To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by James R. Smith entitled "Alternative Bases for Market Segmentation: An Empirical Investigation of Low and Middle Income Black and White Consumers of Clothing Items." I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration.

Gerald E. Hills, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted by the Council:

Vice Chancellor
Graduate Studies and Research

ALTERNATIVE BASES FOR MARKET SEGMENTATION: AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF LOW AND MIDDLE INCOME BLACK AND WHITE CONSUMERS OF CLOTHING ITEMS

A Dissertation

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Degree

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ABSTRACT

The major purpose of this dissertation study was to discern whether a sufficiently different black consumer market for clothing exists to warrant separate management treatment. More specifically, this dissertation study was directed toward discerning whether black and white female clothing (dresses and slacks) differentials existed (within and between race subgroups) with respect to their perceptions, perceived familiarity and shopping and purchase behavior for national and private brands. Black and white female clothing differentials were studied, for market segmentation purposes, while controlling for the extraneous effects of the income, occupation, education and striver versus nonstriver correlative variables. The randomly selected sample, stratified by income (for the white subgroup), was comprised of 150 black and 150 white female household heads and/or household wives situated in the metropolitan city of Knoxville, Tennessee.

Using an undisguised structured questionnaire, data was obtained via personal household interviews conducted by black and white female interviewers. Black female interviewers interviewed black female respondents; while white female interviewers interviewed white female respondents to control for race and sex biases.

The major findings of the research were that no overall significant differences exist between black and white female sample respondents perceptions, perceived familiarity and shopping and purchase behavior for the dress and slack clothing product classes studied. Within black subgroup and between race

perceptions of the national and private dress and slack product classes studied revealed statistically significant differences. However, these findings may be attributable to the education and income effect more so than race differentials. In the black subgroup, significant income differences were found in this research. Findings revealed that lower income black respondents patronized black owned and/or managed businesses to a greater degree than middle income blacks. However, these findings may be attributable to education more so than income. Relative to respondents' shopping behavior, the information-advertising source importance were different from that hypothesized. Middle income blacks considered information-advertising source importance attributes to be more important than lower income blacks when shopping for branded name dresses and slacks.

While lower income black consumers considered price to be more important when purchasing dresses and slacks than comparable income whites, middle income black and white respondents revealed no significant differences. The same explanation may be offered for lower income black and white respondents relative to the style and fashion consciousness variables. While the national and private brand hypotheses (H_{11} and H_{12}) were basically untestable, in part, black and white sample respondents were more "latest style conscious" (innovativeness) than their older black and white counterparts.

While recognizing that the original objective of managerially interpreting each result of the hypotheses tested in this research was not possible, there appears to be fewer differences between blacks and whites than expected, thus arguing for not assuming in advance that separate segments exist.

Areas of limitations of this study are generalizability of study findings, measurement, statistical techniques utilized to analyze the data collected, and the income categories classifying low and middle income respondents. It is hoped that the research reported herein has made a positive contribution to the black buyer behavior segmentation area.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND HISTORY OF THE PROBLEM

The marketing literature is replete with contradictory statements concerning the existence of a black consumer market. Frank, Massy and Wind (1972) have observed that despite the hundreds of books and articles that have been published on black consumers, a very small percentage actually contained empirical data.[1] Allegations, not supported with empirical evidence, that a black consumer market exists are mere speculations. There is a need for more data based studies on the attitudes, perceptions, and shopping, purchase and brand behavior of blacks for a specific product class to better understand race as a segmentation variable. Andreasen (1978) has referred to research interests in black buyer behavior as "The Ghetto Life Cycle: A Case of Underachievement."[2] He observes that before a significant research paradigm was developed to focus on black buyer behavior patterns, research interests subsided.

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[1]Ronald E. Frank, William F. Massy and Yoram Wind, Market Segmentation, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972, p. 38.

[2]Alan R. Andreasen, "The Ghetto Marketing Life Cycle: A Case of Underachievement," Journal of Marketing Research, (February 1978), pp. 20-28.

The major purpose of this dissertation is to discern whether a sufficiently different black consumer market for clothing exists to warrant separate management treatment. The major research hypothesis is stated as:

> There exists significant differences between black and white consumer (or between various subgroups within the black population) perceptions, shopping patterns and purchase behavior of nationally and privately branded clothing when controlling for income, occupation, education and striver versus nonstriver variables.

Treatment of the consumption patterns of blacks is not a new phenomenon (e.g. Advertising and Selling, 1928 and 1930; Sales Management reporting the results of a survey conducted by the National Negro Business League, 1931 and Advertising Age, 1950). More comprehensive studies comparing the consumption differences and similarities between comparable black and white consumers emerged subsequently to Edwards (1932) pioneering work (e.g. Bureau of Labor Statistics Cost of Living Surveys, 1950-1951 and 1960-1961; Friend and Kravis, 1957; Bullock, 1961; and Alexis, 1962).

Thus, after passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, interest in studying black consumer buyer behavior patterns was widespread. Statements by businessmen that a black consumer market exists coupled with empirical research efforts conducted by advertisers and academicians tended to indicate that a black consumer market did indeed exist (e.g. Brimmer, 1964; Akers, 1968; Feldman and Star, 1968; Larson, 1968; Gibson, 1969; King and DeManche, 1969;

Bauer and Cunningham, 1970; Kindel, 1970; Wall, 1970; Dalrymple, Robertson and Yoshino, 1971; Sexton, 1972; Sturdivant, 1973; Taylor, 1974 and Schewe, 1976). However, several of these studies had other research objectives than to determine if a separate market existed--and others used an imprecise definition of a market. Although concluding otherwise, the existence of a black consumer market did not seem to be supported by Bauer and Cunningham's (1970) summary findings that only 6.6 percent of blacks' income is allocated to different product categories than for their white counterparts.[3]

Although data based support was not indicated, Mr. Leonard Evans, Editor and Publisher of Tuesday Magazine, stated that a Negro market would cease to exist if blacks were dispersed throughout the nation on an equal basis instead of being heavily concentrated in the larger cities.[4] Evans contentions are based on the idea that geographical concentration and media match are highly relevant for segmentation purposes. In that the geographical concentration of blacks[5] and the matching of their media preferences and usage seem to be less expensive than for

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[3]Raymond A. Bauer and Scott M. Cunningham, "The Negro Market," Journal of Advertising Research, Volume 10, Number 2 (April 1970), p. 10.

[4]"Is There really a Negro Market?" Marketing Insights, Volume 2, Number 14, (January 24, 1968), p. 14.

[5]Approximately fifty percent (50%) of the black population is situated in the top forty metropolitan areas and thirty percent (30%) in the top ten metropolitan areas. Raymond O. Oladipupo, How Distinct is the Negro Market? New York: Ogilvy and Mather, 1970, p. 7.

whites (at least per exposure), race may be a more useful basis for segmenting for selected products than other socioeconomic and demographic base variables studied.

