on the six hypotheses established for the study. For statistical purposes, null hypotheses were tested.

Hypothesis 1. Within the two groups, there will be variations in the rank order of clothing values.

Both groups ranked the economic value highest followed by the political value. Blacks ranked the religious value higher than conformity, while for the White respondents there was no difference between the rankings of conformity and religious values. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Hypothesis 2. There will be differences in the clothing values between Black and White middle-income women.

Data supported the rejection of the null hypothesis for three values. There were significant differences by race between the means for the economic, conformity, and religious clothing values. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Hypothesis 3. There will be differences between the Black and White middle-income women in their clothing buying practices.

The null hypothesis was rejected for three buying practices. There were significant differences by race in relation to: (A) the method used to acquire the majority of clothing; (E) the percentage of personal clothing items purchased in primary stores; and (G) buying pattern for a dress costing more than \$50.00. Thus, three subhypotheses were supported.

Data supported the acceptance of the null hypothesis for six buying practices. No significant differences by race were found for (B) the importance placed on selected factors when choosing personal clothing; (C) planning a specific proportion of income for clothing; (D) frequency of shopping primary stores; (F) buying pattern for a dress costing \$50.00 or less; (H) the influence of display of merchandise; and (I) influence of special sales on clothing buying behavior. Therefore, six subhypotheses were not supported.

Hypothesis 4. There will be differences between Black and White middle-income women who used the second-order market in their clothing buying practices.

The null hypotheses was rejected for six buying practices. Significant differences were found in: (B) length of time respondents had purchased used-clothing; (E) satisfaction with price when making used clothing purchases; (J) shopping the Salvation Army, Goodwill, and thrift stores; purchasing of (K) pants, and wearing used-clothing for (T) work and (U) school. Therefore, six subhypotheses were supported.

Data supported the acceptance of the null hypotheses for fifteen buying practices. There were no significant differences by race in relation to: (A) reason for purchasing used-clothing; (C) percentage of personal clothing purchased in used-clothing stores; (D) the frequency of shopping used-clothing stores; (F) satisfaction with quality of used-clothing; (G) shopping at garage sales; (H) shopping vintage/antique stores; (I) patronizing secondhand stores; purchasing of (L) skirts, (M) blouses, (N) dresses, (O) undergarments, (P) suits, (Q) coats, and (R) accessories in the second-order market; and (S) wearing used-clothing for relaxing at home. Thus, fifteen subhypotheses were not supported.

Hypothesis 5. There will be differences in clothing values between middle-income women who use the primary market exclusively and those who use the second-order market.

Data supported the acceptance of the null hypothesis for three values. These were: (1) religious; (2) political; and (3) economic. The null hypothesis was rejected for one value. There was a significant difference found between the means on conformity. Findings indicated the primary market users were higher on the conformity clothing value than the second-order market users.

Hypothesis 6. There will be differences in clothing values between Black and White middle-income women who use the second-order market.

The null hypothesis was rejected for two of the values. Data revealed significant differences by race between respondents utilizing the second-order market. Black consumers held higher religious values and lower conformity values than White consumers. There were no differences between the two groups on the economic and political values.

Other Findings

There were significant findings that were not hypothesized but were revealed in this study. Differences by race, regarding employment status and income were found statistically significant. More Blacks were employed full-time than Whites. In terms of income, it was found that Black respondents outnumbered the Whites in the \$70,000-79,999 income range.

In Edmonds 1979 study of Black-White clothing buying practices of professional women, it was found that income did not play a major role in clothing buying practices. Edmonds also reported significant differences by race in terms of marital status and education.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY

The purpose of this exploratory was two-fold.

1. To determine if there were differences in clothing values between Black and White middle-class women patronizing the primary and second-order markets.

2. To determine if there were differences in the clothing buying practices between Black and White women in the primary and second-order markets.

Data were collected from the metropolitan areas of Washington D.C.; Providence, R.I.; and Boston, MA. It was felt by the researcher that more middle-income women could be found in metropolitan areas than in rural areas.

