

HOUSING INNOVATIVENESS AND VALUES:
A CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

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PREFACE

This study was undertaken to examine differences and similarities between black and white residents of rural Southern communities concerning housing related values and innovativeness towards housing. Additionally, the study compares findings related to innate innovativeness in housing to generalizations regarding actualized innovativeness across several disciplines.

The format of this dissertation deviates from the prescribed thesis format at Oklahoma State University. The reason for the style deviation is to create manuscripts which may be submitted for publication, as well as to complete the requirements for the traditional thesis. The first three chapters and the sixth chapter use the style set forth in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association as well as the Oklahoma State University Graduate College Style Manual. The fourth and fifth chapters are manuscripts which have been written for the journal Housing and Society. This journal requires the American Psychological Association style. The cooperation of the Graduate College and Dean Thomas Collins is appreciated for allowing this deviation.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

As "the great melting pot," the United States has been known for its willingness to accept individuals from many cultures who desire a "better way of life." The expectation has been that individuals would mesh with society and that both the nation and the individual would be stronger for the merger. While individuals have been welcomed, subcultures within the dominate culture have tended to be dismissed or diminished. Cultural dominance has often been viewed as cultural superiority (Bolt, 1987). The majority has historically assumed that those from minority cultures will soon "see the light" and abandon their ties with the "lesser" culture to melt into the greater society (Loftin, 1989).

Telecommunications advances over the years would seem to encourage cultural homogeneity--telephones facilitate long-distance communication, and television with its cable and satellite facilities allows viewing of the down trodden as well as the rich and famous. Transportation and technological innovations fill homes with sights,

sounds, and smells from other states and other nations.

Differences among cultures (both within and between nations) are diminishing. Yet no one, whether an individual, a group, or a nation, wants to be just like everyone else. Current trends show that rather than abandoning their heritage, individuals are embracing the differences that make them unique. "...As our lifestyles grow more similar, there are unmistakable signs of a powerful countertrend: a backlash against uniformity, a desire to assert the uniqueness of one's culture..." (Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990, p. 119).

Research in the area of housing has often focused on norms and considered American society to be one culture (Hanna & Lindamood, 1979; Morris & Winter, 1978). Those studies which have acknowledged cultural differences in the form of race have most often focused on discrimination. Few research studies have considered innovativeness or values related to race and housing. To fully meet the needs of America's citizens, housing research should investigate similarities and differences as they relate to cultures within the United States.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this study is to examine differences and similarities between black and white residents of rural Southern communities concerning housing related

values and innovativeness towards housing. The specific objectives are:

- (1) To analyze the relationship between housing related values and race.
- (2) To determine if there is a significant relationship between innovativeness toward housing and socio-demographic variables of race, age, education, and income.
- (3) To determine the relationship between innovativeness toward housing and the two variables of "knowledge" of housing types, and "seeking information" about housing types.

Definitions

The terms used in this study are based on the following definitions:

Southern--The seven Southern states which participated in this study (Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and Virginia).

Innovativeness--A psychological trait underlying the adoption of new ideas, services, and products (Leavitt & Walton, 1975).

Innovativeness towards housing--The proclivity of an individual to seek out or receive new ideas and technology related to housing (Gruber, Beamish,

Carter, Shelton, & Weber, 1990).

Value--Conceptions of the desirable which affect choice (Deacon & Firebaugh, 1975; Downer, Smith, & Lynch, 1968).

Housing related value--An estimate of the worth of a concept that guides decision-making about housing (McCray & Day, 1977).

Assumptions

This study is based on the following assumptions:

- (1) Respondents answered the questionnaire truthfully and accurately.
- (2) Innovativeness is a measurable personality characteristic.

Limitations

The limitations of this study include the following:

- (1) The selection of communities is based, in part, on housing diversity and therefore may not be representative of all Southern communities.
- (2) The precise meanings of each of the values statements in the instrument are not defined, but are left to the discretion of the respondents. Therefore, the results are based solely on the interpretation of the statements by the sample, and not on an external standard.

- (3) The two classic housing values studies which are the precursors to the current study (Cutler, 1947; Beyer, Mackesey, & Montgomery, 1955), did not include race of respondents as one of the demographic variables requested in the studies. It is assumed that all respondents were white. Therefore, the current study may be based on culturally biased questions.
- (4) "Innovativeness" is an abstract concept and difficult to measure. Previous research measured innovativeness by time of adoption or by number of innovative products currently owned. This study measures innovativeness by the innate propensity to be innovative.
- (5) Innovativeness is based solely on respondents' subjective opinions and not on actual purchasing choices.
- (6) Due to a typographical error, respondents may have been uncertain as to confidentiality of the data; this may have impacted responses.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Cultural Perspective

There is a continuum of opinions regarding racial studies. Some would argue that there is no need to study cultural subgroups, as it leads only to divisiveness and ill feelings. Others would suggest that cultivating awareness of various groups within society encourages understanding and appreciation. "Attempts at racial comparisons inevitably provoke controversy" (Miller & Dregor, 1973, p. xiii). This variance of views is reflected in the perspectives from which black-white studies are conducted.

One view is that black families are a product of the American culture, which translates into white behavior being the norm from which blacks deviate. The distinct nature of black culture is recognized but these qualities are considered negative. Black families are seen as "dysfunctional" and "culturally deprived." This view has come to be known as the culturally deviant perspective (Allen, 1978; Berardo, 1980; Fine, Schwebel, & James-Myers, 1987).

A second perspective which recognizes the distinct nature of black culture is the view that black families are strong. Differences between the two cultures are emphasized and differences in black family life are seen as positive. This is referred to as a culturally independent or culturally variant view (Allen, 1978; Fine et al., 1987; Mathis, 1978; Miller & Dregor, 1973).

A third perspective is "cultural equivalence" which deemphasises distinct qualities of black families and highlights qualities shared in common with white families (Allen, 1978; Fine et al., 1987). Some see this as a way of conferring "a legitimacy upon black families as long as their family lifestyles conform to middle-class family norms" (Staples & Mirande, 1980, p. 889).

Differing somewhat from these perspectives is Valentine's (1971) biculturation theory of African-American behavior. He proposes that biculturation is a more encompassing perspective and model from which to explore concepts related to black culture. Biculturation theory assists in understanding the similarities and differences between blacks and whites by acknowledging mainstream socialization patterns perpetuated by the larger culture, as well as subgroup or ethnic enculturation patterns.

"Ethnic culture can be conceived of as a subset of culture in general. In fact, to a great extent, the

difference is only a matter of scale where a smaller distinctive culture exists within a larger encompassing culture" (Reminick, 1983, p. 14). Subgroup cultural socialization tends to come from family units and other close groups, while mainstream enculturation comes from wider sources such as media (television, movies) and the public education system.

Innovativeness

In 1903, Gabriel Tarde, a French judge, noted legal cases which came before his court and began to question the concept of innovation. He authored a book entitled The Laws of Imitation "to learn why, given one hundred different innovations conceived of at the same time-- innovations in the form of words, in mythological ideas, in industrial processes, etc.--ten will be spread abroad while ninety will be forgotten" (Rogers, 1983, p. 40). What Tarde called "imitation" is today called the "adoption" of an innovation.

No further research was done in this area until the early 1940s. Then innovation research began in several fields ranging from anthropology and sociology to agriculture, education, communication, marketing, and geography. About 20 years later, the findings from these various fields were pulled together into a theory of diffusion of innovations. Rogers (1983) notes that there

were 3,085 diffusion of innovations publications available as of 1981.

A new idea or product is necessary but not sufficient for the adoption of innovations. Many innovative ideas or products, even though beneficial, have been lost in the process of diffusion. Rogers (1983, p. 5) defines innovation diffusion as "the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system." He describes these concepts as follows:

Innovation: "an idea, practice, or object that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption" (p. 11).

Communication Channels: "the means by which messages get from one individual to another" (p.17). In the early stages of communication, mass-media is often the communication channel; this is generally followed by personal communication.

Social System: "a set of interrelated units that are engaged in joint problem solving to accomplish a common goal" (p. 24).

Time: an element that must be taken into account in diffusion research, as innovation diffusion is a process that occurs over time.

Innovations are thought to have several common characteristics. The individual's perceptions of these

characteristics influence the rate of adoption of innovations (Rogers, 1983; Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971).

They are as follows:

- (1) Relative advantage--the degree to which an innovation is considered better than the idea or product it supersedes. The greater the advantage, the more quickly the innovation will be adopted.
- (2) Compatibility--the degree to which an innovation is thought to be consistent with existing personal and cultural values and needs. The more compatible the innovation, the quicker it will be adopted.
- (3) Complexity--the degree to which an innovation is seen as complicated. Innovations which are perceived as easy to understand or use will be more readily adopted.
- (4) Trialability--the degree to which an innovation may be tried on a small scale. If individuals can experiment with all or part of an innovation before committing themselves, they will be more inclined to adopt the innovation.
- (5) Observability--the degree to which an innovation is visible to others. Individuals who have seen their friends or neighbors actually using an innovation are more likely to adopt, than if they

have not seen the innovation in use.

Time is a major factor in the innovation-decision process. An individual's decision to adopt an innovation is more than one single act--it is part of a process that occurs over time. Five stages of this "adoption process" originally suggested by the North Central Rural Sociology Subcommittee for the Study of Diffusion of Farm Practices are (1) awareness, (2) interest, (3) evaluation, (4) trial, and (5) adoption (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971). Because Rogers and Shoemaker considered evaluation a part of each of the stages and did not consider adoption the final step of the process, they reduced the steps to four and changed the title to "innovation-decision process." The four stages are (1) knowledge, (2) persuasion, (3) decision, and (4) confirmation.

In 1983, Rogers adjusted the process to include implementation. He reasoned that without implementation, the process was just a mental exercise. This most recent model of the innovation-decision process includes the following steps which occur over time:

- (1) knowledge--the individual is exposed to the innovation and comes to understand what it is;
- (2) persuasion--the individual develops a favorable or unfavorable attitude towards the innovation;
- (3) decision--the individual decides to adopt or to reject the innovation;

- (4) implementation--the individual uses the innovation; and
- (5) confirmation--the individual seeks reinforcement of the decision.

Time has also been significant in distinguishing between types of adopters. Those adopters who are the earliest to use or purchase an innovation are labeled "innovators" while the last to adopt and non-adopters are tagged "laggards". The literature (Bass, 1969; Robertson, 1971; Rogers, 1983) specifies five adopter categories as follows:

Innovators--individuals considered venturesome and eager to try new things.

Early Adopters--respected individuals who hold great sway in their social systems.

Early Majority--deliberate individuals who are slightly ahead of the norm in adopting, but not in positions of leadership or great influence.

Late Majority--skeptical and cautious, these individuals adopt after the majority of their acquaintances have already adopted.

Laggards--suspicious and traditional in their outlook, these individuals are the last to adopt.

Many studies have been conducted to more fully understand the differences between types of adopters.

Uhl, Andrus, and Poulsen (1970) compared eleven

characteristics of innovators and laggards and found a significant difference in only two areas--family income and brand loyalty. Laggards had less family income and more brand loyalty, leading to speculation that laggards prefer not to risk their limited funds on unknown or "unproven" brands.

Kolter and Zaltman (1976) coined the term "early-adoption propensity" and define it as the probability that a person would be an early purchaser upon an effective communication exposure. They acknowledge income and three additional "subfactors" in early-adoption propensity--the product's need-fulfillment potential, the person's new product orientation, and the product's accessibility to the person.

Adopters are generally studied in relation to innovation adoption; however, it is also possible to take the reverse perspective of innovation resistance. Ram and Sheth (1989) say that each of the five groups of adopters has a different level of innovation resistance. There are two categories of resistance--functional barriers and psychological barriers. Functional barriers relate to usage and risk; innovations may require too much change in routine to be adopted. Psychological barriers refer to tradition or image.

Innovativeness is the basis for determining an individual's adopter category. Those individuals with a

great deal of innovativeness are classified innovators; those with less of the innovative quality are termed early adopters, and so on. Innovativeness then, is central to the concept of diffusion of innovations.

There is general agreement regarding the meaning of the concept of innovativeness. It is considered a "relative dimension" in that all members of society possess it to a greater or lesser degree (Hirschman, 1980; Leavitt & Walton, 1975; Midgley & Dowling, 1978; Price & Ridgway, 1982; Rogers, 1983). However, there is lack of consensus on how innovativeness should be operationalized. Measures of innovativeness tend to fall into three categories--time of adoption, cross-sectional measures, and innate innovativeness.

The "time of adoption" model measures the amount of time between an individual having knowledge about the innovation until the time of adoption of said innovation. A time norm is established for that product and each individual is compared to the norm to determine individual innovativeness. In this sense, innovativeness has been defined as "The degree to which an individual or other unit of adoption is relatively earlier in adopting new ideas than other members of a social system" (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971, p. 27). There are obvious shortcomings to this method of measurement. For example, it relies on the respondent's recall for the date of purchase of the

innovation. Another concern is that it measures time of adoption of only one product; someone may be an early adopter for one product and a laggard for another. Also, perceived need for a particular item may vary from person to person; those with greater need for or interest in that innovation might tend to purchase sooner and thereby be classified innovators. Another drawback of this method is its sensitivity to communication channels. Individuals who are not introduced to or given timely knowledge of the innovation will not have the opportunity to be one of the first to adopt. Cost is another factor. If the innovation is costly, individuals or families with greater disposable income are in a better position to purchase innovations and be classified as innovators.

The second method of measuring innovativeness minimizes some of the inadequacies of measuring innovativeness by a single product purchase. This is the "cross-sectional" method (Robertson & Myers, 1969). It usually looks at a particular category of products, and determines how many new products in that category an individual has purchased at the time of the survey (Midgley & Dowling, 1978). Not only does this method eliminate the problem of respondent recall, but it controls for some of the situational effects of communication and product interest (Midgley & Dowling, 1978). Summers (1971) has taken this concept one step

further by attempting to measure innovativeness across several product categories. While it might seem that the time of adoption method and the cross-sectional method would be closely related in their measurement of innovativeness, Kohn and Jacoby (1973) found no significant relationship between the measures. The implication is that the two methods measure different concepts regarding innovativeness. Neither technique adequately measures the quality of innovativeness independent of environment and circumstances (income, communication networks, and so forth).

The third method has long been contemplated, but has had trouble finding a firm base. In 1971, Rogers and Shoemaker noted, "Personality variables associated with innovativeness have not yet received their share of research attention, perhaps because of difficulties of measuring these dimensions in field interviews" (p. 187). Studies which attempted to link personality with behavior had mixed results (Evans, 1959; Ostlund, 1974; Robertson & Myers, 1969; Summers, 1971; Tucker & Painter, 1961). One of the reasons given for a lack of definitive results in relating personality to behavior is the shotgun approach or absence of focus of studies (Kassarjian, 1971; Jacoby, 1971).

Midgley and Dowling (1978, p. 235) proposed a higher level measure of innovativeness--a measure termed "innate

innovativeness." Time of adoption and cross-sectional techniques measure observable behavior (which Midgley and Dowling refer to as "actualized innovativeness"), while innate innovativeness is a measure of a quality which all individuals possess to some degree, much like all individuals possess some degree of kindness or creativity. Midgley (1977, p. 49) defined innate innovativeness as "the degree to which an individual makes innovation decisions independently of the communicated experience of others." It is often thought of as a strong interest in ideas and things that are new and different, and using novel or creative ways of doing things (Gruber et al., 1990).

There are many intervening variables between innate and actualized innovativeness. Just as creativity may be stifled or enhanced by environment and opportunity, likewise, some of the factors which intervene between innate and actualized innovativeness (such as income or social influence) may limit or encourage expression of that trait. Midgley and Dowling (1978) suggest that innate innovativeness could best be measured by using a scale, and mention possible questionnaire items. Other researchers (Craig & Gintner, 1975; Leavitt & Walton, 1975; Price & Ridgway, 1982; Gruber et al., 1990) have advanced the use of scales in measuring innovativeness.