As recent as 1977 (Advertising Age, p. 66) Benjamin Hooks, a former Federal Communication Commission member, asserted that "a distinct black market exists and it cannot be reached with the same advertising appeals directed to the general white consuming market."[6] Advertisers have tried several promotional techniques in both the general and black oriented media (newspapers, billboards, magazines and television) using integrated and/or segregated advertising appeals to try and reach the black consumer population. However, these advertisements were directed toward the entire black consumer population considering it to be homogeneous with similar buying habits in the marketplace.

Although the issue is unresolved as to whether a distinct black consumer market exists for market management purposes, a more recent issue emerged questioning the existence of a black middle class segment within the black population (e.g. Taylor, 1974 and Wall, 1974). The recognition of an emerging "black middle class" was advanced in the social and psychological literature as early as the 1930s (e.g. Woodson, 1934; Dollard, 1935; Allport, 1958; Wilson, 1960; Drake and Cayton, 1962; Back and Simpson, 1964; Brink and Harris, 1964; Hughes and Watts, 1964; Myrdal, 1964; Noel, 1964; Pettigrew, 1964; Watts, 1964; Williams, 1964; Hare, 1965; Cruse, 1967;

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[6]"Use Different Ad Tack for blacks, most urged," Advertising Age. (February 14, 1977), p. 66.

Frazier, 1967; Ginzberg, 1967; Marx, 1967; and Kronus, 1971). On an emerging black middle class, Kronus stated:

> We have some indications of the rapidly changing nature of the black middle class but we really do not know much about them as of 1970 and precious little as of the 1960s, and this knowledge is needed.[7]

This research helps to bridge this gap in black segmentation research by focusing on the buyer behavior patterns of both low and middle income black consumers.

Definition of a Market/Segment

Before advancing an operational definition of proposed black market segments to be investigated, the writer will refer to definitions of a market advanced in the marketing literature. Levitt (1960) identified a market as one "comprised of persons who have various needs and wants."[8] Levitt stated:

> The view that an industry is a customer satisfying process, not a goods producing process is vital for all businessmen to understand. An industry begins with the customer and his needs, not with a patent, a raw material, or a selling skill. . . . As marketing invariably does, view the entire business process as consisting of a tightly integrated effort to discover, create, arouse, and satisfy, customer needs.[9]

From a more operational viewpoint, Sissors defines a Market:

> It is many things related to selling products which meet consumers' needs and wants. Most important, however, a market is a group of potential purchasers of a given product and brand (Sissors, 1966, p. 21).

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[7]Sidney Kronus, The Black Middle Class,Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Company, 1971, p. 17.

[8]Theodore Levitt, "Marketing Myopia," in Harvard Business Review. Volume 38, Number 4 (July-August 1960), p. 55.

[9]Jack Z. Sissors, "What is a Market," Journal of Marketing, Volume 30 (July 1966), p. 19.

Sissors further noted that markets may be identified by single demographic variables such as age (the youth or teenage market and senior citizen's market; race (the black, chicano and white markets); and income (the low, middle and high income markets). He specifically asserted:

> However, these definitions are so general that they usually require additional explanations to make them meaningful. . . . It is more meaningful to discuss generally defined markets in terms of a specific product class, such as the teen-age market for face soaps (p. 19).

Hanan (1968) defines a market:

> A market is defined as a group of people who share a common need and who will repeatedly accept a common benefit in fulfillment of this need.[10]

Lastly, note the definition of a consumer market advanced by Cravens, Hills and Woodruff (1976):

> A group of people who are potentially able and willing in some designated future time period to decide to purchase a product or service for end use purposes. . . . Markets should be defined in terms of some product or service.[11]

From the definitions cited, it appears appropriate to focus on a particular product or service market.

Being consistent with the major research hypothesis, normally stated positively, a female black consumer clothing market may very well exist. However, we are faced with the problem of discerning whether a differentiated marketing mix effort to penetrate this

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[10]M. Hanan, "Market Segmentation," American Management Association Bulletin, Volume 109, 1966, p. 28.

[11]David D. Cravens, Gerald E. Hills and Robert B. Woodruff, Marketing Decision Making: Concepts and Strategy, Homewood, Illinois, Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1976, pp. 203-204.

market would more than pay for itself. Hence, the mere existence of a particular product market does not in and of itself justify differentiated treatment as a market segment for management purposes. Cox, Higginbotham and Stafford (1972) define a market segment:

> From a marketing standpoint, however, a group of individuals having common physical or economic characteristics does not in itself constitute a market segment. Only when people have common buying characteristics as consumers may they be thought of as a market segment for marketing strategy purposes.[12]

Kotler (1976) suggests that a company must carry out five (5) steps when considering entry to a market:[13]

1. If a female black clothing market exists, a company must be able to identify consumer preferred product attributes (e.g. quality, price, style and service) that determine the possible existence of distinct market segments.

2. A company must be able to determine the value and size of the market segments.

3. A company must be able to discern the positioning of existing brands in the market.

4. A company must be able to seek out opportunities where existing brands are not being served or inadequately served in the market segments.

5. The company must be able to determine correlative geographic, demographic and psychographic characteristics of attractive segments in that they are suggestive of sufficient methods to be employed to gain access to the market segments.

Kotler (1976) further noted that three additional conditions must be considered to define attractive segments that suggest management's use

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[12]Keith K. Cox, James B. Higginbotham and James E. Stafford, "Negro Retail Shopping and Credit Behavior," Journal of Retailing, Volume 48, Number 1 (Spring 1972), p. 56.

[13]Adapted from Philip Kotler, Marketing Management Analysis, Planning and Control, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1976, p. 143.

of a differentiated market mix strategy to penetrate the segments:

1. Measurability - The information on buyer characteristics must exist and be obtainable.

2. Accessibility - The company must be able to effectively direct its marketing efforts toward the chosen segments.

3. Substantiality - The chosen segments must be large and profitable enough for management to consider them worthy of separate and distinct marketing mix strategy treatment.

There are several indications that market segments may exist within the female consumer clothing population. The following partially satisfy the criteria advanced by Kotler and suggest additional study:

1. Differences in clothing expenditures between blacks and whites have persisted over time. The 1961-1962 survey of family expenditures, published by the Department of Labor and the Bureau of Labor Statistics, indicated that blacks average clothing expenditures represented 12.6 percent of their personal expenditures compared to 10.1 percent for whites.[14] The 1972-1973 survey of family expenditures (the most recent data available) indicates that the average black household (all urban and rural families and single consumers) spent $665 on clothing, dry cleaning, laundry and clothing related materials and services compared to $645 for the average white household. Black's clothing expenditures represent 11.5 percent of their personal clothing expenditures compared to 8.1 percent for whites, a difference of 3.4 percent.[15]

2. In that blacks are highly concentrated in large metropolitan areas, the advertising dollar can be minimized for successful reach.

3. Information on buyer characteristics such as age, occupation income and education exist and is obtainable.

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[14]Alan R. Andreasen and Lloyd C. Hodges, "Clothing, Race and Consumer Decision Making," Paper prepared for Marketing and Minorities Workshop, Ohio State University, (May 27-29), 1976, p. 6.