A review of literature established that little research has been reported on clothing values related to middle-income Blacks and their patronage of the second-order market. Subjects for this study were 250 middle-income women. Of the 250 respondents, 125 were Black and 125 were White. While both racial groups shopped the primary market, there were 50 Black and 50 White subjects who specifically patronized the second-order market.

The 250 participants in this investigation were middle-income consumers with incomes ranging from \$25,000-\$79,999. Census data were used to help establish an appropriate middle-income range.

Several statistical tests were used to analyze the data. These were correlations, one-way analysis of variance, t-tests, and the chi-square test for independence.

Major Findings

1. In relation to the rank order of clothing values, Blacks ranked the religious value higher than conformity while the White respondents ranked conformity higher than religious. Blacks also scored higher on the economic and religious clothing values than did the Whites, who scored higher on the conformity clothing value. These findings support earlier research that Blacks hold stronger religious values than Whites (Billingsley, 1968; Foxall, 1980).

2. More Blacks were inclined to purchase ready-to-wear apparel from retail stores in the primary market.

3. More Blacks than Whites purchased the largest percentage of their apparel in primary market stores.

4. Blacks were more inclined to buy clearance and end of the season merchandise than were whites when shopping for a dress costing \$50.00 or more.

5. Blacks had patronized the second-order market longer than Whites.

6. More Whites than Blacks were very satisfied with the prices assigned to used-clothing purchases.

7. Fewer Blacks than Whites shopped permanent, nonprofit second-order stores such as the Salvation Army, Goodwill, or thrift stores.

8. Whites tended to purchase pants as a used-clothing item more than Blacks.

9. Whites were more inclined to wear used-clothing for work.

10. Fewer Blacks than Whites wore used-clothing to school.

11. The consumers who used the primary market only were higher on the conformity clothing value than those who were second-order market users.

12. Black consumer who used the second-order market scored higher on the religious clothing value than Whites, while Whites had a higher score on the conformity clothing value.

CHAPTER VIII

IMPLICATIONS

It has been predicted that by the year 2000, minorities will become the majority in the United States. The Black population alone is expected to increase from 26.5 million to 44 million by the end of this century. The implications of these statistics suggest the impact that minorities will have as consumers in the marketplace.

Blacks have been a part of the American culture for over 200 years. They are no longer confined to any particular region, social class, economic status, or religion. Some Blacks have even received financial status like their White counterparts; yet, few studies have investigated their clothing values and buying practices during this decade.

This exploratory study has revealed the need for more research pertaining to minorities. In order to reach these specific consumers and satisfy their needs in the marketplace, more research is needed to assess the impact of clothing values on buying practices.

Some researchers believe that Black consumers are an integral part of America's "melting pot". This study has revealed that differences in clothing values and buying practices do exist within the Black subculture when compared to the White subculture even though the researcher controlled socioeconomic status. Therefore, specific marketing strategies should be used by marketers and retailers to fully reach this group.

The clothing buying behavior of consumers in the second-order market has gained increased attention within the last ten years. Though a review of literature indicated that low-income consumers patronize this particular market, it is apparent from the findings in this study that middle-income Black and White consumers utilize it too. Because of the projected rise in the Black population and the increased patronage of the second-order market, scientific research pertaining to this subject will be of significant value to retailers, marketers, and researchers in clothing and textiles. For instance, in a 1980 population bulletin (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1988a) data revealed that from 1970 to 1980 the population increase by race in the U.S. was 6.0 percent for Whites, 17.3 percent for Blacks, 61.0 percent for Hispanics, 71.7 percent for American Indians and 127.4 percent for the Asian population. These findings stress the importance in researching different subcultures within the United States. Therefore, a study of this nature will help assess the needs of other minorities.

The findings in this study have indicated that although Blacks and Whites prioritize similar clothing values, they differ in the ranking of religious and conformity clothing values. Retailers must plan different marketing and advertising strategies to meet the needs of these consumers. For instance, if Blacks hold strong religious clothing values, then there is a need to market apparel that is not too revealing in exposing the body. Classic clothing would be more appealing to this group.