Innovations in housing include such things as earth-

sheltered and solar homes, universal design homes, and the SmartHouse. Decisions to adopt these innovations involve greater commitment and greater risk than the decision to buy a new electronic gadget. In a study of perceptions of energy efficient innovative housing systems, housing intermediaries identified three types of risk--economic, social (consumer lack of knowledge), and political (outdated building codes and zoning ordinances) (McCray & Weber, 1981). The same study also considered characteristics of energy efficient housing innovations and found that relative advantage was perceived as questionable, while the other characteristics were rated too complex, incompatible with existing values and past experiences, and difficult to observe. Another study by Beamish, Sweaney, Trembley, & Bugg (1987) supports these findings.

Actual housing purchases (the time of adoption method) can measure innovativeness towards housing, as can assessment of an individual's innate propensity for housing innovations. Innate innovativeness has distinct advantages in the field of housing. Housing innovations tend to be complex, have low degrees of trialability and observability, and to be major investments for consumers. Since it is difficult to ascertain the best use of time and money in providing information concerning innovative housing, a measure of innate innovativeness could help in

disseminating knowledge to those who would tend to be most receptive.

Past research has shown relationships between innovativeness and certain demographic variables. Rogers (1983) compiled the findings and made the following generalizations:

- (1) Innovativeness is not related to age,
- (2) Earlier adopters have more years of education than later adopters,
- (3) Earlier adopters have higher social status than later adopters (as measured by income),
- (4) Earlier adopters seek information about innovations more actively than later adopters, and
- (5) Earlier adopters are more knowledgeable about the innovation than later adopters.

Rogers measured innovativeness by time of adoption and made generalizations about innovators based on that definition. However, very little research has considered innovativeness as measured by innate innovativeness rather than actualized innovativeness. The relationships between innate innovativeness and age, education, social status, information seeking, and knowledge have not been studied. Likewise, very little literature deals directly with innovativeness and culture or race. Innovation studies, though conducted in many countries, have given little

attention to differences from culture to culture within one country.

Values

Housing is a basic human need, and some consider decent housing a basic American right (Bullard, 1984). Families bring a kaleidoscope of characteristics and lifestyles to the housing market. In the foreword to the classic study, Houses are for People (Beyer et al., 1955), the then President of the National Association of Home Builders said, "This report is based on the concept that application of knowledge about the fundamental human values may be used to improve the livability of housing." To understand family values is to better understand housing motivations.

Values are sometimes thought of as strongly held beliefs, or as the underlying motivation for actions, or as the essence of what one believes to be worthwhile. There is often a strong sense of "rightness" attached to what one values. Nolan (1953, p. 16) states that values are "generalizations from a group of closely related attitudes which carry with them a concept of rightness." Individuals have values; religions, nations, and cultures also have values (Kluckhohn & Others, 1951).

The very nature of values suggests that most individuals have common values; to not value freedom or

beauty would be the exception, rather than the rule. Yet differences become evident when individuals are asked to rank or to choose between values (Beyer et al., 1955; Rokeach & Parker, 1970). It is this hierarchy of values that becomes the focus of empirical investigation.

Each culture is unique, yet common cords bind the whole of society together. In the realm of values, biculturation is the most viable of the theories presented earlier in this literature review. "It seems increasingly clear and increasingly important that some values, perhaps entirely of a broad and general sort, transcend cultural differences..." (Kluckhohn et al., 1951, p. 417).

Values are not inborn beliefs, but are fashioned out of environment and experience. The role that ones culture plays in shaping values is widely acknowledged. Kluckhohn et al. (1951, p. 403) note, "Motivation and value are both influenced by the unique life history of the individual and by culture." "Variations in value systems are...a function of antecedent cultural and social experience, on the one hand, and personality factors on the other" (Rokeach & Parker, 1970, p. 98). "The values of a society become part of the cultural heritage passed on from one generation to the next" (Nolan, 1953, p. 17). Values are determined by "cultural background, education, habits, and experiences" (Beyer, 1961, p. 95; Beyer et al., 1955, p. 49). Values are products of many factors, not the least

of which is culture.

Values are closely associated with attitudes and behavior; they are also expressed in choices and actions related to housing. The near environment has been linked with values by several researchers. For example, Deacon and Firebaugh (1975, p. 140) note that values are "strategic in the interrelationships of the family system and its environment." Values influence perception and use of the physical environment (Meeks, 1980). "No sector of American life more faithfully portrays its values than its dwellings, neighborhoods, and communities" (Montgomery, 1976, p. 7).

Cutler (1947), one of the first researchers to connect the study of values directly to housing, identified ten housing related values. They are beauty, comfort, convenience, location, health, personal interests, privacy, safety, friendship activities, and economy. Eight years later, Beyer et al. (1955) published the results of a field study which used a similar set of values--economy, family centrism, physical health, aesthetics, leisure, equality, freedom, mental health, and social prestige. This 1955 study found that families could be classified into groups, according to their hierarchies of values.

Those families who were likely to make choices based on economic uses of goods and services were labeled as the

"economy" value group. They are characterized as conservative, conventional, and willing to take only calculated risks. Individuals in this group are concerned more with size, quality, and maintenance of a house than with its emotional appeal and appearance.

The second group, labeled the "family" value group, emphasizes things that will hold the family together such as loyalty, love, and concern. They prefer that their home be comfortable for the whole family and that there is ample space for family activities and children's play. They invite relatives to their home more than do the other groups. They are concerned about health and safety of family members, a healthy environment, and good schools.

Those in the "personal" value group are individualistic and desire freedom and independence. They do not wish to impress others but to express themselves. They value orderliness and harmony, and they like a simple floor plan that allows for privacy.

Even though the fourth group, the "prestige" value group, did not have enough respondents to determine that it was significant, it was included in the study because it is a group commonly recognized by sociologists. They are upwardly mobile, concerned more about style and taste than about economy or family matters. They like to entertain, and view their house as a status symbol; therefore, the location, building materials, and

appearance of the house are very important.

Housing values studies, since the research of Cutler and Beyer in the mid-1900s, has been rather limited; subsequent research was conducted primarily in the 1970s. Several studies compare housing values among particular groups of respondents, such as families in different life cycle stages or urban and rural households. Downer, Smith, and Lynch (1968) studied families in different stages of the family life cycle. This study found that dominant housing values seem to undergo change as families move through the life cycle. The dominant value for families with preschool age children was family centrism; families with school-age children valued individuality, privacy, and equality; while retirees highly regarded personal and social values. These values reflected how the families used the near environment.

In a study of low-income families, McCray and Day (1977) found only one significant difference between urban and rural respondents. The rural respondents had a higher preference for convenience. All other values showed no significant difference. Ha and Weber (1991) also compared urban and rural samples. Using a value pattern set, they found that both groups rated family well-being highest and the social value lowest. However, rural respondents rated economic values higher than personal values while urban respondents gave more importance to personal values and

less to economic values. Meeks and Deacon (1972) found that one's management situation has a bearing on the values deemed most important. This research was corroborated by Stoeckler and Hasegawa (1974), who found that one's hierarchy of values may fluctuate depending on the specific situation.

Belcher (1970) conducted a study which described the housing aspirations of both black and white residents in rural Georgia. Two series of questions were reported-- characteristics of a dream home and functions fulfilled by a home. Some significant differences were found between black and white respondents in characteristics desired in a dream home. When asked about construction materials, 76% of whites and 50% of blacks selected brick. However, the second choice of whites was frame construction (nine percent) while blacks selected concrete blocks (30%). The author noted that there is a pattern for low income groups to construct their own homes, paying as they go, and that building with blocks is cheaper than building with bricks. Central heat was preferred by 81% of whites but only 58% of nonwhites, which the author suggested was due to lack of knowledge or experience that many nonwhites have with central heat. Other significant differences occurred in number of bathrooms, bedrooms, and porches considered desirable. The specified preferences in this study do not appear to reflect cultural differences, but rather

socioeconomic status. It was also found that the number of functions fulfilled by the home increased as socioeconomic level increased (eating, sleeping, and companionship were the top three). The greatest differences between the two groups were that more whites indicated the home is a place to entertain (94% compared to only 48% for blacks), and more whites considered the home a status symbol (49% compared to seven percent), while blacks were much more likely to consider the home as a place of worship.

It is difficult to talk about differences in racial values without talking about differences in socioeconomic values. Rokeach (1973) extensively studied values in American life and among subgroups of society. A study by Rokeach and Parker, published in 1970, found that 15 out of 36 values significantly differed for whites and blacks. After controlling for income and education, these 15 differences were reduced to seven. "We regard these seven differences as the essence of whatever is meant by black versus white culture; that is, these are the differences that remain after income and education are held constant" (Rokeach & Parker, 1970, p. 108). The top three values among blacks were (1) a world at peace, (2) equality, and (3) freedom; the top three values among whites were (1) a world at peace, (2) family security, and (3) freedom. Rokeach (1973) makes note of the fact that

the top three values of blacks refer to characteristics of the larger society--possibly a reflection of the realization that a necessary prerequisite for family security is social reform. Blacks ranked "a comfortable life" slightly higher than whites (fifth compared to seventh). Whites ranked "a world of beauty" higher than blacks (15th compared to 16th). The greatest difference in the two groups was in the ranking of equality--blacks ranked it number two, while whites ranked it number 12. As expected, values differences between races was shown to be small, but meaningful.

In 1951, Bauer called attention to the need for housing research when he said, "The need for a greater variety of homes, to suit people with few or many children, differing occupations and cultural tastes, in different stages of the family cycle, living in different regions, is increasingly stressed" (p. 15). There has been a plethora of literature on black-white housing in the last 20 years, the great majority of which deals with housing market discrimination.

Very little research has dealt with differences and similarities of cultural values. And still less research has considered differences and similarities of values related to housing; what has been done has often drawn on small samples. In addition, most research on black families is concentrated in the areas of largest

populations--urban areas. "The black populations of the Southern Appalachian region have been long overlooked. Few books dealing with black persons in the United States or with Appalachia even mention them" (Stuckert, 1987, p. 141). Beyer (1961, p. 95) states that values "seem to provide a clue to a theory that could result in the design of more satisfactory housing for individual families." Too few studies have been done to adequately assess his proposal. A few housing values studies were conducted in the 1970s; fewer still in the 1980s. Research has shown that there are significant cultural differences in values. Research has not been conducted to determine if there are significant cultural differences in housing related values.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This study is a part of the Agricultural Experiment Station Southern Region Housing Research Project, S-194, Barriers and Incentives to Affordable Housing. There were three major components of the S-194 study--a survey of community residents, a survey of community leaders, and a case study of community characteristics. The current study is based on the survey of community residents, and is concerned with housing values and innovativeness of residents. Therefore, the methods and procedures discussed in this chapter will focus on sample selection and data collection as related to community residents.

Research Design

The purpose of a research project is important in that it influences the design of the study. Babbie (1986) identifies three common purposes of research--exploration, description, and explanation. Exploratory studies examine relatively new or unstudied phenomenon; descriptive studies systematically describe a situation or event

factually and accurately; and explanatory studies attempt to discover "why." Like most research studies, this study includes some elements of each purpose. However, description is the primary purpose of the current study.

Two broad categories of research design are descriptive and experimental design. An experimental design involves the manipulation of an independent variable (treatment) while noting the effects of the manipulation on the dependent variable (McCall, 1986). By contrast, descriptive research does not manipulate but observes already existing relationships among variables; it is a common method employed in social science research (Isaac & Michael, 1971; McCall, 1986; Miller, 1970). The current study is based on a descriptive research design. Three common data-gathering methods used in descriptive research include interviews, questionnaires, and direct observation (Best, 1990). The current study used mailed questionnaires.

Sample Selection

Community Selection

In each of the seven participating states in the Southern Region--Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and Virginia, communities were ranked on a continuum for two variables: population

and diversity. Within each state, these communities were divided into quadrants (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Population-diversity matrix.

	Low population communities	High population communities
Low diversity communities		
High diversity communities		

The community with the extreme score in each of the quadrants was identified as a potential study community. Effort was undertaken to match smaller and larger communities on location, industrial base, and transportation variables. If the communities did not match on these factors the community with the next highest score was examined. The process was followed until suitable matches were identified. Communities were excluded if they were atypical (recreational, retirement, etc.) In total, 28 communities, four in each of seven

Southern states, were selected for study in the S-194 project (Hanna, McManus, Beamish, & Goss, 1991)

Household Selection

Households in each community were selected using listings from 1986-87 telephone directories. Before selection began, listings were eliminated if they were nonresidential listings (businesses, churches, doctors' offices) or second phone listings, if the listing had no address, or if the exchange or address indicated an area other than the selected community.

The number of eligible listings were counted for each community. A 25% sample rate was used for low population communities and a 12.5% sample rate was used for high population communities. A randomly selected starting point was determined and then every nth listing was counted until the number of listings reached the appropriate sample size. For low population communities, every fourth listing was selected; for high population communities, every eighth.

Sample Characteristics

Characteristics of respondents in this study and characteristics of residents in the seven Southern states are compared in Table 1. The resident characteristics are based on the 1990 Census of Population and Housing and the

1990 General Population Characteristics (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990a; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990b).

It is important to compare a study sample with the population. However, from the current release of Census data, many comparisons are unavailable. This study has a non-MSA focus (communities of 10,000 and less); the data for this population group is unavailable from the Census. Therefore, although attempts have been made to compare sample to population, the study sample of non-MSA is being compared to a population of both MSA and non-MSA.

The sample tends to be older than the general population in the South; 58% of the respondents are 45 years of age or older while only 42% of the census population over the age of 17 is 45 years of age or older. The sample is somewhat more educated but earns less income than the typical resident. Blacks composed just over nine percent of the sample; blacks make up nearly 21% of the black/white population in the seven states. With the available Census data, marital status was only available for individuals 15 years of age and older. Only 2.4% of the respondents in this study were less than 25 years old. Therefore, marital status is not comparable. Household size appears to be consistent between the sample and the states' population; 55% of the sample live in one-or two-person households compared to 57% for the general population.

Table 1

Characteristics of Respondents Compared to Census Data

Characteristic	Respondents %	Census %
Age		
18-24	2.4	15.0
25-44	39.4	43.4
45-64	35.9	25.5
65-84	21.4	14.6
85 & older	0.9	1.5
Sex		
Male	60.7	48.5
Female	39.3	51.5
Race		
Black	9.2	20.7
White	90.8	79.3
Education		
Less than high school graduation	20.5	29.9
High school graduation	23.2	29.7
Greater than high school graduation but less than bachelor's degree	33.0	22.7
Four year college graduation	13.8	11.7
Graduate or professional degree	9.5	6.0

Income		
Less than \$15,000	26.9	26.7
\$15,000-\$24,999	24.1	19.1
\$25,000-\$49,999	37.5	34.1
\$50,000 or greater	11.5	20.0
Marital status ^a		
Never married	5.6	23.4
Married	73.3	57.2
Separated or divorced	9.9	11.0
Widowed	11.1	8.1
Household size ^a		
1 person	16.2	24.0
2 persons	38.9	33.1
3 persons	19.6	18.7
4 persons	17.6	15.3
5 persons	5.9	6.0
6 or more persons	1.8	3.1

Note. Due to rounding, all percentages do not equal 100.

^aData from Georgia not available.

The observation that the sample has more education and less income than the general population may be partially explained by two factors. One, because the sample has less blacks and more whites, the level of

formal education may be greater than the general population. Two, even though income is often associated with educational level, the sample is composed of more older and perhaps retired individuals, than would be true for the general population. Due to differences in the sample and the general population, the results of this study will not be generalized to the population of the seven Southern states, but will be limited to the respondents in this study.

The Instrument

This study is a part of a larger study, the S-194 Regional Research Project "Barriers and Incentives to Affordable Housing." The instrument (Appendix A) assessed the housing issues of innovativeness, values, housing conditions, community services, and barriers and incentives to affordable housing. This study utilizes the innovativeness and values components.