[15]Estimates from Bureau of Labor Statistics, Consumer Expenditure Survey Series: Interview Survey, 1972 and 1973, Department of Labor, Report 455.3, 1976, p. 54-56.

4. The black consumer population has been identified as a $54 billion dollar market;[16] larger than the entire Canadian market;[17] and roughly doubles the total population of Belgium, Greece or Australia;[18] has a per capita income approximately equal to the per capita income of the combined countries of Western Europe;[19] was comprised of approximately 92 percent of all minorities in the United States in 1970;[20] and represents the ninth largest market in the world.[21] Although these data refer to the aggregate black consumer market, the black female consumer clothing population may be an attractive segment begging for separate management treatment.

Selection of Product Market for Study

As discussed, the probabilities are greater that a black consumer market exists for clothing than for many other products.

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[16]Thayer C. Taylor, "Black Middle Class: Earn, Baby, Earn," Sales Management: 1974 Survey of Buying Power, Number 113 (July 8, 1974), p. A-5.

[17]David W. Cravens, Gerald E. Hills and Robert B. Woodruff, Marketing Decision Making: Concepts and Strategy, p. 136.

[18]Milton M. Pressley, "A Selected Bibliography of Readings and References regarding Marketing to Black Americans," Second Edition, Presented at the American Marketing Association's 1976 Marketing and Minorities Workshop, April, 1976, preface i; Estimates from Statistical Abstract of the U. S., 1972, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1972; and Information Please Almanac-Atlas and Yearbook, 27th edition, New York: Simon and Schuster, 1973.

[19]Ibid., preface i: Estimates computed from statistics in the Social and Economic Status of Negroes in the U. S., 1970, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Commerce/Bureau of the Census, 1970, and Raymond O. Oladipupo, How Distinct is the Negro Market?; and Yearbook of National Accounts and Statistics, New York: United Nations, 1971.

[20]David W. Cravens, Gerald E. Hills and Robert B. Woodruff, Marketing Decision Making: Concepts and Strategy, p. 136.

[21]Raymond O. Oladipupo. How Distinct is the Negro Market, p. 7.

However, it is the writers' expectation that a distinct black consumer market does not exist for clothing that warrants separate management treatment. Data based research has indicated that historically blacks who have comparable income levels with whites tend to overspend on socially visible products such as clothing, personal-care products, nonautomobile transportation, household furnishings, and tobacco (Alexis, 1961 and Bauer and Cunningham, 1970). Although the amount spent is not necessarily a sufficient basis to justify segmentation, an investigation of blacks' and whites' consumption of clothing would appear to be meaningful to advertisers and marketers to better understand the race variable as a possible basis for segmenting the black population.

Previous market segmentation studies of black consumers have investigated product categories including major and minor durables and nondurables, as well as convenience and shopping goods. In studying the black consumer segmentation research, it has not yet reached the sophistication of that directed to the general white consumer market. Wind (1977, 1978) has noted that segmentation research in the white majority market should focus on an assortment of products instead of a single product to enhance the development of marketing theory.[22] Previous research efforts on black buyer behavior patterns have zeroed in on neither

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[22]Yoram Wind, "Issues and Advances in Segmentation Research," Journal of Marketing Research, Volume XV (August 1978), p. 318; and Yoram Wind, "Toward a Change in the Focus of Marketing Analysis; From a Single Brand to an Assortment," Journal of Marketing, Volume 41 (October 1977), p. 12.

assortments or single products. Andreasen notes:

> Most studies of black-white consumption differences analyze broad patterns usually in many product or consumption categories . . . research has seldom focused on one or two key consumption areas where fruitful investigation could yield important insights; we have too often settled for breadth rather than depth.[23]

This study helps to bridge this gap by focusing on specific branded clothing items to discern whether race is a significant segmentation variable when controlling for the extraneous effects of income, occupation, education and striver versus nonstriver demographic and socioeconomic variables. Market segmentation studies pertaining to black consumers have been descriptive treating race as a single segmentation variable without controlling for correlational variables.[24]

Limited financial resources also necessitated an investigation of a single product category for this dissertation study. In order for women's clothing to be explored for market segmentation purposes, it appeared to at least partially satisfy these criteria for a valuable product market:

1. The product category should be one that is purchased and used substantially by both black and white consumers; however, observed marked differences in the total consumption and/or expenditures allocated to the product category should historically exist between the two ethnic groups.

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[23] Alan R. Andreasen and Lloyd C. Hodges, "Clothing, Race and Consumer Decision Making," p. 5.

[24] Alan R. Andreasen, "Consumer Research Needs in the Ghetto," August 20, 1975, p. 3. Examples of recent sophisticated works using alternative bases for market segmentation when race is studied as a segmentation variable are: Kindel, T. I. (1970); Alexis, Haines and Simon (1972); Gensch and Staelin (1972); McKenzie et al. (1976) and Brogowicz (1977).

2. The product category should be one where race consumption differentials can be identified and measured.

3. The product category should be one where advertisers and marketers can economically employ "marketing mix" strategies effectively to satisfy the product class and/or brand preferences of the two races.

4. The product category should be one that is socially visible and perceived by the two races as being indicative of one's desire to attain middle class status.

5. The geographical distribution of the product should be equally available to both low and middle income consumers of both races.

6. The product category should consist of product classes priced at levels to encourage both races to evaluate a price versus quality versus brand criteria; however, the product category's prices should not be too high for lower income consumers.

7. A highly competitive market for the product category should exist where advertisers and marketing managers have used rigorous market segmentation and product differentiation strategies; thereby providing ample selection of diverse product classes and brands for the two races.[25]

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[25] A source for some of these criteria, particularly numbers 5, 6 and 7 were drawn from: Andrew Allen Brogowicz, "Race as a Basis for Market Segmentation: An Exploratory Analysis," An unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1977, p. 90. Although race was not born out as a useful base for market segmentation from Brogowicz's study findings, his criteria appear to have been formulated around requirements for a viable segment advanced by: Ronald E. Frank, "Market Segmentation Research: Findings and Implications," in Frank M. Bass, Charles W. King and Edgar A. Pessimer (eds.) <u>Application of the Sciences in Marketing Management</u>, New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1968, pp. 41-43; Philip Kotler, <u>Marketing Management Analysis, Planning and Control</u>, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1976, p. 143; David W. Cravens, Gerald E. Hills and Robert B. Woodruff, <u>Marketing Decision Making: Concepts and Strategy</u>, p. 248; and Ronald E. Frank, William F. Massy and Yoram Wind, <u>Market Segmentation</u>, pp. 27-28. The remaining criteria were formulated around Cravens, Hills and Woodruff's (1976) "Requirements for Segmentation Application" and Frank, Massy and Wind's (1972) "Criteria for Evaluating Alternative Bases for Segmentation." Brogowicz's (1977) research effort will be reviewed in the literature review section of this dissertation study.