The White female users of the primary market ranked conformity higher than the religious value. This implies that retailers should concentrate on selling mass styles because this group would more than likely dress like their peers and be less concerned with individuality in dressing.

Second-order market retailers should stress the similarities of the primary markets strategies in terms of clothing values. Different market strategies should be utilized in terms of the items of apparel that are worn by race. The Whites in this study tended to wear secondhand clothing in public places more so than the Blacks. Therefore, retailers in this market should concentrate on advertising directed more to the White market segment.

The world is becoming a global society. We no longer divorce ourselves from communists or socialists around the world. Thus, as commerce and communication between countries increases, there is a need for retailers and marketers to study global clothing values and buying practices in order to participate in foreign exchange.

Since this was an exploratory study, further refinement of the measure should be made. Reliability and validity should be established using similar samples. One specific kind of reliability test that could be used is coefficient of stability or "test-retest". This provides a correlation between two effective measurements using the same test.

A replication of this study would be beneficial by using other minority groups and comparing them to Whites. Since the Hispanic market segment has increased tremendously, a study of the clothing buying practices of Hispanic and White middle-income women would be appropriate and one could compare findings with the findings in this study. Also, the researcher suggests that this study be replicated comparing two different minority groups, for example, Hispanic and Asians or Asians and Blacks.

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APPENDIX A

A research study is being done by a graduate student at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University and it is a survey on consumer values and clothing buying practices. This is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers. We seek your cooperation in completing the questionnaire and can assure you that the information you give will be anonymous. We have no way of identifying who completes each questionnaire. Thank you for your cooperation.

SECTION I

In this section are statements about things that people consider to be important to them. These statements are grouped into sets of three. This is what you are asked to do:

Read each set. Within each set find the ONE STATEMENT of the three which you consider to be most important to you. Place an X in the space beside that statement in the column under the most important.

Next, look at the other two statements in the set. Decide which one you consider to be least important to you. Place an X in the space beside that statement in the column under least important.

For every set you will mark one statement as most important and one as least important, and you will leave one statement unmarked.

	MOST IMPORTANT	LEAST IMPORTANT
--	-------------------	--------------------

Example:

To have a hot meal at noon.....	_____X_____	_____
To have a good night's sleep.....	_____	_____
To get plenty of fresh air.....	_____	_____X_____

REMEMBER, THERE WILL ALWAYS BE ONE STATEMENT THAT IS UNMARKED.

	MOST IMPORTANT	LEAST IMPORTANT
To look for easy-to-care-for clothing so I can save on cleaning costs.....	_____	_____
To dress in a plain and simple style.....	_____	_____
To feel a part of my group by dressing like them.....	_____	_____
To be one of the fashion leaders in my group.....	_____	_____
To have clothing which makes me feel I belong to the group.....	_____	_____
To think about how one's religion affects one's clothing choices.....	_____	_____
To wear garments that are not distracting when worn to church.....	_____	_____
To have clothes that are easy to take care of.....	_____	_____
To use my clothing as a way to get ahead.....	_____	_____
To wear clothing to be like my friends.....	_____	_____
To carefully plan each clothing purchase so that I will know what I need before I go shopping.....	_____	_____
To wear the latest fashion.....	_____	_____
To use clothing as a way to become closer to God.....	_____	_____
To have garments that look expensive.....	_____	_____
To try to buy a garment like my friends when I purchase new clothing.....	_____	_____

	MOST IMPORTANT	LEAST IMPORTANT
To wear clothing that can help me get ahead in the world.....	_____	_____
To check different sources before buying to compare price and quality.....	_____	_____
To be as well-dressed as other people in my group.....	_____	_____
To wear plain and simple clothing that does not call attention to me.....	_____	_____
To adjust my clothing habits to fit those of my group.....	_____	_____
To be a smart shopper and get the most for my money when buying clothes.....	_____	_____
To wear clothing that is like that worn by my friends.....	_____	_____
To wear clothing which will impress others...	_____	_____
To purchase fads within my budget	_____	_____
To get the most for my clothing dollar.....	_____	_____
To wear garments which do not reveal too much of my body.....	_____	_____
To wear clothes that make me stand out in a group.....	_____	_____
To select clothing that does not call attention to myself in any way.....	_____	_____
To keep my clothing purchases within my budget.....	_____	_____
To meet the clothing standards of my group....	_____	_____