Innovativeness Towards Housing Scale

An Innovativeness Towards Housing scale (ITHS) was developed by adapting items from two existing scales measuring personal innovativeness--one by Leavitt and Walton (1975) and the other by Price and Ridgway (1982). Items were adjusted to reflect a housing orientation. For example, "I enjoy looking at new styles as soon as

they come out" was changed to "I enjoy looking at new housing designs in magazines." "I would rather fix something myself than take it to someone to fix" was changed to "I would rather make repairs around the house myself than to have someone else make them." Eleven of the 26 items on the ITHS were unchanged from the original scales.

Reliability of the original scales was quite high. The Spearman-Brown split-halves reliability coefficient was .90 for the innovativeness scale in the Leavitt and Walton (1975) study. The Price and Ridgway (1982) research revealed a coefficient alpha of .91 for the scale. The innovativeness scales from which the ITHS was derived were shown to be reliable instruments.

Both studies (Leavitt & Walton, 1975; Price & Ridgway, 1982) used panels of experts in establishing validity. The experts determined items to be included in the innovativeness scales. The Leavitt and Walton (1975) study also used a psychological scale to determine if innovativeness was highly correlated with other psychological characteristics. The correlations were at acceptably low levels to suggest divergent validity of the innovativeness scale. The Price and Ridgway (1982) research assessed validity by comparing mean innovativeness scores of three groups of respondents (low, medium, and high innovators) with innovative calculator-

use behavior. An analysis of variance F-test showed a significant relationship between innovativeness and patterns of calculator use.

The 26-item ITHS was pretested in one community in North Carolina. Responses were factor analyzed and items receiving factor loadings greater than .50 were retained. Based on this procedure, all 26 items were utilized in the ITHS.

Housing Values

A pilot test was developed using the values statements from the research of Beyer et al. (1955). Two sets of statements were included. Set one was the original nine values orientations used by Beyer et al. (1955); set two was a reduced set of statements representative of the four major values groups described by Beyer et al. (1955). These 13 statements were utilized in a paired-comparison format. Factor analysis was performed and the original nine values orientations reduced to four values groups. The results lead to the conclusion that the four values statements used in the S-194 study can be substituted for the original nine values statements, and the paired-comparison technique is reliable in measuring values orientations (Beamish, McCray, Weber, & Brewer, 1989).

Data Collection

The community data collection process was based on Dillman's Total Design Method (Dillman, 1978). A 12-page questionnaire and a cover letter (Appendix B) were mailed to each household chosen for the study. Each questionnaire was coded with a response number; this number was used only to facilitate contacting those households who did not initially respond to the survey.

After approximately two weeks, households who had not responded were sent a reminder postcard (Appendix B). If no response was received after approximately two more weeks, a duplicate copy of the questionnaire and a follow-up letter (Appendix B) were mailed to non-responding households. Completed questionnaires from all households identifying themselves as living in the community were then coded.

Each of the seven states was responsible for collecting, coding, and cleaning the data from respondents in their state. The data were then sent to Oklahoma State University for creation of a regional master file. The data were again checked for inconsistencies by each participating state and corrections made on the master file.

Of the 16,845 questionnaires mailed, 13,977 were delivered. A total of 5341 were completed and returned for a response rate of 38.21 percent. The current study

focuses on responses of blacks and whites who answered all questionnaire items pertinent to the present study.

Individuals were eliminated if they failed to respond to the values portion of the survey or if they indicated their race was something other than black or white.

Respondents meeting this criteria included 399 blacks and 3917 whites.

Data Analysis

Objective One

To address the first objective of this study which was to analyze the relationship between housing related values and race, chi-square analysis was used. It is appropriate to use a chi-square test because the variables under consideration are nominal and ordinal level data. That is, the independent variable of race is expressed as black or white (nominal), and the dependent variable of values choices is based on data which was rank ordered as determined by number of times each value was chosen (ordinal). Additionally, the ranked values were assigned a classification (nominal) for further analysis.

The chi-square test applies to counted rather than measured values. If race (or the culture of race) makes a difference in values chosen, then the observed frequencies will differ significantly from the expected frequencies

and the chi-square values will be large. If the differences between races are small, then the chi-square differences will be small. The effects of income, education, age, and sex were controlled by sorting the data by each of the categories and subjecting each variable to a chi-square analysis.

Objectives Two and Three

To examine the relationship between innovativeness and various socio-demographic variables, the analysis of variance F-test was employed. An analysis of variance test is used to determine if the means of two or more groups differ from one another to a greater extent than the scores within each group differ from their own group's mean. If the variance among groups is substantially greater than the variance within the groups, then we conclude the samples are significantly different.

In the current study, the analysis of variance F-test was used to determine if the innate innovativeness scores for various groups (based on age, income, education, and race, as well as knowledge scores and seeks housing-information scores) were significantly different. The t-test was used for analysis involving race as only two categories (black and white) were included. It is appropriate to use the analysis of variance and t-test procedures because the dependent variable is interval

level data and a systematic random sample was employed.

CHAPTER IV

HOUSING VALUES: RACIOCULTURAL DIFFERENCES
IN RURAL COMMUNITIES IN SEVEN
SOUTHERN STATES

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HOUSING VALUES: RACIOCULTURAL DIFFERENCES
IN RURAL COMMUNITIES IN SEVEN
SOUTHERN STATES

The American attitude regarding the role of race and culture in the United States is now in its third stage. The first stage, known as Anglo-conformity, demanded that all ties to ones ancestral heritage be abandoned and the values and behavior of the dominant group be adopted (Loftin, 1989).

The second stage, the melting-pot concept, was a recognition of immigrant cultures and the expectation that all peoples would biologically and psychologically merge, and that this blending would create a uniquely American culture (Nobles, 1978; Staples and Mirande, 1980). Current literature suggests that while the melting-pot theory has not been totally abandoned, it is no longer the preferred perspective.

The third and current stage is cultural pluralism (Lieberson & Waters, 1988). It is an acceptance of ancestral heritage and a push for preservation of significant group traditions, within the context of political and economic integration into American society.

It is with the intention of contributing to the body

of knowledge regarding understanding of cultural pluralism that this study on housing-related values is being conducted. The purpose of this research is to analyze the relationship between housing-related values and race.

Review of Literature

Values are said to be the underlying motivation for human actions; they are sometimes thought of as strongly held beliefs. Kluckhohn and Others (1951) describe values as a conception of the desirable which influences action. There are three dimensions to the concept of values--the cognitive, affective, and behavioral (Rokeach, 1973). That is to say, we choose our values based on knowing what is considered good or right; we prize what is valued--we feel emotional about it; and we take action based on personal values. It is the impact of values on actions that makes them central to understanding human behavior.

Individuals and families express their values in choices and actions related to housing. Cutler (1947) identified ten values that influence housing decisions. They are beauty, comfort, convenience, location, health, personal interests, privacy, safety, friendship activities, and economy. This is one of the earliest studies to relate values directly to housing.

With Cutler's research for a base, Beyer, Mackesey, and Montgomery (1955) studied values of families. The

study looked specifically at the values of economy, family centrism, physical health, aesthetics, leisure, equality, freedom, mental health, and social prestige. Based on values preferences, families were classified into four groups--the economy group, the family group, the personal group, and the social group. Differences were found in the way families in the various groups used their homes.

Families in the economy group were found to be more concerned with size, quality, and maintenance of their homes than with emotional appeal or appearance. Those families classified in the family group preferred a comfortable home with ample space for family activities and children's play. The personal group was composed of families who liked a simple floor plan, privacy, and orderliness. The fourth group did not have enough respondents to determine its significance, but it was inferred that members of this group liked the latest styles and desired to entertain often. This is the social group.

It was observed that the family group and the economy group were equally divided as to size--32% of respondents were in each. The personal group was third with 12%, and 24% of respondents did not classify into any one group, indicating that their value orientations were less focused. One of the few housing studies completed since the Beyer et al. (1955) research also found economy and

family centrism to be the top values selections (Stoeckler and Hasegawa, 1974).

An investigation of values of middle socioeconomic families in planning their living environments was conducted by Meeks and Deacon (1972). Given choices between five values, 53 homemakers ranked the social value first, economic value second, and personal value third. Rankings for prestige and aesthetics were not reported. It is important to note that the social value was defined for respondents as close association with family and friends.

Housing values have been compared between groups on a somewhat limited basis. McCray and Day's (1977) study of low-income respondents used a modified version of Cutler's original 10 values. In comparing 79 rural and urban respondents, they found only one significant difference in rankings of values between the two groups--rural respondents gave convenience a higher priority.

Ha and Weber (1991) also compared urban and rural samples. They found that both groups rated family well-being highest and the social value lowest. However, rural respondents rated economic values higher than personal values while urban respondents gave more importance to personal values and less to economic values.

A comparison of housing values among families revealed differences based on life cycle stages (Downer,

Smith, and Lynch, 1968). Families in the preschool stage tended to value family centrism while retirees selected the personal and social values.

Culture and Values

In the social science community, there is widespread recognition of bias that has existed in racial/cultural research (Berardo, 1980; Cox, 1990; Demos, 1990; Nobles, 1978; Peters, 1978; Wilkinson, 1978). In part due to the prevailing melting-pot theory, past research tended to couch findings in terms of least differences. The current trend toward cultural pluralism allows a more open approach to human differences. Today, rather than trying to show how similar the various societal groups are, we can acknowledge differences and reach a deeper understanding of the human culture.

One of the problems facing researchers is that of definition. "Culture," "race," and "ethnicity" take on slightly different meanings and have different emotional appeals. Race is commonly used to denote biological differences among groups. Ethnicity and culture are often associated with customs, traditions, beliefs, and behaviors.

While race is not the only criterion for determining culture, it has an initial and dominant impact on the concepts generally associated with culture. In fact, the

two terms are often used synonymously (Galster, 1975; Nobles, 1978). The term "racioethnic" has been used to fill the gaps of definition (Cox, 1990). Likewise, "racioculture" shall be defined for this study as a group whose race is a prevailing indicator of culture.

The classic studies of Rokeach (1973; 1979) and Rokeach and Parker (1970) lend insight into values differences of whites and blacks. They found that 15 out of 36 values differed significantly for whites and blacks. After controlling for income and education, these 15 differences were reduced to seven. "We regard these seven differences as the essence of whatever is meant by black versus white culture..." (Rokeach & Parker, 1970, p. 108). The top three values among blacks were (1) a world at peace, (2) equality, and (3) freedom; the top three values among whites were (1) a world at peace, (2) family security, and (3) freedom. The greatest difference was in the ranking of equality--blacks ranked it number two while whites ranked it number 12.

The aforementioned research was conducted in 1968. When the study was repeated in 1971 (Rokeach, 1979), the value of equality had increased significantly for whites (to sixth) and had decreased (not significantly) for blacks (to fourth). Rokeach suggests that the civil rights movement had a significant impact on white Americans. This illustrates the stable but changeable

nature of values, and the need for continuing research.

The issue of equality is a useful example in understanding the role that need plays in individuals' values choices. The discriminations incurred by blacks make them keenly sensitive to issues of equality. It has not been proven that values reflect needs; however, there is evidence to suggest that this may be true (Rokeach, 1973).

While little attention has been given to housing values research in recent years, even less consideration has been given to the cultural dimensions of housing values. Black-white housing literature pertains overwhelmingly to discrimination. New information is needed in addressing pluralistic cultural housing needs.

Methodology

Sample Selection

For this study, four communities in seven participating states were selected from a pool of communities with a population between 2,500 and 10,000 in a non-Metropolitan Statistical Area (MSA). Incorporated county seats with a population ranging from 1,000 to 2,500 were also included if they were non-MSA counties that did not have a town with a population of 2,500 to 10,000 (Hanna, McMannus, Beamish, & Goss, 1991.)

Households were selected for the study based on a systematic sampling procedure. Telephone directories were obtained for each of the communities and all eligible listings identified. Those not eligible included nonresidential listings (businesses, offices, churches), second phone listings for the same address, and listings with no address. A questionnaire was mailed to each selected household, along with a letter explaining the importance of the study and a postage paid return envelope. Based on the Dillman Total Design Method (Dillman, 1978), a reminder postcard and a duplicate copy of the questionnaire were sent to non-responding households. Of the 16,845 questionnaires mailed, 13,977 were delivered. A total of 5341 were completed and returned for a response rate of 38.21%. The current study focuses on whites and blacks, of which there were 3917 and 399 respondents, respectively, who answered the values portion of the questionnaire.

Instrument

The four values statements in the current study were designed to be representative of the four housing-related values groups identified by Beyer et al. (1955). The four values groups include the following:

- (1) economy--those most concerned with economic issues of housing,

- (2) family--those most interested in providing for the health and well-being of family members,
- (3) personal enjoyment--those wishing to express themselves rather than impress others through their homes, and
- (4) prestige--those who view housing as a status symbol.

The current study followed the format used by Cutler (1947), in which respondents were asked to make "forced choice comparisons" for six pairs of values statements. The questionnaire also employed questions regarding demographics.

The values questions were developed from Beyer's et al. (1955) study, and pilot tested. Two sets of statements were utilized. Set one was the original nine values orientations used by Beyer et al. (1955); set two was a reduced set of statements representative of the four major values groups described by Beyer et al. (1955). These 13 statements were utilized in a paired-comparison format. Factor analysis indicated that the four statement values set was comparable to the original nine statement values set (Beamish, McCray, Weber, & Brewer, 1989).

Results

Characteristics of Respondents

The sample consisted of nine percent blacks and 91%

whites (see Table 2). Ages of the respondents were similar between groups; 40% of blacks and 47% of whites were between 40 and 64 years of age.

Insert Table 2 about here

The two groups were exact opposites on sex of respondent. While 63% of the black respondents were female, 63% of the white respondents were male. The largest proportion of each group was married (48% of blacks and 76% of whites); 36% of blacks had either never married or were widowed, compared to 15% of whites in the same categories.

Extent of formal education differed between the two groups. The percentage of blacks who had less than a high school education was more than double the percentage of whites with less than a high school education (40% compared to 19%).

The annual income for blacks was found to be considerably lower than the annual income for whites. Forty-two percent of blacks compared to 13% of whites indicated an annual income of less than \$10,000. Eleven percent of blacks compared to 40% of whites reported an income of \$30,000 or more.

Values Orientations

By nature, individuals have many values. In forced choice situations, some values take on greater significance or are given higher priority than others. This forced choice values ranking was utilized in the current study. In the paired comparison format, a rank was assigned to each of the four housing values statements, based on the number of times each statement was selected. The most preferred value was chosen three times, the next most preferred value was chosen two times, and the third value chosen once. The fourth value, the least salient to the respondent, was not selected (chosen zero times). Values selections were analyzed using chi-square analysis (see Table 3).

Insert Table 3 about here

The majority of respondents chose family well-being as their most highly ranked value; 85% of blacks and 92% of whites chose it three times, making it the number one choice. Economy was the second preference overall, with 47% of blacks and 58% of whites choosing the economy value statement twice. Third was the value of personal enjoyment and self-expression which was chosen once by 49% of blacks and 50% of whites. The value selected least was social status; the social value statement was chosen zero

times by 68% of blacks and 90% of whites. Chi-square analysis was used to determine if there were significant differences in the values rankings between black respondents and white respondents. Differences were found to be significant ($p < .001$) for each of the four housing values. Due to the small number of respondents in some cells, an adjusted chi-square was determined for each of the values. The results were unchanged; differences remained significant for each of the four values.

Values Classifications

Responses were also analyzed according to their pattern or classification. For example, if a respondent chose the family values statement three times, the economy values statement twice, the personal values statement once, and the social values statement zero times, the resulting classification would be FEPS (family, economy, personal, and social). This was the most common classification; 38% of blacks and 45% of whites chose this pattern. The second most common classification was the FPES pattern which consisted of 25% of the black respondents and 39% of the white respondents. Each of the remaining classifications (a total of 36 possible) was chosen by less than six percent of either black or white respondents. Table 4 shows the top five classifications, all of which indicate family well-being as the highest

value. Chi-square analyses revealed that even though the classification rankings were similar between blacks and whites, the percentages of each were significantly different ($p < .001$). Blacks chose a greater variety of values classifications than did whites. Only 10% of whites were in values classifications other than the top five; however, 22% of blacks were in values classifications other than the top five.