With the exception of nonautomobile transportation, the consumption areas where blacks have historically tended to "overspend" (clothing, personal-care products, household furnishings and tobacco) appear to meet the stipulated criteria. The writer chose the clothing category because of his own personal interest and as a result of the rationale by Andreasen and Hodges (1976) relating to an urgent need for future research efforts to be directed toward the clothing category to discern consumption differences and similarities between black and white consumers. If any residual differences remain that can be attributed to "blackness", clothing should be the category in that anthropologists use clothing as a dimension depicting culture; significant differences exist between blacks and whites on the amount of monies spent for clothing, brand preferences and styling; and the differences between the two ethnic groups have persisted over time and across regions.[26]

For purposes of this dissertation study, the consumer groups under study are operationally defined as consisting of lower and middle income black and white female consumers who exhibit clothing and/or brand class preferences, shopping, and purchase behavior for dresses and slacks.

Rationale for this Dissertation Study: Summary

Justifications for this dissertation research study have been alluded to throughout the chapter, but other specific

[26]Alan R. Andreasen and Lloyd C. Hodges, "Clothing, Race and Consumer Decision Making," p. 5.

justifications may be offered. Bauer and Cunningham (1970) state reasons for studying the black consumer market:

> The case should be made that the Negro market is worthy of research for three reasons: (1) as the marketing behavior of Negroes is closely tied to the broad social problem of the Negro revolution; (2) as a practical marketing issue, the Negro market is a large segment of the American market, especially for certain products and brands; and (3) as an exercise in the much propounded doctrine of market segmentation, the study of the Negro is a promising topic on which to hone our competence.[27]

In studying the black consumer, Sturdivant (1973) has suggested research directions. "Is the behavior which is described attributable to the fact that the subjects are black or is it because they are poor, or Southern, or urban, or young?"[28] The writer is knowledgeable of no adequate measures existing that can identify _why_ black consumers behave the way they do in the marketplace. The gaps in black buyer behavior segmentation research specified by Sturdivant are far from being bridged until such time the black buyer behavior literature is replete with a theoretical base to hone future research directions.

Thus, specific justifications for this dissertation study are:

1. This study will examine one product category (clothing) for segmenting the black population rather than studying a variety of product categories (as most past market segment studies of the black population have done) where

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[27]Raymond A. Bauer and Scott M. Cunningham, "The Negro Market," _Journal of Advertising Research_, p. 12.

[28]Frederick D. Sturdivant, "Subculture Theory: Poverty, Minorities and Marketing," in Scott Ward and Thomas S. Robertson, _Consumer Behavior: Theoretical Sources_, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1973, p. 477.

findings for segmentation purposes have been minimal. More specifically, this study will focus on a product class and specific brands.

2. Past research efforts have studied the attitudes, perceptions, cognitions, purchase, shopping and usage behavior of lower income blacks with their comparable white counterparts. This study extends beyond this and will address both lower and middle income black consumers' buyer behavior patterns as compared to their lower and middle income white consumer counterparts.
3. Most market segmentation studies in black buyer behavior research have used race as a single segmentation variable without controlling for the effects of correlative variables. This study will focus on race as a segmentation variable while controlling for the extraneous effects of the occupation, income, education and striver versus nonstriver variables.
4. Most market segmentation studies in black buyer behavior research have been of the survey type, gathering data via a mailed questionnaire or telephone interviews. This dissertation study is of the survey type also. However, data will be gathered with a structured, undisguised questionnaire via personal interviews. This

data collection technique assures better sampling, information and administrative control as compared to the mailed questionnaire and telephone interview techniques due to non-response and non-phone subscribers respectively.

5. Some academic market segmentation studies in black buyer behavior research have used students and faculty members as subjects. For possible generalization purposes, the uniqueness of those subjects is quite apparent. Sample respondents herein will be comprised of wives and women head of households.

Outline of the Dissertation

Chapter I has identified the problem to be investigated. Chapter II will directly focus on a careful identification and evaluation of relevant data based market segmentation research studies that have been conducted relating to the problem to be studied. Chapter III will focus on the methodology that will be utilized to conduct this research investigation. Chapter IV will report the findings (analyses and evaluation). Lastly, Chapter V will consist of a summary and conclusion of findings and specify existing gaps in the area coupled with identifying research priorities.

CHAPTER II

SEGMENTATION RELATED RESEARCH ON BLACK BUYING BEHAVIOR

Introduction

Purpose of Literature Review

The purpose of the literature review is to give the writer a thorough knowledge of past research efforts that have been carried out, what research is ongoing, what accomplishments have been achieved to date, what gaps exist in previous research efforts, and what major research gaps and/or priorities exist relating to the problem to be studied.

Black/White Clothing Research Findings

Data based studies have revealed that blacks, at comparable income levels with whites, allocate a greater amount of their income to the purchase of clothing (e.g. Bureau of Labor Statistics Studies, 1950-1951 and 1960-1961; Braguglia and Rosencranz, 1968; Bauer and Cunningham, 1970; Kielty, 1970; Oladipupo, 1970 and Alexis, Haines and Simon, 1972). Alexis, Haines and Simon (1972) indicate that blacks spend a greater amount of their income on clothing, than comparable income whites, because such consumption expenditure areas as housing and recreation are basically unavailable on an equitable "race" basis and clothing serves as a substitute for inaccessible alternatives.[1]

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[1] Marcus Alexis, George H. Haines, Jr., and Leonard Simon, "Consumption Behavior of Prisoners: The Case of the Inner City Shopper," in Alan R. Andreasen, Improving Inner-City Marketing, American Marketing Association, 1972, pp. 36-37.

Blacks perceive clothing to be representative of social status and portray an upward gratification of one's self image (Kittles, 1956; Schwartz, 1963; Erickson, 1968; Braguglia and Rosencranz, 1968; Somers and Bruce, 1969; Adams, 1972; Yankelovitch, 1973 and Horn, 1975). Blacks are more innovative (first to purchase new product clothing brands) and fashion conscious than comparable income whites (Kittles, 1956; Portis, 1966; Kindel, 1970 and Dalrymple, Yoshino and Robertson, 1971). Findings have also revealed that blacks dress less conservatively than comparable income whites (Myrdal, 1944 and Kindel, 1970). To the contrary, Horn (1975) has asserted that "black politicians and athletes are among the best dressed leaders in the United States" (p. 141). Because of the controversy surrounding this issue, further research is needed to get at the thesis.

The question has been raised in the literature as to whether the higher expenditures allocated to clothing by blacks, as compared to their white counterparts, represent higher prices paid, a greater quantity purchased or both.[2] Braguglia and Rosencranz (1968) findings revealed that low socioeconomic status black women owned, purchased, and paid slightly more for clothing than comparable income white women.[3] Although the study conducted by Brew, O'Leary and Dean (1956) was not a black/white comparison of clothing purchased and the prices paid, their findings may very well be applicable to the black population

[2]Alan R. Andreasen and Lloyd C. Hodges, "Clothing, Race and Consumer Decision Making," 1976, p. 15.