	MOST IMPORTANT	LEAST IMPORTANT
To wear clothing that identifies me as a group member.....	_____	_____
To buy clothes which have the best brand names in them.....	_____	_____
To think about one's religious beliefs as expressed by their clothing.....	_____	_____
To wear simple clothing no matter how other people are dressed.....	_____	_____
To wear clothes that make me look successful.....	_____	_____
To save money by choosing garments that are well made and will last longer.....	_____	_____

Section II

Place a check (✓) in front of the one answer that best describes your personal clothing buying practice for each question.

1. How do you acquire most of your personal clothing?
 buy ready-to-wear from retail stores
 buy used clothing
 receive as gifts
 make own clothing
 other (specify) _____
2. When choosing personal clothing, which of the following is most important to you? Check only one.
 price
 style
 brand
 none of the above
3. Do you plan a specific proportion of your income by the period or the year, when preparing to purchase clothing?
 yes
 no
4. How often do you shop at primary stores? (department, specialty, boutique, discount stores)
 daily
 weekly
 twice a month
 once a month
 at least twice a year
 once a year
 do not shop these stores

5. About how much of your total personal clothing items are purchased in primary stores? (primary stores are department stores, specialty stores, boutiques, discount stores)
- less than 5%
 - 5-10%
 - 10-20%
 - 20-30%
 - 30-40%
 - 40-50%
 - over 50%
 - don't know
6. Which of the following best describes your buying pattern for a dress that costs less than \$50? (Respond to only ONE.)
- I buy at the beginning of each season (Fall, Winter, Spring, Summer).
 - I buy at clearance sales at the end of each season.
 - I don't plan my clothing purchases for items less than \$50.
7. Which of the following best describes your buying pattern for a dress that costs more than \$50.
- I buy at the beginning of each season (Fall, Winter, Spring, Summer).
 - I buy at clearance sales at the end of each season.
 - I don't plan my clothing purchases for items more than \$50.
8. Does the display of merchandise in a store influence your shopping there?
- yes
 - no
 - haven't given it any thought
9. Does a store's special sale cause you to patronize it?
- yes
 - no
 - no opinion

Second-hand Clothing Buying Practices

10. Do you purchase used-clothing for personal use or for others?
 yes
 no

*If you do not buy used clothing then do not answer questions (11) thru (18). Continue on page 8, Section III.

11. Why do you purchase used clothing?
 quality
 price
 updated styles
12. How long have you been buying used clothing?
 1-2 years
 3-4 years
 5-6 years
 7-8 years
 9-10 years
 over 10 years
13. How much of your total personal clothing is purchased in used clothing stores?
 less than 10%
 10-20%
 over 20%
 don't know
14. How often do you shop used clothing stores?
 daily
 weekly
 twice a month
 once a month
 at least twice a year
 once a year

15. How satisfied are you with the prices that you pay for used clothing and the quality of the used clothing that you purchase?

	Price	Quality
Very satisfied		
Somewhat satisfied		
Neutral		
Somewhat dissatisfied		
Very dissatisfied		

For questions (16) thru (18) please check (✓) the appropriate answer(s). More than one answer may be checked.

16. At what types of secondhand establishments do you buy used clothing?
- garage sales
 - vintage/antique stores
 - secondhand stores
 - Salvation Army, Goodwill or thrift stores
 - Other (list) _____
17. Which of the following items of clothing do you purchase in used clothing stores?
- pants
 - skirts
 - blouses
 - dresses
 - undergarments
 - suits
 - coats
 - accessories
 - other (specify) _____
18. For what type(s) of activities do you buy used clothing?
- relaxing at home
 - working
 - school

SECTION III.

Demographic information is needed about you in order to analyze this data. Remember this is not a test. The information you provide will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for statistical purposes only.