Insert Table 4 about here

To determine the differences in housing values between blacks and whites which might be accounted for by demographic variables, further analyses were conducted. Chi-square analysis revealed significant differences in housing values between blacks and whites even when the variable of income was held constant. The same was true when each of the variables of education, age, and sex were held constant. Because of the small number of respondents in some cells, an adjusted chi-square analysis was also conducted. This minimizes the possibility of a few responses unduly influencing the test outcome. Results of both the chi-square and the adjusted chi-square analyses are reported in Tables 5-9.

Significant differences were found for two of the three income categories (see Table 5). For blacks, as

Insert Table 5 about here

income increased, the FEPS classification was selected more often; for whites, the same classification was chosen less often. Both groups selected the FPES classification more often at the upper income level than at the lower income level.

Insert Table 6 about here

There were significant differences between blacks and whites for two of the three levels of education (see Table 6). As education increased, blacks chose FEPS and FPES more often; whites chose FEPS less often but FPES more often.

Insert Table 7 about here

As age increased, fewer blacks chose the FEPS classification while more whites did so (see Table 7). The reverse was true for the FPES classification--older blacks chose it more often than younger blacks, but older whites chose it less often than younger whites.

Significant differences were also found in values classifications between black and white males, and between

Insert Table 8 about here

black and white females (see Table 8). Chi-square analysis showed significant differences between blacks and whites in the married and the never married categories. The categories of separated/divorced and widowed showed no significant differences (see Table 9).

Insert Table 9 about here

Discussion and Implications

The general ranking of housing values and the resulting values classifications tend toward the same pattern for both blacks and whites. That is, the greatest percent of both blacks and whites chose the FEPS classification followed by the FPES classification with all remaining classifications coming in a distant third, fourth, fifth, and so on. However, blacks were much more diverse as a group than were whites. The FEPS and FPES classifications accounted for only 63% of black respondents but 84% of white respondents--a difference of 21%.

This difference was spread throughout the remaining classifications. Much of the difference was concentrated

in the social status value. While 12% of blacks ranked social status as first or second, less than three percent of whites did so. This is consistent with the findings of Rokeach (1973) who suggested that the average black American, more than the average white American, yearns for a more equal status in society.

Differences also existed in the personal enjoyment value. Twelve percent of blacks gave this the lowest ranking while only three percent of whites rated it lowest. Blacks may be so concerned with day to day living and economic challenges, that personal enjoyment is not given high priority. Another consideration may be that whites experience less personal enjoyment in day to day life and therefore feel a greater need for this value than do blacks.

Differences in housing values classifications of blacks and whites continued to exist when each of the variables of income, education, age, and sex were accounted for. Since education and income level often neutralize differences between groups, it is noteworthy that values differences between the majority of blacks and whites in this study were not nullified when education or income level were held constant. However, when blacks and whites reached incomes of \$30,000 or greater, and when blacks and whites had earned a college degree or beyond, significant differences decreased. It may be that

individuals who have made it through the financial and educational systems have grown more similar due to shared experiences, or due to mandated expectations imposed by those systems.

Blacks are bicultural due to the very nature of being a minority within the culture of a majority (Valentine, 1971). It is reasonable to assume, therefore, that the more social systems in which an individual is involved, the more bicultural one becomes. This biculturation may account for the lessening of values differences between blacks and whites with higher incomes and more education as found in this study.

Rokeach (1973) suggests that social factors of income and education account for most of the values differences between blacks and whites. The current study finds that differences in housing values between blacks and whites cannot be explained away by social class. Raciocultural influence on housing values goes beyond income and education.

Recognition of cultural pluralism in housing values may lead to more satisfactory housing for individuals and families. Beyer et al. (1955) found that housing values were an indication of features considered desirable in a home. The vast majority of both black and white respondents in this study rated family values first. Housing features related to this value include ample space

for family activities and safe and healthy housing conditions. The second value preference in a home for those in the FEPS classification would be economy. Cost, a simple floor plan, and economical maintenance reflect desirable housing features related to economic values. If an individual's classification was FPES, then personal values would take precedence over economic values. Housing which corresponds to the personal enjoyment value provides for privacy and orderliness. Because 32% of blacks chose the social status value at least once, compared to only 10% of whites, housing which reflects this value would seem to be desirable for blacks. The social status value can be seen in housing which has style and space for entertaining.

There are several applications of housing values theory which could benefit families, communities, and the economy. Families could benefit from knowing their values by being better able to utilize existing spaces, or to make plans for remodeling. With an understanding of housing values, designers and builders could more adequately assess family interests and aid families in decisions concerning designs. Realtors who were aware of housing values of particular families might be able to better meet the needs of both buyers and sellers. And community leaders who understand what the residents of their town consider important in housing, are more likely

to have satisfied citizens and public housing facilities that are appreciated and cared for by residents.

Acknowledging housing values preferences between cultural groups as well as within cultural groups benefits not only individuals and families but the larger community.

Future studies may want to explore cultural interpretations of values statements. The current study is based on housing values which were derived from previous studies conducted with all white respondents. As such, there may be raciocultural bias in the values statements. Culturally oriented values statements could contribute to the body of knowledge regarding housing values. That is, values statements which more clearly define social status, personal enjoyment, economy, and family in easily and widely recognized terms of a given culture, could more accurately reflect values orientations of that culture.

The results of this study strongly indicate that there are raciocultural factors which impact what one considers important or of value in a home. If housing is to truly meet not only the physical needs of individuals and families, but psychological needs as well, it is time to acknowledge, appreciate, and actively pursue housing alternatives which allow expression of raciocultural differences.

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Table 2

Characteristics of Respondents

Variables	Blacks n = 399 %	Whites n = 3916 %
Age		
Less than 40	38.5	31.1
40-64	39.6	46.5
65 and older	21.9	22.4
Sex		
Male	37.3	63.1
Female	62.7	36.9
Education		
Less than high school graduation	39.9	18.5
At least high school graduation but less than college graduation	44.9	57.4
College graduation and beyond	15.3	24.1
Income		
Less than \$10,000	41.9	12.6
\$10,000-\$29,999	46.8	47.3
\$30,000 or greater	11.3	40.1
Marital Status		
Never Married	18.4	4.4
Married	48.1	75.9
Separated or Divorced	15.9	9.3
Widowed	17.7	10.5

Note. Due to rounding, all percentages do not equal 100.

Table 3

Housing Values of Blacks and Whites

Values	Blacks n = 399 %	Whites n = 3916 %	X ²
Family			27.1***
Not chosen	0.3	0.1	
Chosen once	2.8	0.9	
Chosen twice	11.8	6.7	
Chosen three times	85.2	92.3	
Economy			39.4***
Not chosen	10.8	4.0	
Chosen once	39.4	44.2	
Chosen twice	47.1	49.5	
Chosen three times	2.8	2.3	
Personal			69.7***
Not chosen	11.8	3.4	
Chosen once	49.4	50.1	
Chosen twice	35.3	44.1	
Chosen three times	3.5	2.5	
Social			179.7***
Not chosen	68.2	90.0	
Chosen once	19.6	7.3	
Chosen twice	10.8	2.6	
Chosen three times	1.5	0.2	

***p<.001

Note. Due to rounding, all percentages do not equal 100.

Table 4

Values Classifications of Blacks and Whites

	χ^2	n	Classifications					OTHER %
			FEPS %	FPES %	FPSE %	FESP %	FSEP %	
Race	125.11***							
Blacks		399	37.6	25.1	5.3	5.5	4.8	21.8
Whites		3917	45.1	38.8	2.8	2.0	1.2	10.2

*** $p < .001$ Note. Due to rounding, all percentages do not equal 100.

Table 5

Values Classifications of Blacks and Whites by Income

Income	χ^2	n	Classifications					
			FEPS %	FPES %	FPSE %	FESP %	FSEP %	OTHER %
Less than \$10,000	36.28*** 26.40**** ^a							
Blacks		163	31.9	25.2	7.4	6.8	6.1	22.7
Whites		479	50.5	25.5	1.6	3.3	2.3	17.1
\$10,000-\$29,999	47.01*** 41.26**** ^a							
Blacks		182	40.1	24.2	5.0	4.4	5.0	21.4
Whites		1793	45.7	38.0	2.8	2.2	1.5	9.8
\$30,000 or more	15.32** 3.14 ^a							
Blacks		44	47.7	31.8	0.0	6.8	0.0	13.6
Whites		1521	42.5	43.9	3.3	1.1	0.4	8.8

**p<.01

***p<.001

^aAdjusted chi-squareNote. Adjusted chi-square is reported for sparse cell chi-squares.Note. Due to rounding, all percentages do not equal 100.

Table 6

Values Classifications of Blacks and Whites by Education

Education	χ^2	n	Classifications					
			FEPS %	FPES %	FPSE %	FESP %	FSBP %	OTHER %
Less than high school graduation	46.71*** 32.49****							
Blacks		159	30.8	23.3	7.6	6.3	6.3	25.8
Whites		723	50.2	26.8	1.7	5.1	2.2	14.0
At least high school graduation but less than college graduation	72.88*** 57.05****							
Blacks		179	38.7	25.0	4.8	6.6	4.2	20.8
Whites		2245	47.1	39.1	2.3	1.4	1.3	8.8
At least college graduation	14.63* 6.01*							
Blacks		72	50.0	29.2	1.4	1.4	2.8	15.3
Whites		1208	38.9	45.4	4.2	1.1	0.3	10.1

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

*Adjusted chi-square

Note. Adjusted chi-square is reported for sparse cell chi-squares.Note. Due to rounding, all percentages do not equal 100.

Table 7

Values Classifications of Blacks and Whites by Age

Age	χ^2	n	Classifications					
			FEPS %	FPES %	FPSE %	FESP %	FSEP %	OTHER %
Less than 40	60.11*** 44.42**** ^a							
Blacks		141	40.4	22.0	5.7	7.8	4.3	19.9
Whites		1164	39.7	44.6	4.6	1.9	1.1	8.1
40-64	58.74*** 52.24**** ^a							
Blacks		145	37.9	24.1	4.1	4.1	4.1	25.5
Whites		1742	45.7	37.7	2.2	1.6	0.8	10.1
65 or older	14.42* 5.30 ^a							
Blacks		80	35.0	33.8	5.0	5.0	5.0	16.3
Whites		837	47.8	33.0	1.3	2.8	1.7	13.5

* $p < .05$ *** $p < .001$ ^aAdjusted Chi-squareNote. Adjusted chi-square is reported for sparse cell chi-squares.Note. Due to rounding, all percentages do not equal 100.

Table 8

Values Classifications of Blacks and Whites by Sex

Sex	X ²	n	Classifications					
			FEPS %	FPES %	FPSE %	FESP %	FSBP %	OTHER %
Male	72.54*** 49.84***							
Blacks		142	36.6	22.5	3.5	8.5	5.6	23.2
Whites		2403	45.5	38.6	2.8	2.0	1.5	9.7
Female	64.81*** 44.68***							
Blacks		239	38.9	26.4	6.3	4.2	3.8	20.5
Whites		1406	44.2	39.5	2.8	1.9	0.4	11.2

***p<.001

Note. Adjusted chi-square is reported for sparse cell chi-squares.Note. Due to rounding, all percentages do not equal 100.

Table 9

Values Characteristics of Blacks and Whites by Marital Status

Marital status	χ^2	n	Classifications					
			FEPS %	FPBS %	FPSE %	FESP %	FSEP %	OTHER %
Never married	19.31** 13.74** ^a							
Blacks		72	36.1	27.8	4.2	4.2	9.7	18.1
Whites		169	26.0	38.5	5.3	1.8	0.6	27.8
Married	84.08*** 64.98*** ^a							
Blacks		188	40.3	22.3	3.7	6.9	4.3	22.3
Whites		2950	46.5	39.2	2.8	1.9	1.2	8.4
Separated/Divorced	31.39*** 0.17 ^a							
Blacks		62	25.8	27.4	6.45	6.45	6.45	27.4
Whites		361	39.3	43.2	3.3	1.9	0.8	11.4
Widowed	10.93 4.64 ^a							
Blacks		69	44.9	26.1	5.8	2.9	0.0	20.3
Whites		408	46.8	33.1	1.0	2.7	1.2	15.2

*p<.05

**p<.01

***p<.001

^aAdjusted chi-squareNote. Adjusted chi-square is reported for sparse cell chi-squares.Note. Due to rounding, all percentages do not equal 100.

CHAPTER V

A CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE ON HOUSING INNOVATIVENESS

MANUSCRIPT FOR PUBLICATION

JOURNAL TITLE: HOUSING AND SOCIETY

A CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE ON HOUSING INNOVATIVENESS

Rogers' theory of diffusion of innovations (Rogers, 1983) forms a broad framework for the organization of past innovations research, and helps clarify gaps where future studies might contribute to the body of knowledge. His meta-research approach crosses discipline boundaries while encouraging focused research studies within disciplines.

Innovativeness is one of the key concepts associated with Rogers' theory. Because of the abstract nature and many dimensions of innovativeness, it continues to be a topic in need of research. The purpose of the current study is to explore innate innovativeness related to housing as perceived by whites and blacks in seven Southern states, and to compare the results to Rogers' (1983) generalizations of actualized innovativeness.

Review of Literature

The concept of innovativeness has been widely acknowledged and accepted among researchers as a "relative dimension" that all individuals possess to a greater or lesser degree (Hirschman, 1980; Leavitt & Walton, 1975; Midgley & Dowling, 1978; Price & Ridgway, 1982; Rogers, 1983). Agreement on how to operationalize innovativeness

has proven to be a greater challenge. Relevant literature measures innovativeness in three ways--time of adoption, cross-sectional measures, and innate innovativeness.

The "time of adoption" model measures the amount of time between an individual having knowledge of an innovation, until the time of adoption of the innovation. A time norm is established for that product and each individual is compared to the norm to determine individual innovativeness (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971).

There are obvious shortcomings to this method of measurement. For example, it relies on the respondent's recall for the date of purchase of the innovation. Another concern is that it measures time of adoption of only one product; someone may be an early adopter for one product and a laggard for another. Also, perceived need for a particular item may vary from person to person--those with greater need for or interest in that innovation might tend to purchase sooner and thereby be classified innovators. Another drawback of this method is its sensitivity to communication channels--individuals who are not introduced to or given timely knowledge of the innovation will not have the opportunity to be one of the first to adopt. Cost is another factor--if the innovation is costly, individuals or families with greater disposable income are in a better position to purchase innovations and be classified as innovators.

The second method of measuring innovativeness minimizes some of the inadequacies of measuring innovativeness by a single product purchase. This "cross-sectional" method (Robertson & Myers, 1969) considers a particular category of products, and determines how many new products in that category an individual has purchased at the time of the survey (Midgley & Dowling, 1978). Not only does this method eliminate the problem of respondent recall, but it controls for some of the situational effects of communication and product interest (Midgley & Dowling, 1978).

The third method has long been contemplated, but has had trouble finding a firm base. In 1971, Rogers and Shoemaker noted, "Personality variables associated with innovativeness have not yet received their share of research attention, perhaps because of difficulties of measuring these dimensions in field interviews" (p. 187). Studies which attempted to link personality with behavior had mixed results (Evans, 1959; Ostlund, 1974; Robertson & Myers, 1969; Summers, 1971; Tucker & Painter, 1961). One of the reasons given for a lack of definitive results in relating personality to behavior is the shotgun approach or absence of focus in the studies (Kassarjian, 1971; Jacoby, 1971). That is, individual studies were general in nature, as opposed to being limited to one specific product or field.

Midgley and Dowling (1978, p. 235) proposed a measure of innovativeness termed "innate innovativeness." Time of adoption and cross-sectional techniques measure observable behavior (which Midgley and Dowling refer to as "actualized innovativeness"), while innate innovativeness is a measure of a quality which all individuals possess to some degree--much like all individuals possess some degree of kindness or creativity.

Midgley (1977, p. 49) defined innate innovativeness as "the degree to which an individual makes innovation decisions independently of the communicated experience of others." It is often thought of as a strong interest in ideas and things that are new and different, and using novel or creative ways of doing things (Gruber, Beamish, Carter, Shelton, & Weber, 1990).