[3]Marilyn Hunter Braguglia and Mary Lou Rosencranz, "A Comparison of Clothing Attitudes and Ownership of Negro and White Women of Low Socio-Economic Status," The Journal of Consumer Affairs, Number 2, 1968, p. 185.

when occupational status is studied to discern its effects on clothing consumption. Study findings revealed that "wives of men who wore business suits to work spent more for clothing, paid more for each clothing item and purchased larger quantities of clothing for themselves."[4] Andreasen and Hodges (1976, p. 11) generalized the research findings of Brew, O'Leary and Dean (1956) to the black population with an assumption that blacks allocate higher expenditures to clothing for discretionary, leisure purposes. Andreasen and Hodges' belief has been born out by previously cited sources.

Data based study findings have revealed that income is strongly associated with such socioeconomic and demographic variables as occupation, age, employment status, geographical location, place of residence and education. Andreasen and Hodges (1976, p. 13) have noted that the use of multivariate statistical techniques is warranted to get at the combined effects of these variables to determine whether any residual differences remain that can be attributed to "race." This research effort addresses this gap in black segmentation research. Kielty (1970) and Kindel (1970) undertook such an investigation and their findings showed that "race" still had a significant effect on the amount of monies spent for clothing. The research findings of Alexis, Haines and Simon (1972) and Gensch and Staelin (1972) did not find a residual effect of "race" on black/white consumption behavior.

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[4]Alan R. Andreasen and Lloyd C. Hodges, "Clothing, Race and Consumer Decision Making," 1976, p. 10. Referenced from: Margaret L. Brew, Roxanne R. O'Leary and Lucille C. Dean, "Family Clothing Inventories and Purchases with an Analysis to Show Factors Affecting Consumption," U.S. Department of Agriculture, Agriculture Information Bulletin, Number 148, 1956, p. 172.

Notably, race also became insignificant in Kielty's (1970) study findings when both clothing expenditures and income class were expressed in logarithms.[5]

The following studies to be cited focused on the use of general customer characteristics and product-specific variables as alternative bases for segmentation augmenting the effects of "race" as a segmentation variable, e.g. Striver and nonstriver (Bauer, Cunningham and Wortzel, 1965 and Bauer and Cunningham, 1970); fashion consciousness (Portis, 1966); age, work status, sex of head, number of children and income class (Kielty, 1970); age, sex, income, family size and geographical location (Kindel, 1970); income, innovativeness and product category (Dalrymple, Robertson and Yoshino, 1972); income level (Sexton, 1972); shopping appeals, quality, price, shopping location, service and convenience (Gensch and Staelin, 1972); environmental effect, and possibly market inefficiencies (Alexis, Haines and Simon, 1972); age (Gould, Sigband and Zoerner, 1970 and Hills, Granbois and Patterson, 1973); age, education, sex, family size, income, striver and nonstriver (McKenzie et al., 1976), income, social class, race stratified by social class, race stratified by motivation to strive and benefit sought (Brogowicz, 1977).

Organizing the Research

It has been pointed out in Chapter I that the bulk of research to date on black consumers has been exploratory in nature and had research objectives other than to determine whether a distinct black

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[5]Ibid., p. 14.

consumer market segment exists for certain products and brands in the American marketplace. Hence, research efforts assumed apriori that a black consumer market existed and proceeded with investigations. Controlled environments of experimental laboratory setting studies are basically lacking in the literature. Further, these efforts have investigated a wide variety of product classes (minimum attention directed toward investigating single product classes) and findings are considered suggestive rather than definitive.

Literature from several disciplines was relevant to the present study (See Figure I). Specific categories of market segmentation related studies (captioned as store shopping, product, brand and promotion behavior) using race and other variables as bases for market segmentation can be used for consideration of work providing a basis for this study.

In that the marketing literature is basically lacking black consumer segmentation studies focusing exclusively on a single product class (especially clothing), data based studies relevant to the present study are reviewed. The literature review will conclude with a summary of the findings of studies exploring the race variable as a basis for market segmentation.

Store Shopping Behavior

Bullock (1961) conducted a landmark data based study to better understand consumer motivations of black and white consumers.[6]

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[6]Henry Allen Bullock, "Consumer Motivations in Black and White," Harvard Business Review, Volume 39 (May-June 1961, Part I), pp. 89-104, (July-August 1961, Part II), pp. 110-124, Soldiers Field, Boston, Massachusetts.

	Independent Variables	Results*
I. Store Shopping Behavior:		
<u>Food and Nonfood</u>		
Caplovitz (1963)	race	differences
Feldman and Star (1968)	race, income	differences
Goodman (1968)	race	no differences
Progressive Grocer (1969)	race	differences
Alexis, Haines and Simon (1972)	race, residence	no differences
Cox, Higginbotham and Stafford (1972)	race, income	no differences
Gensch and Staelin (1972)	race, education, income, etc.	no differences
Boone and Johnson (1975)	race, location, social class	differences
Goldman (1976)	race, income, education, etc.	differences
II. Product Buying Behavior:		
<u>Food and Nonfood</u>		
Alexis (1961)	race	differences
Sawyer (1962)	race, income	no differences
Schwartz (1963)	race, income	differences
Bauer, Cunningham and Wortzel (1965)	race, social class, income	differences
Portis (1966)	race, fashion interests	no differences
Bauer and Cunningham (1970)	race, social class, income	no differences

FIGURE I

LITERATURE REVIEW ON DEPENDENT VARIABLES

	Independent Variables	Results*
Product Buying Behavior:		
Kielty (1970)	race, income, education, etc.	no differences
Kindel (1970)	race, age, sex, income, etc.	differences
Myers and Mount (1973)	race, social class, income	no differences
Brogowicz (1977)	race, income, education, etc.	no differences
III. Brand Buying Behavior:		
Food and Nonfood		
Akers (1968)	race, income, education, etc.	differences
Larson (1968)	race, income, home ownership, etc.	differences
Dalrymple, Robertson and Yoshino (1969)	race, income	differences
King and DeManche (1969)	race, income	differences
Coe (1971)	race, income, age	differences
Dalrymple, Robertson and Yoshino (1971)	race, income	no differences
Larson and Wales (1973)	family income, age, education, etc.	differences
IV. Promotion Behavior:		
Segregated and Integrated Advertising		
Barban and Cundiff (1964)	race	differences
Barban (1969)	race	differences
Cagley and Cardozo (1969)	race	differences
Gould, Sigband and Zoerner (1970)	race, age	differences

FIGURE I. (Continued)

	Independent Variables	Results*
Promotion Behavior:		
Segregated and Integrated Advertising		
Guest (1970)	race	no differences
Stafford, Birdwell and Van Tassel (1970)	race, income	no differences
Muse (1971)	race, age, class rank, income, etc.	no differences
Block (1972)	race, income	differences
Schlinger and Plummer (1972)	age, race, income, education, etc.	no differences
Bush, Gwinner and Solomon (1974)	race, sex, age	no differences
V. Attitudes:		
Bullock (1961)	race	no differences
Braguglia and Rosencranz (1968)	race	differences
Petrof (1971)	race	differences
McKenzie et al. (1976)	race, sex, age, education, etc.	differences
VI. Perceptions:		
Caplovitz (1967)	race	differences
Goodman (1968)	race	no differences
Hills, Granbois and Patterson (1973)	race, age, education, residence	differences

FIGURE I (Continued)

*Differences and no differences refer to the race (within and/or across ethnic groups) variable only. The studies are majorily black/white group comparisons.