1. Check (✓) the block for the racial or ethnic group with which you identify:

- White (includes Arabian)
 Black (includes Jamaicans, Bahamians and other Caribbeans or African but not Hispanic or Arabian descent)
 Hispanic (includes Mexican, Puerto Rican, Central or South American)
 Asian & Asian American (includes Pakistanis, Indians & Pacific Islanders)
 American Indian (includes Alaskans)

2. What is your age?

- 18-25
 26-35
 36-45
 46-55
 over 55

3. Check (✓) the highest level of education you have completed (check only one).

- Less than 8th grade
 Completed 8th grade
 Attended high school
 High school graduate or equivalent
 Attended college and/or associate degree
 College graduate
 Attended graduate school
 Master's degree
 Graduate study beyond master's requirement
 Ph.D. or professional degree

4. What is your present marital status?
 Married
 Single, never married
 Divorced/Separated
 Widowed
 Other (e.g., common law, cohabitation, etc.)
(specify) _____
5. How many people are in your household (including yourself)? _____
6. What is the combined total yearly income before taxes of all members of your household?
 Under \$5,000 30,000-39,999
 5,000-6,999 40,000-49,999
 7,000-9,999 50,000-59,999
 10,000-14,999 60,000-69,999
 15,000-19,999 70,000-79,999
 20,000-24,999 80,000 and above
 25,000-29,999
7. What is your employment status (outside the home)?
 Full-time Not employed
 Part-time Other (specify) _____
 Retired _____
8. What is your job title (if employed outside the home) and briefly describe your present occupation. If you do not work outside the home then use n/a.

Thank you for participating in this study.

APPENDIX B

TABLE 22

MEDIAN ANNUAL INCOME OF FAMILIES BY FAMILY TYPE, RACE,
AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, 1987 (IN DOLLARS)

Household	Family Type			
	All Races	White	Black	Hispanic Origin ¹
Married Couple	34,700	35,295	27,182	24,677
Wife and labor force	40,422	41,023	33,333	31,354
Wife not in paid labor force	26,652	27,394	16,822	17,967
Male Householder, No wife present	24,804	26,230	17,455	19,411
Female Householder, No husband present	14,620	17,018	9,710	9,805

¹ Persons of Hispanic origin maybe of any race.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, August 1988b, Table 1.

TABLE 23

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES AND CORRELATION WITH TOTAL FOR
THE ITEMS IN THE RELIGIOUS CLOTHING VALUE MEASURE

Item	Race	Response Level			r
		1=Least Important	2=Blank	3=Most Important	
To dress in a plain and simple style	White	31	48	46	.50
	Black	23	62	35	.29
To think about how one's religion affects one's clothing choices	White	76	33	16	.50
	Black	68	23	34	.57
To wear garments that are not distracting when worn to church	White	41	70	14	.61
	Black	44	50	31	.60
To use clothing as a way to become closer to God	White	92	25	8	.46
	Black	48	66	11	.38
To wear plain and simple clothing that does not call attention to me	White	52	53	20	.40
	Black	36	78	11	.23
To wear garments which do not reveal too much of my body	White	57	54	14	.41
	Black	45	71	9	.25
To select clothing that does not call attention to myself in any way	White	66	47	12	.60
	Black	48	64	13	.48

TABLE 23 (Cont'd)

Item	Race	Response Level			r
		1=Least Important	2=Blank	3=Most Important	
To think about one's religious beliefs as expressed by their clothing	White	71	42	12	.55
	Black	51	57	17	.55
To wear simple clothing no matter how other people are dressed	White	60	30	35	.63
	Black	69	35	21	.55

TABLE 24

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES AND CORRELATION WITH TOTAL FOR
THE ITEMS IN THE POLITICAL CLOTHING VALUE MEASURE