There are many intervening variables between innate and actualized innovativeness. Just as creativity may be stifled or enhanced by environment and opportunity, likewise, some of the factors which intervene between innate and actualized innovativeness (such as income or social influence) may limit or encourage expression of that quality. Midgley and Dowling (1978) suggest that innate innovativeness could best be measured by using a scale, and mention possible questionnaire items. Other researchers (Craig & Gintner, 1975; Gruber et al., 1990; Leavitt & Walton, 1975; Price & Ridgway, 1982) have

advanced the use of scales in measuring innovativeness.

Innovativeness towards housing may be measured by actual housing purchases (the time of adoption method) or by assessing an individual's innate propensity for housing innovations. Innate innovativeness has distinct advantages in the field of housing. Housing innovations tend to be complex, have low degrees of trialability and observability, and are major investments for consumers. Since it is difficult to ascertain the best use of time and money in providing information concerning innovative housing, a measure of innate innovativeness could help in disseminating knowledge to those who would tend to be most receptive.

Past research has shown relationships between actualized innovativeness and certain demographic and sociographic variables. Rogers (1983) compiled the findings and made the following generalizations:

- (1) Innovativeness is not related to age,
- (2) Earlier adopters have more years of education,
- (3) Earlier adopters have a higher social status than later adopters (as measured by income).
- (4) Earlier adopters seek information about innovations more actively than later adopters, and
- (5) Earlier adopters are more knowledgeable than later adopters.

Rogers measured innovativeness by time of adoption and made generalizations about innovators based on that definition. However, very little research has considered innovativeness as measured by innate innovativeness rather than actualized innovativeness. The relationships between innate innovativeness and age, education, and social status have not been studied.

Likewise, very little literature deals directly with innovativeness and culture or race. Innovation studies have been conducted in many countries, but differences among cultures within countries have been ignored.

The current study examines innate innovativeness in regard to the demographic variables of age, education, and income as well as the more sociographic variables of "has knowledge of" and "seeks information concerning." This study also explores similarities and differences related to innovativeness in housing based on race.

Methodology

Sample Selection

Communities selected for the study had a population between 1,000 and 10,000 in non-Metropolitan Statistical Areas in seven Southern states. Four communities in each state were selected for a total of 28 (for further information regarding community selection, see Hanna,

McMannus, Beamish, & Goss, 1991.)

Households within the 28 communities were selected based on a systematic sampling procedure, using local telephone directories. A questionnaire was mailed to each selected household, along with a letter explaining the study and a postage paid return envelope. Based on the Dillman Total Design Method (Dillman, 1978), a reminder postcard and a duplicate copy of the questionnaire were sent to non-responding households. Of the 16,845 questionnaires mailed, 13,977 were delivered. A total of 5341 were completed and returned for a response rate of 38.21 percent. The current study focuses on responses of whites and blacks (n=4316) who answered all questionnaire items pertinent to the present study.

Instrument

As a tool for examining innovativeness related to housing, a 26-question scale was developed. The scale was adapted from two other scales designed to measure innovativeness--"use innovativeness" developed by Price and Ridgway (1982) and "trait innovativeness" developed by Leavitt and Walton (1975). Innovativeness concepts were retained but wording was changed to reflect a housing orientation.

To establish reliability of the instrument, the scale was pilot tested and factor analyzed. Factors with

eigenvalues greater than one were retained, with seven factors accounting for 77.5% of the variance. Items with factor loadings greater than .50 were retained which resulted in all 26 items being included in the current innovativeness scale (Gruber et al. 1990). Overall, the housing innovativeness scale had a high degree of reliability.

Results

Characteristics of Respondents

The respondents ranged in age from 15 to 96. Those less than 40 years of age comprised 32% of the sample, while those 70 and older accounted for 13%. The remaining 55% were fairly evenly dispersed among respondents in their 40s, 50s, and 60s (see Table 10).

Insert Table 10 about here

Of those responding to the questionnaire, 61% were male and 39% were female. Ninety-one percent of the respondents were white and nine percent were black. The proportion of blacks in this study is somewhat less than the average black-white percentages in this region. Of the black-white population in the seven states in this study, 79.3% are white and 20.7% are black (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990).

Mean educational attainment was slightly higher than high school graduation--56% of the respondents had some education beyond high school. Income levels varied from 15% having an annual income of less than \$10,000, to 12% reporting an income of \$50,000 or greater. Mean annual income was in the mid-\$20,000 range.

Seventy-three percent of the respondents were married, 10% were separated or divorced, 11% were widowed, and 6% were never married. While 16% reported living alone, 8% lived in households of five or more persons. The greatest percentage (39%) were two-person households.

Mean Innate Innovativeness Scores

Mean innate innovativeness scores of various age groups were examined using the F-test from the analysis of variance procedure and the Duncan multiple range test. Interestingly, the mean score decreased with each increase in age level (see Table 11). Significant differences were found between those 49 years of age and younger, respondents in their 50s, respondents in their 60s, and respondents 70 years of age and older. There is a clear indication that for this sample, as age increases, innovativeness decreases.

Insert Table 11 about here

An analysis of variance F-test revealed that mean innovativeness scores differed for the four education levels (see Table 11). Mean innovativeness scores for respondents with less than a high school education were lower than mean scores of respondents who had graduated from high school. Likewise, respondents with education beyond a high school diploma had higher mean innovativeness scores than those with a high school education, but the mean scores dropped for those with college degrees.

Income also tended to have a positive influence on mean innovativeness scores (see Table 11). Respondents with incomes less than \$10,000 had significantly lower innovativeness scores than individuals with incomes of \$10,000 to \$19,999. Significant differences were also found between these two groups and respondents with annual incomes of \$20,000 to \$29,999. Respondents earning \$30,000 to \$39,999 were also significantly different from lesser income groups in their innovativeness scores. Mean innovativeness scores increased significantly for each income level except the \$40,000 or greater group. However, this group still maintained the next to highest mean innovativeness score.

Respondents were asked about their knowledge level of several housing types. Based on their answers, a knowledge score was assigned to each respondent. Analysis

of variance F-test was performed to determine if mean innovativeness scores were significantly different between knowledge groups. Table 12 shows that the two groups with the highest knowledge scores also have the highest innovativeness scores. Those with the lowest innovativeness scores tend to be in the middle range of knowledge and information seeking.

Insert Table 12 about here

The survey asked respondents whether they had looked for information about several housing types. Their responses became the basis for an "information-seeking" score. Mean innovativeness scores were analyzed according to the various levels of information-seeking groups. While there were significant differences among the groups, no trend could be determined (see Table 12). It may be noteworthy that, as with the housing knowledge groups, the two groups with the highest information-seeking scores also have the highest innovativeness scores.

Even though all respondents were from similar geographic and demographic settings (small rural Southern communities), significant differences were found between blacks' and whites' innovativeness scores (see Table 14). Blacks were found to be significantly more innovative than whites, based on mean innovativeness scores.

Insert Table 13 about here

Additional comparisons were made between innovativeness scores of blacks and whites while controlling for education and income (see Table 13). This was accomplished by comparing innovativeness scores of blacks and whites who were in the same income groups, and comparing innovativeness scores of blacks and whites at the same educational levels. T-test statistics revealed that as education increased, differences in innovativeness scores decreased. The same was true for income--as annual income increased, differences in mean scores for innovativeness decreased. However, while differences became less pronounced, blacks consistently had higher innovativeness scores than whites.

Discussion

Innate innovativeness is a new concept in the area of housing. While it would appear to have distinct advantages over actualized innovativeness, there is much to be learned. Comparisons of the two concepts are a beginning.

Rogers proposed that actualized innovativeness is not related to age. This was based on a review of studies related to innovativeness, which revealed that

approximately 48% of the 228 studies examined showed no relationship between innovativeness and age. An additional 33% showed early adopters to be older, while 19% of the studies found early adopters to be younger (Rogers, 1983, p. 251).

In the current study, innate innovativeness in housing appears to be related to age, with younger respondents being more innovative. These findings may relate to innate innovativeness, in general. Or it may be that in the area of housing, younger people have more of a propensity to be innovative. Becoming accustomed to or comfortable with ones surroundings through the years, may lessen interest in innovativeness in housing.

Education and income were found to be positively related to innate innovativeness. Likewise, actualized innovativeness is generally found to increase as education or income increase. Since education expands the limits of what one knows, it is reasonable to assume that it also makes one aware of possibilities. That is, awareness may be a catalyst in the philosophical acceptance of new products or ideas. While income is often a necessary prerequisite for actualized innovativeness (the actual purchase of a product), it may play a role in innate innovativeness by allowing experiences which, like education, make one more aware of possibilities.

Rogers generalized that innovative people would have

more knowledge about innovations and would more actively seek information about innovations than would less innovative people. The current study shows no decisive trend in this regard--knowledge and information-seeking scores do not consistently increase as innovativeness increases. However, innovativeness scores are greatest for those respondents most likely to be knowledgeable or to seek information about housing. This is a reasonable expectation since those who are innovative are, by definition, interested in ideas or things that are new or different.

Differences in innate innovativeness based on race may need more study before well-founded conclusions can be drawn. It would appear that cultural differences which emerge due to the influence of race, may nurture the propensity to be innovative (Stack, 1974). It may be that circumstances force some groups of people to be more innovative than others. Future research may investigate the role of race in innovativeness across various populations--urban and rural, region of the country, stage of the life cycle, satisfaction with their housing, and quality of life.

Implications

This study has provided information related to innate innovativeness as it relates to housing. The primary use

of such information may lie in marketing. Having a better sense of who is most likely to be accepting of new ideas and things, will provide a basis for "target audiences." This is not necessarily a marketing tool for profit-seeking businesses, but for educators and for those concerned with natural resources and the environment.

For example, the push to inform and influence the American public in adopting ideas and products instrumental in conserving energy has been met with minimal acceptance, at best (Beamish, Sweaney, Tremblay, & Bugg, 1987; McCray & Weber, 1981). The current study suggests that the target audience for innovative energy-conserving housing products might be those individuals less than 50 years old. Likewise, blacks would appear to be more open than whites to new housing ideas and things. Education and income continue to be important variables in determining acceptance of new ideas. Additional instrumental variables may be added as more research is completed.

The idea of innate innovativeness is new and the self-assessed innovativeness survey is relatively simple to administer. Based on comparisons, individuals with high innate innovativeness scores seem to have some common characteristics with early adopters as measured by actualized innovativeness. Future studies may compare additional characteristics based on the two measures. If

the two measures consistently show similarities, the innate innovativeness assessment tool may prove to be a boon to educators and others who wish to target their resources for maximum effectiveness.

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Table 10
 Characteristics of Respondents

Variables	Respondents	
	n	%
Age		
Less than 30	419	10.2
30-39	886	21.6
40-49	765	18.6
50-59	733	17.8
60-69	759	18.5
70-79	420	10.2
80 and older	127	3.1
Sex		
Male	2545	60.7
Female	1645	39.3
Race		
Black	399	9.2
White	3917	90.8
Education		
Less than high school graduation	882	20.5
High school graduation	1002	23.2
Greater than high school graduation but less than college graduation	1422	33.0
College graduation and beyond	1004	23.3

Income

Less than \$10,000	642	15.3
\$10,000-\$19,999	973	23.2
\$20,000-\$29,999	1002	24.0
\$30,000-\$39,999	668	16.0
\$40,000 or greater	896	21.4

Marital Status

Never Married	241	5.6
Married	3138	73.3
Separated or Divorced	423	9.9
Widowed	477	11.1

Household Members

One	683	16.2
Two	1635	38.9
Three	822	19.5
Four	742	17.6
Five	249	5.9
Six or more	75	1.8

Note. Due to rounding, all percentages do not equal 100.

Table 11

Mean Innate Innovativeness Scores by Age, Education, and Income

Variables	Innate innovativeness scores	
	Mean	F-value
Age		46.63 ****
Less than 30	3.56 a	
30-39	3.52 a	
40-49	3.49 a	
50-59	3.40 b	
60-69	3.31 c	
70-79	3.16 d	
80 or older	3.12 d	
Education		41.23 ****
Less than high school graduation	3.27 d	
High school graduation	3.36 c	
Greater than high school graduation but less than college graduation	3.50 a	
College graduation and beyond	3.44 b	
Income		33.12 ****
Less than \$10,000	3.22 d	
\$10,000-\$19,999	3.37 c	
\$20,000-\$29,999	3.44 b	
\$30,000-\$39,999	3.49 a	
\$40,000 or greater	3.48 ab	

****p<.0001

Note: For each variable, means with the same superscript are not significantly different from each other (Duncan Multiple Range Test).

Table 12

Mean Innate Innovativeness Scores by Knowledge and Information-Seeking

Variables	Innate innovativeness scores	
	Mean	F-value
Housing knowledge scores		48.79 ****
6--Most knowledgeable	3.57 a	
5	3.52 ab	
4	3.33 bcd	
3	3.17 d	
2	3.20 cd	
1--Least knowledgeable	3.37 bc	
Seeks housing-information scores		24.42 ****
4--Seeks information the most	3.51 a	
3	3.46 ab	
2	3.33 b	
1	3.39 ab	
0--Does not seek information	3.41 ab	

****p<.0001

Note: For each variable, means with the same superscript are not significantly different from each other (Duncan Multiple Range Test).

Table 13

Mean Innate Innovativeness Scores by Race

Variables	Innate innovativeness scores		
	Mean		t-value
	Blacks	Whites	
Race	3.50	3.40	4.13 ****
Education			
Less than high school graduation	3.49	3.22	5.94 ****
At least high school graduation			
but less than college graduation	3.53	3.44	2.63 ***
At least college graduation	3.46	3.44	0.40
Income			
Less than \$10,000	3.43	3.15	6.41 ****
\$10,000-\$29,999	3.54	3.39	3.97 ****
\$30,000 or more	3.58	3.48	1.29

***p<.001

****p<.0001

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

The purpose of the current study was to examine differences and similarities between two raciocultural groups, blacks and whites, related to housing innovativeness and values. Rather than supporting the null hypothesis of "no difference," several significant differences were discovered.

Both black and white respondents ranked the family well-being value first, the economy value second, the personal enjoyment value third, and the social status value last. However, significant differences were found between the two groups in the percentages selecting each value. The greatest difference was found in the social status value. Ten percent of the white respondents chose the social status value at least once, while nearly 32% of the black respondents chose this value at least once. (See Appendix C for graphs of findings from this study.)

Future researchers may wish to investigate the dimensions of the social status value. For example, does need play a role in the values choices of individuals as Rokeach (1973) has suggested? Can housing help to satisfy

that need? Perhaps blacks' selection of the questionnaire statement, "social standing and formal social life," is a reflection of the importance of a social network or a kinship network within the black culture, as suggested by Stack (1974).

Because the current research is descriptive, not explanatory, reasons for values differences have not been addressed. Future studies might take a more qualitative approach to the study of differences based on racioculture. Understanding why there are values differences among cultures may help builders and community leaders to better meet the needs of their communities.

Rogers (1983) measured innovativeness by the "time of adoption" method. His review of studies from many disciplines found no consistent relationship between age and innovativeness. The current study measured innate innovativeness by a self-assessment survey. Innate innovativeness towards housing was found to decrease as age increased. In the area of housing, it is reasonable that younger individuals would be more open to new ideas and products. The American dream still includes owning and furnishing a home, and this is a goal of many young couples. As families settle into a dwelling and become comfortable with the house and neighborhood, they may experience less desire to change. More research is needed to determine if younger individuals consistently show a

greater propensity towards housing innovativeness.

Innate innovativeness in housing was found to increase as education and income increased, to a point. As individuals reached the educational level of college graduation and beyond, or the income level of \$40,000 or more, slight decreases were observed in innate innovativeness. Rogers (1983) generalized that innovativeness increased as education and income increased. It is easy to see why this is true in the case of actualized innovativeness; the actual purchase of an innovation requires the expenditure of income, and income is often closely associated with education. The fact that the lowest levels of income and education are also associated with low innate innovativeness scores, leads to several possible explanations. Perhaps education and income provide experiences that broaden ones sense of what is possible and help individuals to be more open to new possibilities. Another explanation may be that individuals who are less interested in new ideas or products, may also be less interested in an education, or less driven to earn a large income. More study is needed to determine causes for the relationships between innate innovativeness in housing and age, education, and income.