The data for Bullock's study was obtained from the Bureau of Labor Statistics' study of Consumer Expenditures, Incomes and Savings tabulated for the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, University of Pennsylvania, 1956. Using an incomplete sentence blank questionnaire, he solicited responses from 1,643 individuals with nearly half of the respondents residents of the Houston metropolitan area. The remaining respondents were individuals situated in the metropolitan cities of Atlanta, Birmingham, Michigan and New Orleans. A race profile of the respondents was comprised of 1,106 blacks and 537 whites, the final sample size for data collection purposes.

Bullock concluded that the move on advertisers' part to treat the black consumer population as separate and distinct begging for individualized treatment different from that tendered to the white majority consumer market had not been supported by the results. He further observed that it would be illogical to ignore the black consumers completely because it would portray to them a sense of not belonging. The author suggested that his study findings revealed that it would be mere illusion rather than pure fact for advertisers to try and reach the black consumer market using separate media than that used to reach the white consumer market. In essence, marketing strategies and tactics should be planned in such a manner that they will be appropriate to effectively penetrate both the black and white consumer populations using the same product promotional techniques and media. Specific findings were: "Some joint appeals can be used to reach both black and white consumer markets such as desire for distinction, search for adventure, need for safety, salesmen services, and fear of certain products (e.g. cigarettes and automobiles)" (pp. 111-114).

Feldman and Star (1968) conducted a study on low and middle income Chicago blacks. The purpose of their study was to test 1962 Chicago Tribune consumer shopping behavior data (obtained via a random sample of telephone and non-telephone homes) to discern whether real differences exist between black and white shopping behaviors.[7] Of the total sample, the Chicago Tribune's consumer study contained 1,000 respondents randomly selected (760 whites and 240 non-whites) residing within the city of Chicago. The investigators used this subsample for analysis.

Data analyzed in the research study of Feldman and Star (1968, non-food shopping behavior) revealed that there were substantially similar shopping behavior patterns, especially at the middle income level, between the black and white consumer groups. However, their findings showed that low income blacks tended to patronize discount stores more so than middle income blacks or both low and middle income whites (p. 225). These findings suggest that the low income blacks are more concerned with price (bargains such as cents off, coupons, trade stamps, etc.) more so than convenient location and quality of the goods purchased. Contrasting findings were reported in a study conducted by Cox, Higginbotham and Stafford (1972).[8] Their findings indicated no significant differences between black and white discount store shopping

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[7]Lawrence P. Feldman and Alvin D. Star, "Racial Factors in Shopping Behavior," in A New Measure of Responsibility for Marketing: Proceedings of the American Marketing Association National Conference, Chicago, Illinois: American Marketing Association, 1968, p. 219.

[8]Keith K. Cox, James B. Higginbotham and James E. Stafford, "Negro Retail Shopping and Credit Behavior," Journal of Retailing, Spring, 1972, pp. 54-66.

behavior. However, high income blacks tended to patronize discount stores more than low income blacks (p. 60). The authors noted that their findings suggested that any significant differences between the black and white group studied were the result of an income effect rather than an ethnic effect (p. 219). Their study findings were summarized as:

> Any broad generalization relating to distinctive Negro shopping behavior is likely to be in error unless other factors are considered. A deficiency of our study has been that we have confined ourselves merely to the effect of income, and yet on this relatively crude basis the similarities between white and Negro residents of central cities for many aspects of shopping behavior tend to outweigh the differences (1968, p. 226).

Feldman and Star (1968) observed that as the income of blacks equalize that of their white counterparts, race as a segmentation basis will cease to exist and the "Negro market" may be a transient phenomenon in American life (p. 226). Understandably, geographical location, life style, cognative, perceptual and attitudinal variables must be further explored to determine whether "income" is in fact the determinant factor differentiating the shopping behavior of black and white consumers.

Caplovitz (1963) conducted a benchmark data based study in New York City. His sample was drawn from four low-income housing projects (Washington, Jefferson, LaGuardia and Vladeck Houses) located in slum areas of East Harlem. The racial makeup of Caplovitz's sample was 25 percent white, 29 percent Negro and 46 percent Spanish-speaking residents (majorily comprised of Puerto Ricans).[9] His book actually reports the results of a survey conducted by the Bureau of Applied

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[9]David Caplovitz, The Poor Pay More, The Free Press, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1963, Revised 1967, pp. 7-8.

Social Research of Columbia University that was completed in 1961. Their study was comprised of three settlement houses (Union Settlement House, The James Weldon Johnson Community Center and The Henry Street Settlement House). The primary purpose for conducting the present study was to discern the major type of consumer problems present in the area and the type of families that was susceptible to the problems (1961, Preface, p. xxx).

Of the 555 families selected to be interviewed, 464 usable interviews were obtained in Caplovitz's study. The author concluded that the poor pay more because "this marketing system is in many respects a deviant one, in which unethical and illegal practices abound" (p. 180). This conclusion has serious public policy implications. However, it should be noted that information was lacking to determine whether his sample respondents were self selected or randomly selected.

Goodman (1968) conducted a data based study, via field interviews of 651 housing units in a Philadelphia redevelopment area with a final sample of 520 usable interviews for data analysis.[10] His findings generally revealed that <u>the poor do not pay more</u>; they even go outside their immediate neighborhood to shop at competitive stores if the situation deems it necessary; store patronage is determined by the prices and the quality of the goods carried more so than convenience of location; and they shop at more than one supermarket to purchase food items (p. 23). The reported findings of <u>Progressive Grocer</u> (1969) basically conflicted with the findings of Goodman (1968) in that it

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[10] Charles S. Goodman, "Do the Poor Pay More?" <u>Journal of Marketing</u>, (January 1968), pp. 18-24.

concluded that black housewives valued a friendly atmosphere and convenience of location over price and quality in patronizing a food store.[11]

Goodman specified a sample limitation of his study. In that the median income of black families was $4,000-$5,000, the income level might have been too high to be indicative of the nation's poor black consumers.

Goodman's (1968) research findings have been supported and refuted by reported results of subsequent researchers who studied the shopping behavior of the nation's black poor consumers. A number of research studies revealed that the black poor consumer is restricted in shopping scope and confines oneself to the immediate neighborhood for the purchase of food and nonfood products.[12] Other reported study

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[11] Consumer Dynamics in the Supermarket, (New York, Progressive Grocer, 1969), p. 6.