Item	Race	Response Level			r
		1=Least Important	2=Blank	3=Most Important	
To be one of the fashion leaders in my group	White	29	40	56	.45
	Black	34	38	53	.53
To use clothing as a way to get ahead	White	42	62	21	.53
	Black	63	46	16	.63
To wear the latest fashion	White	36	58	31	.34
	Black	21	71	33	.47
To have garments that look expensive	White	14	16	95	.53
	Black	6	17	102	.33
To wear clothing that can help me get ahead in the world	White	55	40	30	.39
	Black	61	51	13	.27
To wear clothing that will impress others	White	44	37	44	.64
	Black	42	61	22	.60
To wear clothes that make me stand out in my group	White	59	49	17	.40
	Black	71	36	18	.53
To buy clothes which have the best brand names in them	White	18	22	85	.35
	Black	19	19	87	.52
To wear clothes that make me look successful	White	38	46	41	.48
	Black	48	45	32	.36

TABLE 25

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES AND CORRELATION WITH TOTAL FOR
THE ITEMS IN THE ECONOMIC CLOTHING VALUE MEASURE

Item	Race	Response Level			r
		1=Least Important	2=Blank	3=Most Important	
To look for easy-to-care for clothing so I can save on cleaning costs	White	21	41	62	.31
	Black	18	32	75	.48
To have clothes that are easy to take care of	White	13	22	90	.53
	Black	12	35	78	.52
To carefully plan each clothing purchase so that I will know what I need before I go shopping	White	18	32	75	.43
	Black	13	26	86	.54
To check different sources before buying to compare price and quality	White	22	37	66	.47
	Black	10	15	100	.48
To be a smart shopper and get the most for my money when buying clothes	White	11	26	88	.67
	Black	11	8	106	.47
To purchase fads within my budget	White	14	40	71	.50
	Black	12	16	97	.68
To get the most for my clothing dollar	White	9	24	92	.45
	Black	9	18	98	.58

TABLE 25 (Cont'd)

Item	Race	Response Level			r
		1=Least Important	2=Blank	3=Most Important	
To keep my clothing purchases within my budget	White	12	20	93	.55
	Black	13	17	95	.54
To save money by choosing to buy garments that are well made and will last longer	White	26	50	49	.55
	Black	8	45	72	.61

TABLE 26

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES AND CORRELATION WITH TOTAL FOR
THE ITEMS IN THE CONFORMITY CLOTHING VALUE MEASURE

Item	Race	Response Level			r
		1=Least Important	2=Blank	3=Most Important	
To feel a part of my group by dressing like them	White	73	35	17	.42
	Black	79	29	17	.42
To have clothing which makes me feel I belong to the group	White	51	21	53	.42
	Black	64	24	37	.35
To wear clothing to be like my friends	White	72	34	19	.26
	Black	91	28	6	.26
To try to buy a garment like my friends when I purchase new clothing	White	19	84	22	.52
	Black	71	42	12	.45
To be as well-dressed as other people in my group	White	49	49	27	.46
	Black	55	59	11	.48
To adjust my clothing habits to fit those of my group	White	62	47	16	.46
	Black	78	39	8	.56
To wear clothing that is like that worn by my friends	White	67	46	12	.38
	Black	71	48	6	.52
To meet the clothing standards of my group	White	48	56	21	.54
	Black	64	44	17	.42
To wear clothing that identifies me as a group member	White	36	62	27	.45
	Black	55	49	21	.45

VITA

Yvette Harps-Logan, the daughter of Betty J. Harps and the late Henry Harps Jr. was born on June 23, 1951 in Washington, D.C. After graduation from Wakefield High School in Arlington, Virginia, she received a Bachelor of Science degree from Radford College in 1973. In 1976 she was graduated from Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University with a Master of Science degree in Clothing, Textiles and Related Arts.

Her professional experience is as follows:

- | | |
|--------------|--|
| 1974-1978 | Executive positions in merchandising and management.
The Hecht Company, Washington, D.C. |
| 1978-1982 | Assistant Professor of Home Economics, Mississippi
State University, Starkville, MS |
| 1985-1986 | Graduate Teaching Assistant in Clothing and Textiles,
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University |
| 1987-1989 | Part-time Instructor in Clothing and Textiles at
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| 1989-present | Instructor and Director of the Fashion Merchandising
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Yvette Harps-Logan