Differences were found in innate innovativeness scores of blacks and whites, with blacks being significantly more innovative than whites. When

respondents were compared while controlling for education level, significant differences were found for all but the college graduate and above category. Likewise, significant differences were found between blacks and whites for all income levels of less than \$30,000. Differences in innate innovativeness in housing were not significant at the upper income and education levels, which might suggest that differences decrease as individuals work their way through societal systems. Valentine (1971) suggested that minorities are bicultural. It may be that the economic and educational systems play a major role in the enculturation of individuals. Research which investigates the impact of societal systems on bicultural groups could expand the knowledge base.

The major finding of this research is that raciocultural groups differ significantly in values choices and innate innovativeness related to housing. While the melting pot theory suggested that we all become one in thought and action, cultural pluralism encourages expression of the uniqueness of ones culture. If various cultures have values preferences that impact the design and use of their homes, it would be advantageous for families, designers, builders, realtors, and community leaders to integrate those preferences into their planning. As innate innovativeness becomes more thoroughly understood, housing educators and marketers

will be able to more effectively promote new ideas and products.

Recommendations

Cutler (1947) used a variety of methods for assessing values related to housing. Respondents were given a list of ten homes (for example, a very beautiful home, a very comfortable home, a home with everything convenient) and asked which home they would most like to live in. They were to rank the homes from one to ten. Respondents were then given a short description of each home, and asked to select their top three choices and last two choices. The third method was a paired-comparison survey. Respondents selected between the ten homes using forty-five paired-comparison values statements. Results showed that the paired-comparison format was the most reliable and valid of the methods.

While the current study used a paired-comparison format to allow respondents to select among four values statements, complementary methods might be used. Self-ranking of values or case study choices are additional suggestions for determining values of respondents.

Cutler's (1947) pioneering efforts have long been recognized by housing researchers, yet few follow-up studies have been conducted. Replication of the Cutler (1947) study may shed new light on values choices of

families nearing the twenty-first century.

Past studies have tended to ignore cultural differences in both sample selection (respondents in early studies were white) and in the language used in the instrument. More cultural consideration and understanding of values is needed in the development of values statements.

Studies related to housing have generally focused on traditional families. The array of non-traditional families in society today implores researchers to consider the values of these families and their corresponding housing needs.

The Downer et al. (1968) study found differences in values based on life cycle stages. Additional research is needed to understand the changing nature of family housing values over time and in relation to culture.

Much is yet to be discovered regarding innate innovativeness. Continued research is needed to gain a more encompassing picture of its dimensions. The concept of innovativeness has been measured in several ways, and very few comparisons have been made between methods of measurement to determine if they overlap or measure entirely different dimensions.

Future studies may compare innate innovativeness, as measured by a self-administered survey, to innovativeness as measured by time of adoption. Studies which track

individuals in a sample over time, may gain insight as to whether individuals with high innate innovativeness actually become adopters of products. If there are differences in those who are innately innovative and those who are adopters of ideas and products, researchers might investigate the intervening variables which encourage or discourage actual adoption or purchase of products.

Since innate innovativeness is a relatively new concept, more in-depth study is needed in the area of housing. Additionally, research in other fields would add to the knowledge base and allow conclusions to be drawn regarding innate innovativeness from a wider frame of reference.

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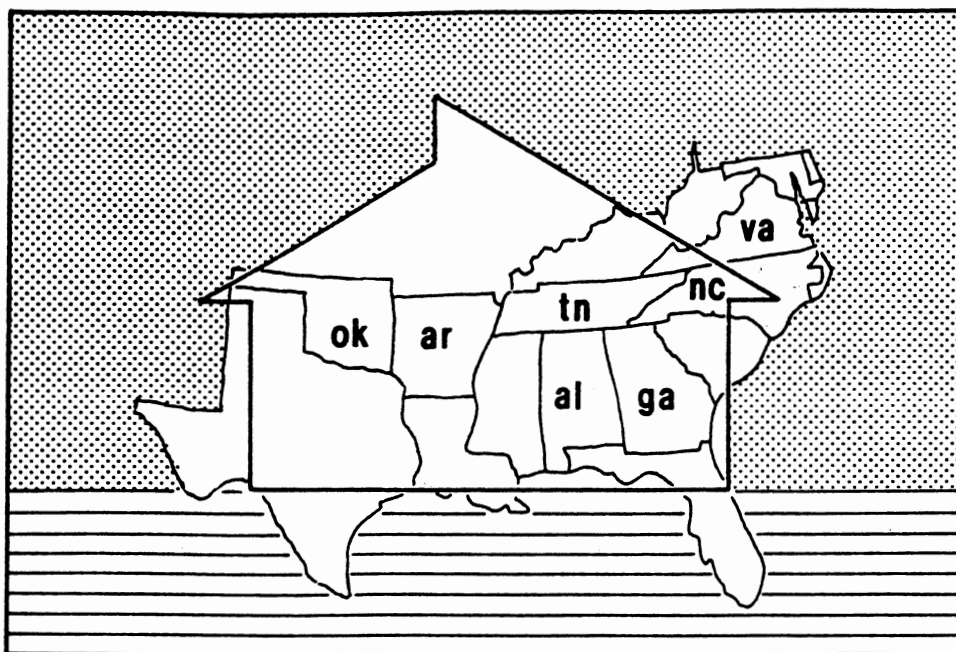
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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

MAIL QUESTIONNAIRE



TAHLEQUAH

Housing Questionnaire

Throughout this questionnaire you are asked questions about various topics including different housing choices. As you answer the questions, try to think about the different types of housing in Tahlequah. For example, when you are asked to consider a mobile home, try to base your answer on a typical mobile home, not a fancy double-wide mobile home on a beautifully landscaped lot or a run-down 20 year-old model. If you are not familiar with a particular issue, simply circle the "Don't Know" category.

Your name will never be revealed in any way. Please DO NOT write your name on the questionnaire. Thank you for your help! Please return this questionnaire in the enclosed stamped envelope to:

Dr. Margaret Weber
 Professor
 438 Home Economics West, HHC'S
 Oklahoma State University
 Stillwater, OK 74078-0337

Respondent Number: _____

For each of the following statements, indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

(circle only one answer for each question)

- | | Strongly
Disagree | | | | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1. The unusual house is often a waste of money. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I like to experiment with new ways of doing things. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. I like to take a chance. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. I enjoy looking at new housing designs in magazines. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Some contemporary housing is stimulating. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I like to fool around with new ideas even if they turn out to be a waste of time. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. When it comes to taking chances, I'd rather be safe than sorry. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Changing technology, especially in housing, is a waste of money. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. If builders would quit wasting their time trying to create new housing types, they could build more affordable housing. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. I would rather not waste my time with some new ideas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. I like to try new and different things. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. I like housing that is a little different. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. I often try to find out more about new housing types. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Buying a new housing type that is not widely available often costs more than it's worth. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. I would like a house that does not require me to learn new ways of doing things. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. I am less interested in the appearance of a house than in its comfort. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. As long as a heating system works well and meets my needs, I do not really care how it works. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. I am very curious about how new things work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. I like to build things for my house. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. I never take anything apart because I know I will never be able to put it back together again. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. I like to fix things around the house. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. I would rather make repairs around the house myself than to have someone else make them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
23. The outside appearance of a house is not important.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I do not enjoy any product unless I can use it to its fullest capacity.	1	2	3	4	5
25. It is always possible to improve upon a house by adding new features.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I try to keep up with new products and ideas that could improve my house.	1	2	3	4	5

Look at each pair of value questions below and circle the number for the value that is most important in that pair to you. It may be difficult to decide, but you should make a choice for each pair.

27. 1. Social standing and formal social life are important to me.
2. Personal enjoyment, self expression and beauty are important to me.
28. 1. Physical and mental health and the well-being of my family are important to me.
2. Durability and economy are important to me.
29. 1. Personal enjoyment, self expression and beauty are important to me.
2. Physical and mental health and the well-being of my family are important to me.
30. 1. Durability and economy are important to me.
2. Social standing and formal social life are important to me.
31. 1. Personal enjoyment, self expression and beauty are important to me.
2. Durability and economy are important to me.
32. 1. Physical and mental health and the well-being of my family are important to me.
2. Social standing and formal social life are important to me.

Which of the following housing types and arrangements have you heard about, read about, seen, or lived in? (circle only one answer for each question)	Don't		
	know/ Never heard	Seen/ Read/ Heard	Lived In
	-----	-----	-----
33. Mobile home	1	2	3
34. Apartment/Townhouse	1	2	3
35. Solar house	1	2	3
36. Earth-sheltered house	1	2	3

Do any of the following housing types exists in your town ?

(circle one answer for each question)

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Don't Know</u>
37. Mobile home	1	2	9
38. Apartment/Townhouse	1	2	9
39. Solar house	1	2	9
40. Earth-sheltered house	1	2	9

Have you ever looked for information about any of these housing types?

(circle one answer for each question)

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
41. Mobile home	1	2
42. Apartment/Townhouse	1	2
43. Solar house	1	2
44. Earth-sheltered house	1	2

Based on the information you now have, would you consider living in any of these housing types?

(circle one answer for each question below)

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Maybe</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Don't Know</u>
45. Mobile home	1	2	3	9
46. Apartment/Townhouse	1	2	3	9
47. Solar house	1	2	3	9
48. Earth-sheltered house	1	2	3	9

Of the following housing types, which do you think will be in the greatest demand in your community in the next five years? Please place a "1" by the housing type you think will be in the greatest demand and a "2" by the housing type in the second greatest demand.

49. _____ Houses
50. _____ Mobile homes
51. _____ Apartments/Townhouses

Please circle the number of your answer to indicate the extent to which you "agree" or "disagree" with the following statements.
(circle only one answer for each question)

- | | Strongly
Disagree | | | | | Strongly
Agree |
|---|----------------------|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 52. People are open to new and different housing ideas in my town. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 53. I think housing lenders are easy to deal with in my town. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 54. People can get just about any type of housing they can afford in my town. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 55. Leaders are concerned about the quality of housing in my town. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 56. Leaders have used state and federal programs to improve housing in my town. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |

For each of the following questions, please circle the number of your answer or write in the blank provided.

57. What is the size of the largest community in which you have lived?
(circle the number of your answer)
1. Fewer than 10,000 population
 2. 10,000 to 24,999 population
 3. 25,000 to 49,999 population
 4. 50,000 to 99,999 population
 5. 100,000 to 499,999 population
 6. Greater than 500,000 in population
58. When was your current housing built? _____ (estimate the year)
59. When did you first move into this unit? _____ (estimate the year)
60. Which of the following best describes this housing unit?
- 1 House
 - 2 Mobile home
 - 3 Apartment/Townhouse
 - 4 Other, describe _____
61. How many major rooms are there in your housing unit? Do not count bathrooms, utility rooms, unfinished basements, etc.? _____
62. Does this housing unit have complete plumbing, that is hot and cold piped water, a flush toilet, and a bathtub or shower?
- 1 No [If NO, go to question #65]
 - 2 Yes [If YES, continue]

If yes, how many bathrooms does the housing unit have? (Please complete by writing in the number in the space provided.)

63. ____ Complete baths (flush toilet, basin and tub or shower)

64. ____ Half-baths (flush toilet and basin)

→ 65. Do you own or rent this housing unit?

1 Own (paid for) **[Go to question #69]**

2 Own (buying)

3 Rent

4 Other, specify: _____

66. Approximately how much is your monthly house payment or rent? \$_____

Not Affordable

Very Affordable

67. To what extent do you feel your housing unit is 1 2 3 4 5 affordable for your household's income and size ?

68. If you own or are buying this housing unit, how much do you think this housing unit would sell for "if" it was for sale? \$_____

→ 69. Do you have plans to look for new or different housing within the next twelve months?
(circle the number of your answer)

1 No **[If NO, go to question #73]**

2 Yes **[If YES, continue]**

70. If yes, where do you plan to move?
(circle the number of your answer)

1 Within the town

2 Outside the town limits

71. Which of the following are you likely to do?
(circle the number of your answer)

1 Rent

2 Buy

72. Which of the following housing types are you likely to look for? (circle one)

1 Ordinary house

2 Mobile home

3 Apartment/Townhouse

4 Other, specify: _____

→ 73. Do people of different racial or ethnic background live in your neighborhood? (circle the number of your answer)

1 No

2 Yes

If a family moved in the housing unit next to yours, would you mind if the family was: (Circle one answer for each question.)

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
74. Of another race	1	2	3	4	5
75. Of another religion	1	2	3	4	5
76. Of another nationality	1	2	3	4	5
77. Physically disabled	1	2	3	4	5
78. Mentally disabled	1	2	3	4	5
79. A female head with children	1	2	3	4	5
80. Elderly	1	2	3	4	5
81. Of lower economic status	1	2	3	4	5

Please rate the adequacy of the following services that are in your community. (Circle one answer for each question.)

	Not Adequate				Superior
82. Schools	1	2	3	4	5
83. Police protection	1	2	3	4	5
84. Fire protection	1	2	3	4	5
85. Public water service	1	2	3	4	5
86. Public sewer service	1	2	3	4	5
87. Paved roads and streets	1	2	3	4	5
88. Hospitals	1	2	3	4	5
89. Libraries	1	2	3	4	5
90. Recreation facilities	1	2	3	4	5
91. Shopping areas	1	2	3	4	5

We want you to think about the incentives and barriers facing households in your town in obtaining adequate and affordable housing. For each statement please indicate (by circling one number) the degree to which the situation described "restricts" or "promotes" individuals and families in obtaining adequate and affordable housing in your town. Also, please give reasons for your responses.

	Barrier (Restricts)		Incentive (Promotes)		Don't Know	Reason(s)
92. Availability of a wide range of building products for home construction in my community.	1	2	3	4	5	9

	Barrier (Restricts)	Incentive (Promotes)	Don't Know	Reason(s)			
93. Availability of quality home builders and developers in my community.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
94. Supply of affordable housing	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
95. Availability of water and sewer	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
96. Availability of housing for people of different racial minorities and ethnic backgrounds	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
97. Attitude of local finance institutions toward financing newer types of housing	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
98. Attitude of local finance institutions toward financing multi-family housing	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
99. Attitude of local finance institutions toward financing mobile homes	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
100. Availability of government assisted housing programs in my community	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
101. Building codes which affect the construction of certain types of housing	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
102. Local enforcement of zoning regulations	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
103. Consumer acceptance of new types of housing such as solar or earth-sheltered housing	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
104. Builders' acceptance of newer types of housing in my community	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
105. Approval process for acquiring a building permit	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
106. Local enforcement of building codes	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
107. Residents' concern for the improvement of housing quality in my community	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
108. Availability of a wide range of skilled labor for home construction	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
109. Availability of rental housing for large families or for families with small children or infants	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
110. Consumer knowledge about new types of housing	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	
111. Supply of vacant housing units in my community	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	9	

	Barrier (Restricts)	Incentive (Promotes)	Don't Know	Reason(s)
112. Presence of natural features (e.g., high water table, mountainous terrain) which affect the construction of of certain types of housing	1 2 3 4 5		9	
113. Attitude of community officials in my community toward newer types of housing	1 2 3 4 5		9	
114. Attitude of community officials in my community toward multi-family housing	1 2 3 4 5		9	
115. Attitude of community officials in my community toward mobile homes	1 2 3 4 5		9	
116. Supply of available land for housing in my community	1 2 3 4 5		9	
117. Zoning regulations which control multi-family or zero lot line housing	1 2 3 4 5		9	
118. Approval process for rezoning land for multi-family housing	1 2 3 4 5		9	
119. Availability of housing for people with low or limited incomes	1 2 3 4 5		9	
120. Availability of market information on the housing needs of the residents in my community	1 2 3 4 5		9	
121. Availability of financing for housing in my community	1 2 3 4 5		9	
122. Zoning regulations which affect the placement of certain types of housing	1 2 3 4 5		9	
123. Community officials' concern for the improvement of housing quality in my community	1 2 3 4 5		9	

The next set of questions pertain to personal data. Because we have asked your attitudes on certain issues, we now want to ask you a few questions about yourself. Again, we would like to remind you of the confidential nature of this questionnaire and that neither your name nor any other identifying information will not be revealed in reporting the findings.