[12] For example, see: Pierre Martineau, "Social Classes and Spending Behavior," Journal of Marketing, Volume 23 (October 1958), pp. 121-130; J. Stouder Sweet, Poverty in the U.S.A., Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 398 (Chicago: Public Affairs Committee, 1967), pp. 8-9; David Caplovitz, The Poor Pay More: Consumer Practices of Low-Income Families, (New York: The Free Press, 1967); Frederick D. Sturdivant, ed. The Ghetto Marketplace, Caplovitz's Chapter 4, 1969; Frederick D. Sturdivant, "Business and the Mexican-American Community," California Management Review, Volume 11 (Spring 1969); pp. 73-80; Howard Kunreuther, "Why the Poor Pay More for Food: Theoretical and Empirical Evidence," Journal of Business, Volume 46 (July 1973), p. 379; Arieh Goldman, "Do Lower Income Consumers have a more restricted Shopping Scope?", Journal of Marketing, Volume 40 (January 1976), pp. 46-54. Relevant literature reviews are provided by: Frederick D. Sturdivant, ed. The Ghetto Marketplace, (New York: The Free Press, 1969); George Joyce and Norman A. P. Govoni, eds. The Black Consumer, (New York; Random House, 1971); Marcus Alexis, George H. Haines, Jr. and Leonard S. Simon, "Consumer Behavior of Prisoners: The Case of the Inner-City Shopper,"

findings have supported the conflicting results of Goodman's study.[13] A majority of these study objectives were concerned with the geographical shopping scope of the poor consumers and scant attention was directed toward discerning the amount of information (e.g. knowledge of quality, brands, prices, discounts, sales promotions, etc.) the consumers utilized in their shopping behavior.[14]

Gensch and Staelin (1972) conducted a data based study in eastern Pittsburg within the Homewood-Brushton Community (30,000 population) that consisted of approximately 97 percent blacks. They studied food, clothing, shoes, pharmaceuticals and home furnishings product categories to get at black retail shopping behavior.[15] The stores in the research site area were majority owned and operated by blacks.

Data was collected from 455 randomly selected households in early 1970. Personal interviews were conducted by trained black females with

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in Alan R. Andreasen, ed. Improving Inner-City Marketing, (Chicago: American Marketing Association, 1972), pp. 25-59; James F. Engel et al., Consumer Behavior, 2nd ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973), pp. 143-159; Frederick D. Sturdivant, "Subculture Theory: Poverty, Minorities, and Marketing," in Consumer Behavior: Theoretical Sources, Scott Ward and Thomas S. Robertson, eds. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1973), pp. 469-520.

[13] For example, see: George H. Haines, Jr., Leonard S. Simon and Marcus Alexis, "Maximum Likelihood Estimation of Central City Food Trading Areas," Journal of Marketing Research, Volume 9 (May 1972), pp. 154-159; Dennis H. Gensch and Richard Staelin, "Making Black Retail Outlets Work," California Management Review, Volume 15 (Fall, 1972, pp. 52-62.

[14] Arieh Goldman, "Do Lower-Income Consumers Have a More Restricted Shopping Scope?", p. 47.

[15] Dennis H. Gensch and Richard Staelin, "The Appeals of Buying Black," Journal of Marketing Research, Volume IX (May 1972), p. 142.

head of households or his/her spouse. Data on demographics (education, income, family life cycle stage, transportation availability), present shopping patterns and shopping attitudes (toward prices, quality of merchandise, credit, etc.) were collected to assess the dependent variable: "percentage of use of the local black shopping area" (p. 142).

Regression analysis and AID (Automatic Interaction Detection) were used to analyze the collected data after which an index was constructed to scale a respondent's feeling toward specific attributes bearing on shopping behavior. The authors noted that AID identified salient variables for segmenting a market that would normally not show up on the aggregate. Gensch and Staelin (1972) concluded that the black consumers studied do not constitute a homogeneous market segment because their hypothesis was generally supported:

> On the average, the appeals of convenience, shopping location, price, quality, and service dominated the appeal of buying black. However, attitudes on the importance of price, quality, and service were not useful in discriminating between those who used the local black-owned shopping area than those who did not. The appeals that did seem to discriminate were closeness of the area, buying black, and concern for available credit. Also, lack of mobility was strongly associated with increased usage of the local area (1972, p. 142).

Boone and Johnson (1975) used Stone's typology[16] (economic, personalizing, ethical and apathetic) in their research effort conducted in Tulsa, Oklahoma on a sample comprised of 136 black middle class female household heads.[17] They were interested in determining the

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[16] Gregory P. Stone, "Sociological Aspects of Consumer Purchasing in Northwest Side Chicago Community," (Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1952).

[17] Louis E. Boone and James C. Johnson, "Purchase Orientation of the Black Shopper," in Mazze, E., (ed), 1975 Combined Proceedings, Chicago: American Marketing Association, 1975, p. 250.

type of shoppers the black middle class females were as compared to middle class white and Mexican-American shoppers researched in an earlier study conducted by the same authors.[18] The major underlying purpose of their study was to get at the differences and similarities that exist between the ethnic groups in different geographical sections of the United States (p. 251).

Through the use of factor analysis, the authors were able to reduce an original twenty-four statement questionnaire to thirteen; and the use of multiple discriminate analysis categorized the respondents as either an economic, personalizing, ethical or apathetic shopper.

A major finding was 41.2 percent of the black shoppers were classified as "ethical shoppers" as compared to 6 percent and 7.6 percent white and Mexican-Americans respectively being statistical significant at .01 level. An ethical shopper was defined as "felt a moral obligation to patronize specific types of stores. He shopped at certain stores to help the little guy out" (p. 250). The authors cited a couple of comments advanced by the black middle class respondents:

> I think we should support our neighborhood stores. We owe them our trade.
> We've got to help the brothers (p. 252).

The authors were careful to note that if replicative studies support their findings, Stone's typology may be useful for segmenting markets.

Alexis, Haines and Simon (1972) presented an excellent comprehensive

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[18] Louis E. Boone, David L. Kurtz, David L. Johnson, James C. Johnson and John A. Bonno, "City Shoppers and Urban Identification Revisited," Journal of Marketing, (July 1974), pp. 67-69.

review of data based studies that had been conducted by the authors and others relating to the expenditure differences and similarities of low income black and white consumers for diverse product categories and services (food, housing, clothing, recreation and leisure, household furnishings and equipment, medical care, nonautomobile transportation).[19] They also assessed research findings on the saving and shopping behaviors of the inner city shoppers. The authors noted that while it is not clear whether market segments exist across race and/or place of residence, black and white differences do exist in their consumption rates of certain products and brands (p. 47). They referred to the inner city marketing system as a "prison market" because the residents are physically immobile in their shopping scope; outsiders are basically limited from entering this market to engage in marketing activities; and the residents are limited in their choice of employment positions, housing and recreation (pp. 26-29).

Concerning the shopping behavior of the inner city residents, the authors are of the opinion that "inner city residents pay more for food if it is assumed they shop only at local stores, and if it is assumed that the poor in the inner city purchase in small quantities, and, because of limited mobility, must shop at smaller, nearby stores" (p. 46). Alexis, Haines and Simon (1972) urge future research exploration in market segmentation studies treating the race and place of residence variables to determine whether the merchants rationally charge the

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[19]Marcus Alexis, George H. Haines, Jr., and Leonard Simon, "Consumption Behavior of Prisoners: The Case of the Inner City Shopper," pp. 25-59.

residents more because of the demand structure of the inner city shoppers (p. 47). The results of the future research efforts may have strong public policy implications.