124. Your marital status: (circle one)

- 1 Never married
- 2 Married
- 3 Separated
- 4 Divorced
- 5 Widowed

125. Please list all members of your household living at home. List yourself first. (Do NOT list persons who are away at college or in the armed forces; do NOT list persons at home only on vacation.) Print each person's first name, indicate the month and year born, their sex, and their relationship to you.

first name	Month and Day of Birth		Sex		Relationship To You		
	mth	year	M	F	Child	Parent	Other
Yourself: _____	_____	_____	_____	_____			
Spouse: _____	_____	_____	_____	_____			
Other Household Members: _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

126. Your race: (circle one)

- 1 Black
- 2 White
- 3 Hispanic
- 4 American Indian
- 5 Other: _____

127. Highest education level you achieved: (circle one)

- 1 Never went to school
- 2 Some grade school (grades 1 through 8)
- 3 Some high school (grades 9 through 12)
- 4 High school graduate or equivalent
- 5 Some college or vocational school beyond high school
- 6 Completed a vocational training program beyond high school
- 7 Completed a 2-year college degree
- 8 Completed a 4-year college degree
- 9 Completed a graduate or professional degree

128. Your employment status: (circle one)

- 1 Full-time
- 2 Part-time
- 3 Retired
- 4 Homemaker
- 5 Unemployed
- 6 Other: _____

129. Do you have a second or part-time occupation?

- 1 No
- 2 Yes (Specify: _____)

130. Which of the following ranges of income represents your household's total annual income? (please consider all sources of income from all contributing adults, such as wages, salaries, tips, social security, retirement income, investment income, child support, alimony, welfare, etc. (circle one)

- 1 Less than \$ 5,000
- 2 \$ 5,000 to \$ 9,999
- 3 \$ 10,000 to \$ 14,999
- 4 \$ 15,000 to \$ 19,999
- 5 \$ 20,000 to \$ 24,999
- 6 \$ 25,000 to \$ 29,999
- 7 \$ 30,000 to \$ 39,999
- 8 \$ 40,000 to \$ 49,999
- 9 \$ 50,000 or greater

131. If you were asked "What town do you live in?", would it be Tahlequah ? (circle the number of your answer)

- 1 No
- 2 Yes

132. Is your personal residence located within the city/town limits of Tahlequah ? (circle the number of your answer)

- 1 No
- 2 Yes

133. Please write any additional comments you might have regarding community acceptance of housing programs and building techniques in your community. Feel free to use the back of the questionnaire for additional space.

Thank you for your help!

APPENDIX B

CORRESPONDENCE



Oklahoma State University

COLLEGE OF HOME ECONOMICS
Department of Housing, Interior Design
and Consumer Studies

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078-0337
HOME ECONOMICS WEST BUILDING
(405) 624-5048

Housing is a major expense faced by most families and good quality housing is an important issue faced by Americans today. There are many different housing types to meet the different needs and desires of people. The Southern Regional Housing Research Committee representing seven universities* is jointly studying local housing needs and trends in small and mid-size cities and towns. The purpose of this survey is to understand how residents feel about the housing in their communities. Your opinions are important! Your answers will help policy makers and community leaders make important decisions about how they can help provide decent and affordable housing in their communities.

Each of the participating states is conducting a study in four cities/towns; Tahlequah is one of the four selected in Oklahoma. Your name was selected at random and we would like to invite you or someone in your household over the age of 18 to complete the enclosed questionnaire. Your answers will be completely confidential. The questionnaire has an identification number for mailing purposes only. This is so that your name can be checked off the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned. Please do not write your name on the questionnaire.

Receiving your questionnaire is so important that a PRIZE is being offered to one family from each community chosen at random from those who return the completed questionnaire postmarked by December 8, 1987. That family will be notified and can choose from a \$25 cash prize or a prize of equal value.

When you have completed the questionnaire, place it in the enclosed stamped envelop and mail. Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,

Gwendolyn Brewer

Gwendolyn Brewer
State Project Leader

Margaret Weber

Margaret Weber
State Project Leader

*Participating Universities

Auburn University
University of Arkansas at Pine Bluff
University of Georgia
North Carolina A&T State University
Oklahoma State University
University of Tennessee
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University



Celebrating the Past . . . Preparing for the Future

Last week a questionnaire asking for your ideas about housing in your area was mailed to you. Your name was selected at random from the households in your community. If you have completed and returned the questionnaire, please accept my sincere thanks. If not, please mail it today. Because the questionnaire has been sent to only a small, but representative sample in your community, it is extremely important that yours also be included in the study if the results are to truly show the feelings of the people in your community about housing. If by some chance you did not receive the questionnaire or it was misplaced, please call me at (405) 624-5048 and I will mail you another one today. Remember the drawing for the prize will be held next week.

Sincerely,



Gwendolyn Brewer
State Project Leader



Oklahoma State University

COLLEGE OF HOME ECONOMICS
Department of Housing, Interior Design
and Consumer Studies

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078-0337
HOME ECONOMICS WEST BUILDING
(405) 624-5048

About four weeks ago I wrote to you seeking your opinion about housing in your community. As of today, I have not received your completed questionnaire.

Our research unit has undertaken this study because of the belief that citizen opinions will help policy makers and community leaders make important decisions about how they can help provide decent and affordable housing in small cities and towns.

I am writing you again because of the importance each questionnaire has to the usefulness of this research. Your name was drawn by a random selection process in which every household in Tahlequah had an equal chance of being selected. This means that only one of every 20 families is being asked to take a few minutes to fill out the survey. In order for the results to accurately represent the attitudes residents have toward their housing, it is necessary that every household in the sample return their questionnaire. If for some reason, you no longer live in Tahlequah, please mark the cover page "Ineligible" and return the questionnaire without answering the questions.

In case your questionnaire has been misplaced, another is enclosed. Your contribution to the success of this study will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Gwendolyn Brewer
State Project Leader

P.S. The large number of returns received so far is encouraging. I know this is a busy time of year for everyone but I hope you will take a few minutes to complete the enclosed questionnaire today.

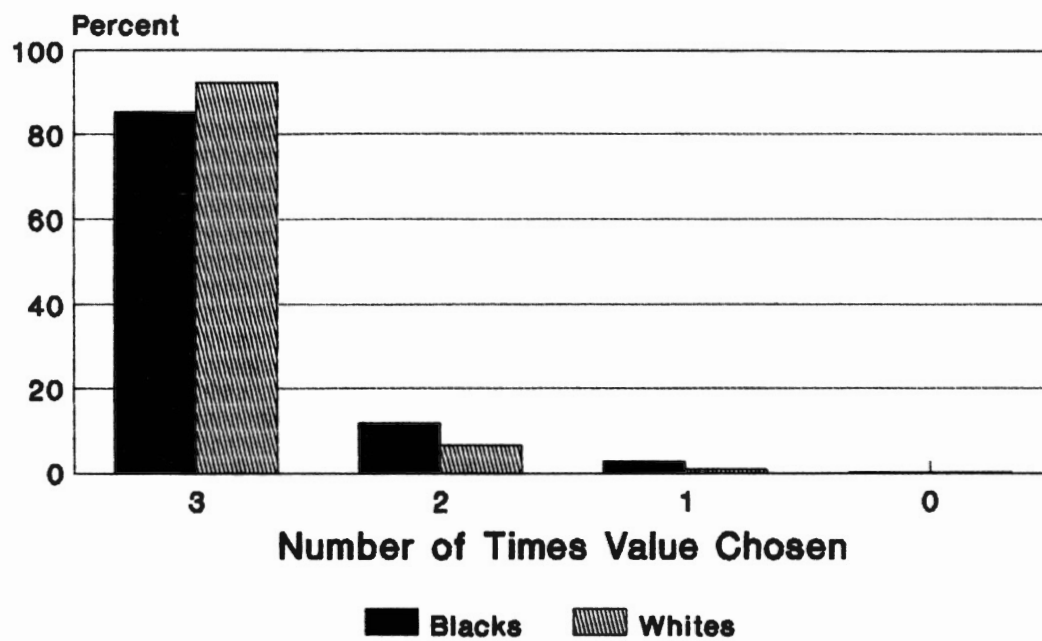


Celebrating the Past . . . Preparing for the Future

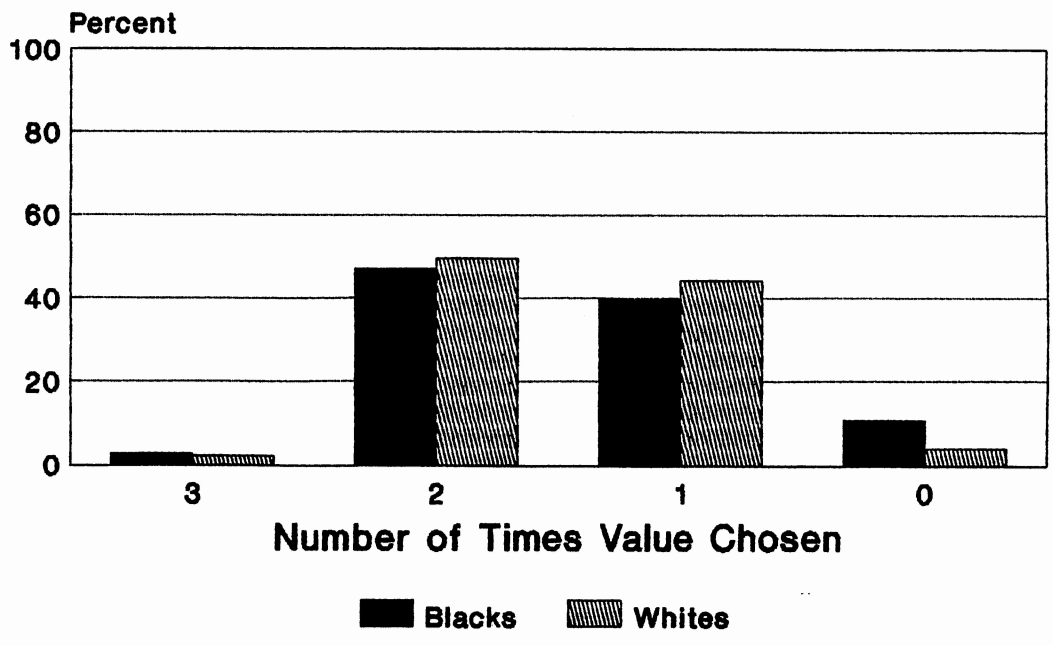
APPENDIX C

GRAPHS

Value Family Well-being

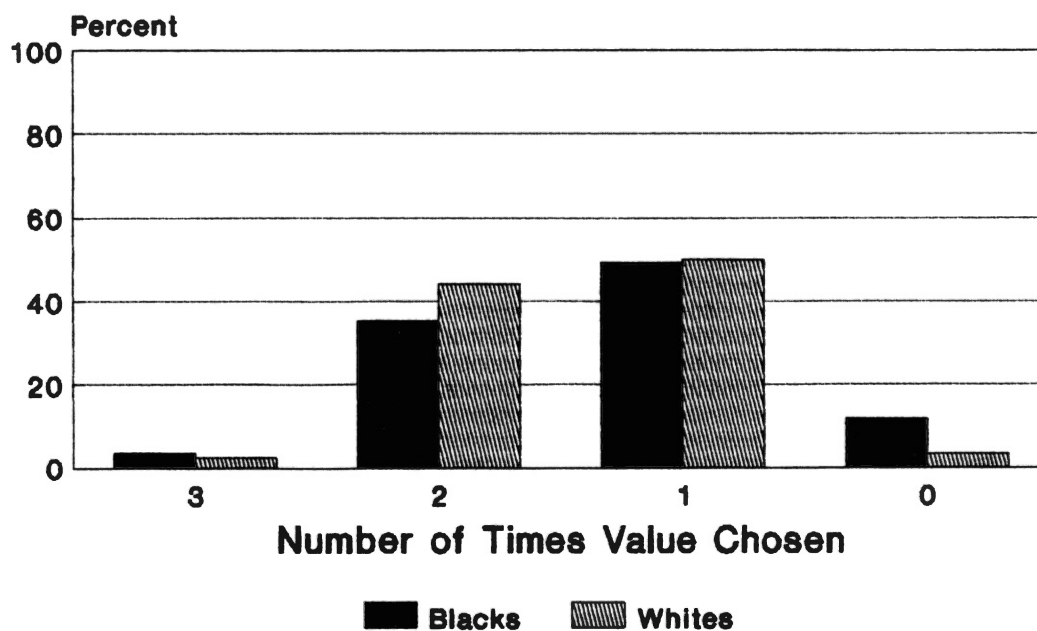


Value Economy

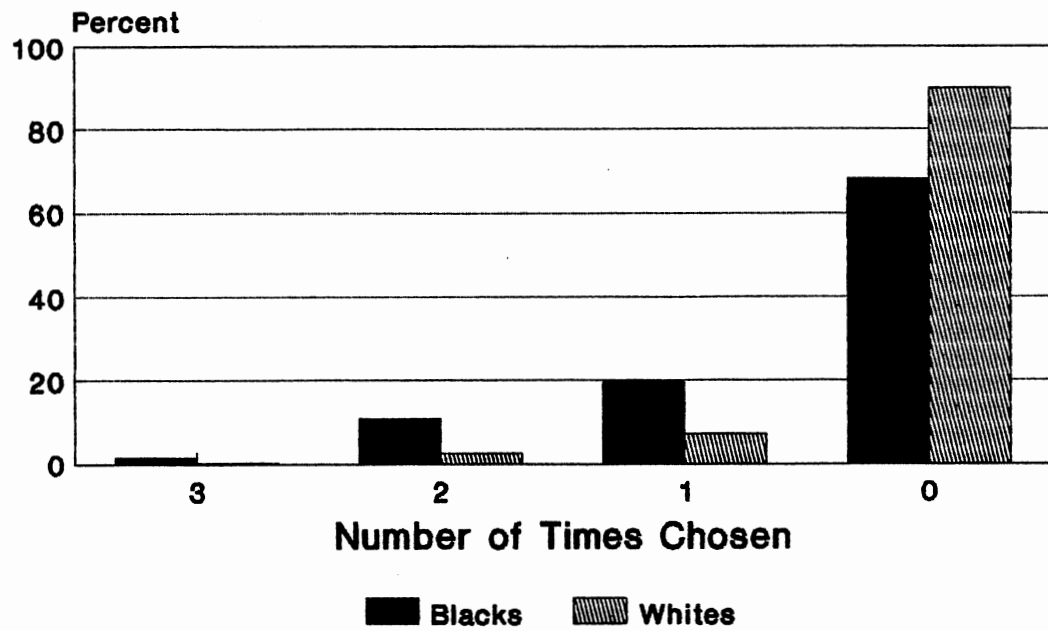


Value

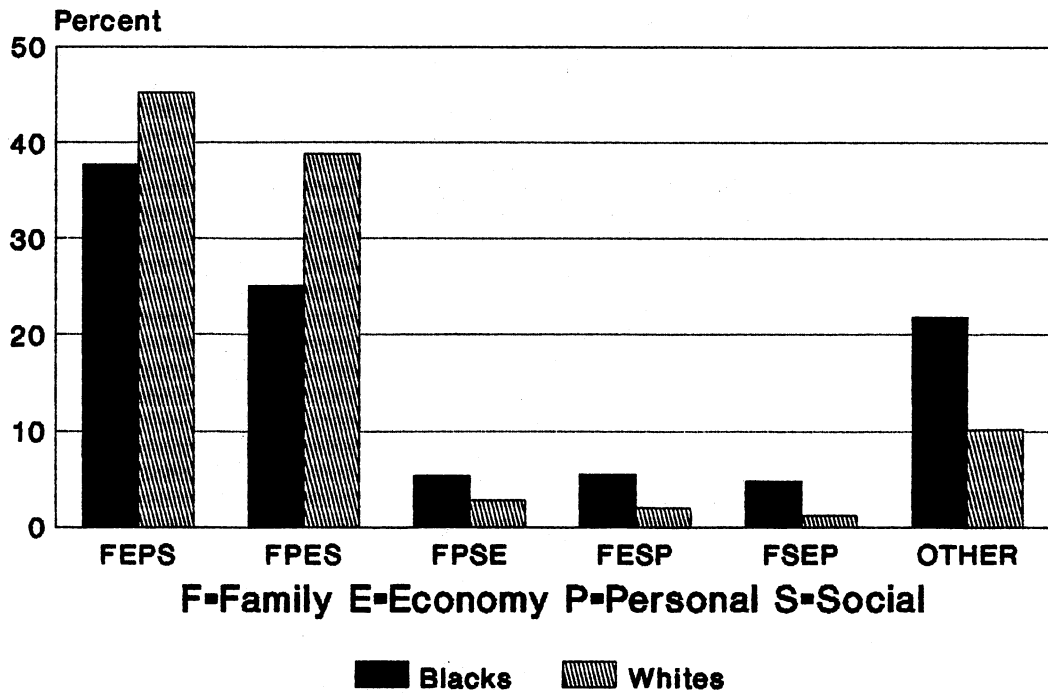
Personal Enjoyment and Self-Expression



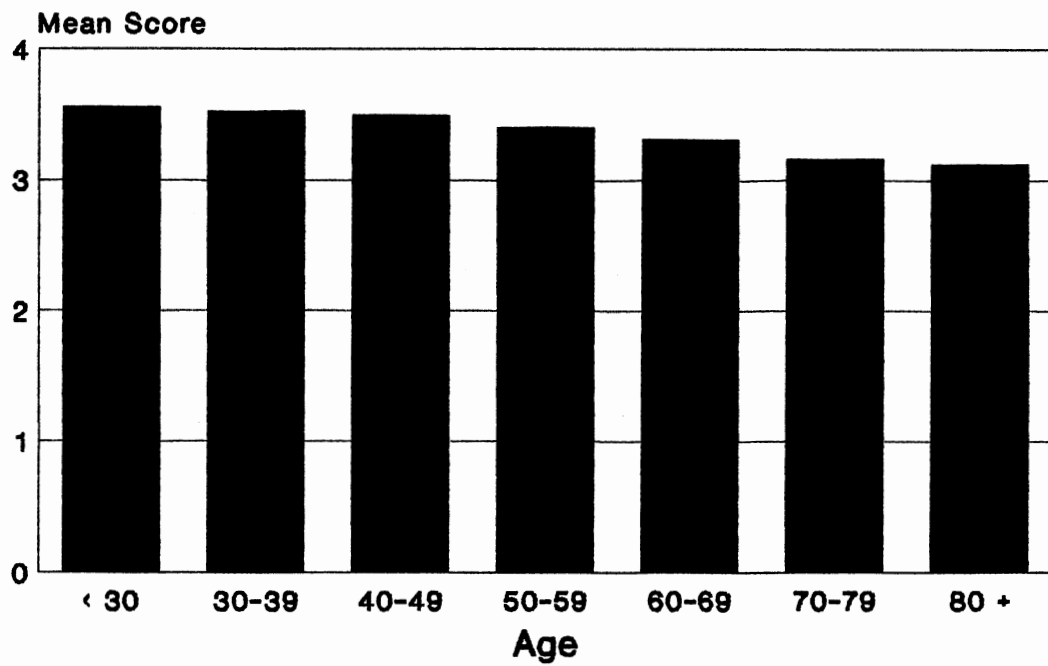
Value Social Status



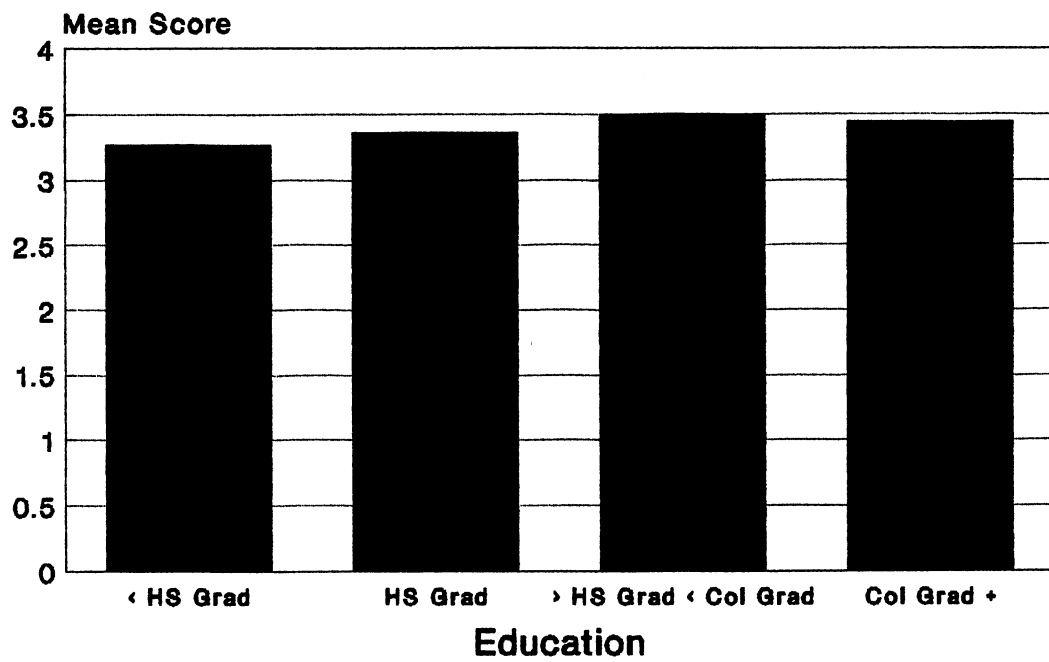
Values Classifications



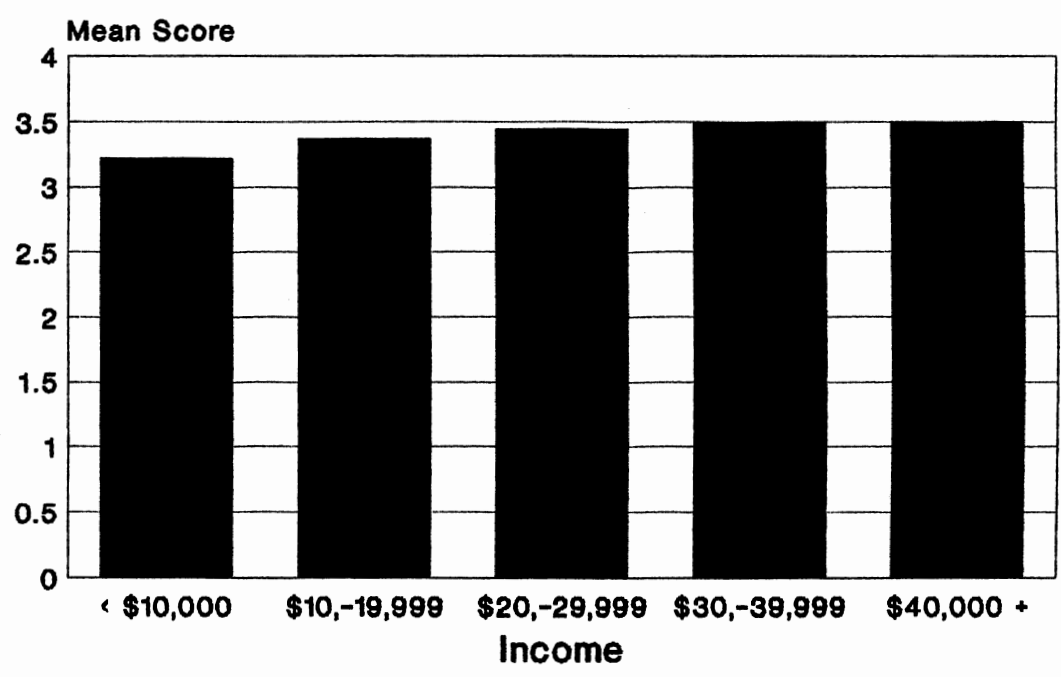
Innate Innovativeness by Age



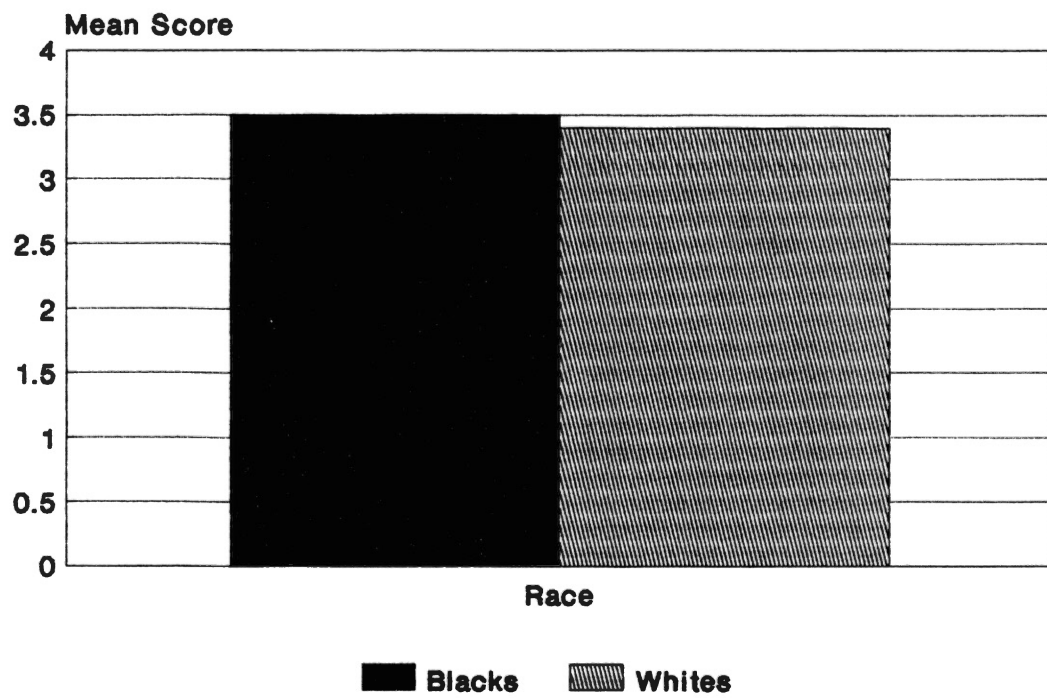
Innate Innovativeness by Education



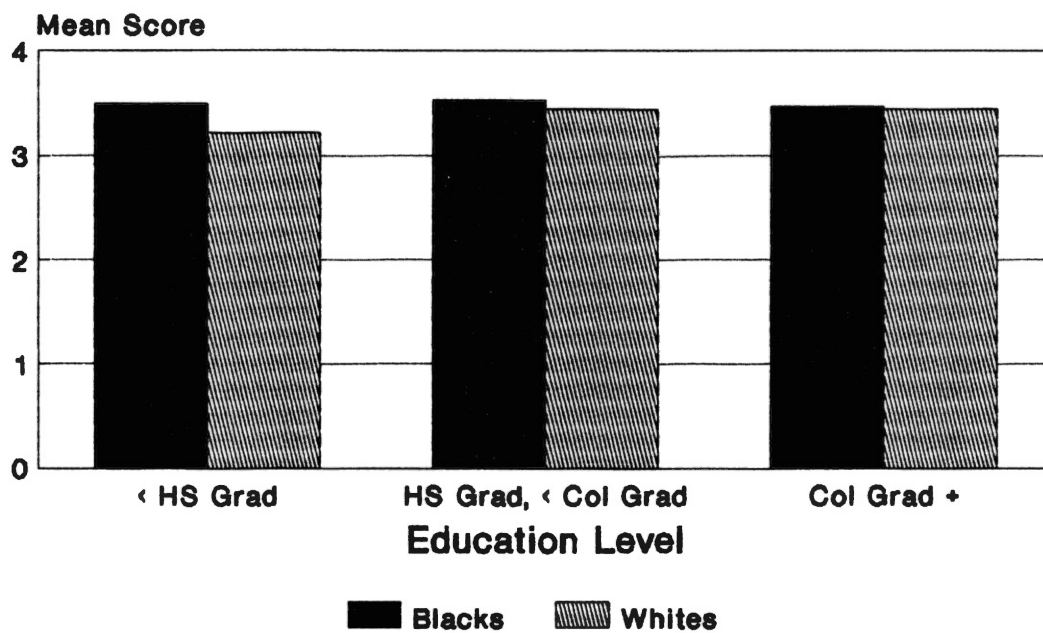
Innate Innovativeness by Income



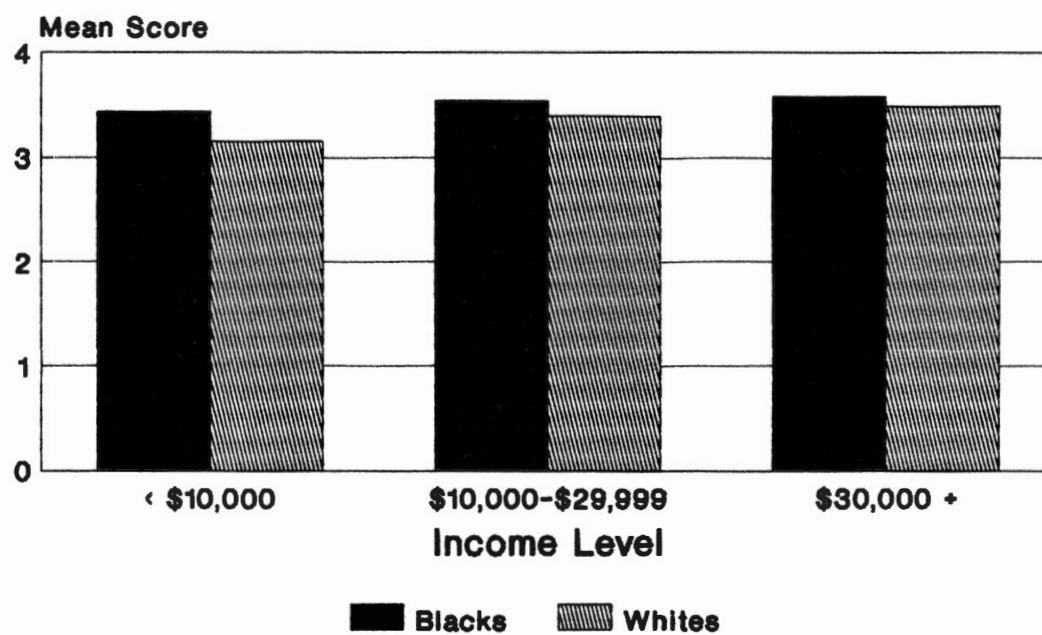
Innate Innovativeness



Innate Innovativeness by Education Level



Innate Innovativeness by Income Level



VITAE

Norma Ruth Nealeigh

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: HOUSING INNOVATIVENESS AND VALUES: A CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

Major Field: Home Economics

Area of Specialization: Housing

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Stratton, Nebraska, June 17, 1949, the daughter of Ruth Duckworth Nealeigh and Charles Levi Nealeigh.

Education: Graduated from Trenton High School, Trenton, Nebraska, in May 1967; received Bachelor of Science Degree in Vocational Home Economics Education from Kearney State College, Kearney, Nebraska, in May 1971; received the Master of Education Degree in Vocational Education from the University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska, in August 1980; completed requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy Degree at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, in July 1992.

Professional Experience: Interim Director of Student Academic Services, College of Human Environmental Sciences, Oklahoma State University, 1991-1992; Visiting Instructor, College of Human Environmental Sciences, Oklahoma State University, 1991-1992; Consultant, Teacher Development Programs, 1988-1992; Graduate Research Associate, Oklahoma State University, 1987-1991; Instructor, Kearney State College, 1986; Instructor, Chadron State College, 1983-1984; Home Economics Teacher, 1971-1983.