Directly relating to the product category investigated in this dissertation study, the authors conducted a study during the summer of 1967 in Rochester, New York to determine the effects of race on clothing expenditures as a possible basis for market segmentation (no citation was provided, p. 37). Information was also lacking on the type of sampling technique used, sample size or research methodology. Multiple regression analysis was used to analyze the data. The independent variables (number of cars owned, family size, annual family income divided by 100 and race of respondent (1 white; 2 black) explained approximately 12 percent of the variation in the dependent variable (total clothing consumption last month).[20] Hence, the predictive ability of the variables in explaining variations in the dependent variable was quite low. The race variable was not statistically significant. The authors noted that clothing expenditures would have been explained better if the statistically insignificant variables (family size and race) were deleted and education added. Notably, they cautioned that their data pertained to clothing expenditures during the summer months and findings may have been different had the data been collected during other periods of the year due to the seasonality of clothing expenditures.

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[20]The coefficient of determination (Multiple R^2) was computed by the writer by simply squaring the multiple correlation coefficient of .3442 reported.

Goldman (1976) researched the shopping scopes of low, middle and high income consumers with respect to the purchase of furniture and ladies shoes. The author identified two types of variables to indicate shopping scope: level of knowledge about the store system and level of pre-purchase shopping among stores.[21]

Jersualem, a city of some 320,000 residents, was the site chosen for Goldman's study. From a randomly selected sample of 360 households, trained interviewers collected data from women to get at their shopping behavior and the demographic and socioeconomic profiles of each household. Knowledge about the store system variable was analyzed by identifying a store opportunity set (Jerusalem's 80 furniture and 110 ladies shoe stores) and stipulating hypotheses addressing the question: "Are low income consumers associated with a lower or higher level of knowledge of the available stores" (p. 47). Knowledge about the store system was measured by asking questions pertaining to the number of stores in the opportunity set actually visited by the respondent. To test contrasting hypotheses pertaining to the knowledge variables, the correlation of four socioeconomic variables (neighborhood status, educational level, occupational status and ownership of car) with each of the two knowledge variables was presented. The same procedure was used to test two similar contrasting hypotheses (lower-income consumers-lower level of shopping, lower-income consumers-higher level of shopping) relating to the level of pre-purchase shopping among stores variable.

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[21] Arieh Goldman, "Do Lower-Income Consumers have a more Restricted Shopping Scope?" Journal of Marketing, Volume 40 (January 1976), p. 47.

The reported findings indicated that lower income consumers appeared to have a more limited shopping scope for furniture as compared to middle and high income consumers. The findings did not clearly delineate a difference between the income groups as to the shopping scope for ladies shoes. The authors concluded that "consumer shopping behavior varies across products" (p. 52).

Although this is a cross cultural study, the author's findings support those of others that low income consumers have a more restricted shopping scope than middle and high income consumers. However, it may be questionable as to whether his findings can be generalized to the U. S. black poor.

In summarizing the findings of research on blacks' store shopping behavior, there is strong evidence that low income blacks are more immobile in their shopping behavior than whites and middle and high income blacks. However, it is unclear as to whether middle income blacks are less mobile than their white counterparts. Findings are also conflicting as to whether black subgroups differ significantly from comparable whites in their store shopping patronage behavior (e.g. department stores, grocery stores, discount stores and specialty stores). The following questions are still unclear relating to the black shopping behavior studies:

1. Do low income black consumers limit their shopping scope to their immediate residential area because they lack transportation to go outside?
2. Do low income black consumers shop in their immediate residential area because they have credit availability with the

merchants that can not be obtained from outside merchants?

3. Do low income black consumers shop in their immediate neighborhoods for food and nonfood products because they are satisfied with the retail practices of the inner city merchants?

These are clearly areas of research that should be considered major priorities presently and for the future.

Product Buying Behavior

In an excellent review article advanced by Sexton (1972), research on black buyer behavior was categorized as store shopping behavior, product buying behavior and brand buying behavior.[22] After referring to several previous research findings, Sexton concluded that blacks are more likely to be innovative than comparable income whites in product classes that are socially visible (clothing, personal care products, home furnishings, alcohol and tobacco).[23] He noted that income may restrict the degree of innovativeness blacks can exercise; however, the socially visible innovative product classes "may be one area where marketers may find race a useful basis for segmentation" (p. 38). Sexton concluded that research findings revealed two major segments of the black population: those blacks who aspire and attain a middle class life style and those who give in and live at a low income

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[22] Donald E. Sexton, Jr. "Black Buyer Behavior," Journal of Marketing, Volume 36 (October 1972), pp. 36-39.

[23] Ibid., p. 38. The reported findings of Bauer, Cunningham and Wortzel (1965); Portis (1966); Robertson, Dalrymple and Yoshino (1969) and Bauer and Cunningham (1970) supported this thesis.

subsistence level.[24] Finally, Sexton (1972) and Andreasen (1976) have suggested that future research efforts should be directed toward addressing specific product classes (such as the ones cited showing marked expenditure differences between blacks and whites) to determine whether race is a useful basis for segmenting markets for certain products and brands.

A more recent review article of black marketing research study findings was advanced by Schewe (1976).[25] He classified the studies as they related to Neil H. Borden's (1964) marketing mix (product-related research, distribution-related research, promotion-related research and price-related research).[26] Schewe's literature review of black buyer behavior research built on Sexton's (1972) work by identifying an emerging new segment of the black population: the youth versus the older generation market.[27]

Alexis (1962) presented an excellent reanalyses of data based studies conducted by Edwards (1932), Sterner (1943), the Bureau of Labor Statistics (1948 and 1949), Fact Finders (1953) and Friend and

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[24] Ibid., p. 39. These possible segments were referred to as the strivers and nonstrivers by Bauer, Cunningham and Wortzel (1965). The reported findings of Alexis (1962); Akers (1968); Stafford, Cox and Higginbotham (1968) and Bauer and Cunningham (1970) tended to support their thesis.

[25] Charles D. Schewe, "Marketing to Blacks: Research Implications for Managers," Atlanta Economic Review, (September-October 1976), pp. 34-40.

[26] Neil H. Borden, "The Concept of the Marketing Mix," Journal of Advertising Research, Volume 4 (June 1964), pp. 2-7.

[27] These possible market segments were specified in the works of Hills, Granbois and Patterson (1973); Gensch and Staelin (1972) and Gould, Sigband and Zoerner (1970).

Kravis (1957) to determine whether blacks spent their income differently from comparable income whites on such budget items as food, housing, savings, clothing, transportation, recreation and leisure, house furnishings and equipment and medical care.[28] The findings generally revealed that blacks saved more, spent more for non-automobile transportation and clothing and spent less for food, housing, medical care and automobile transportation than comparable income whites. No significant differences were found for comparable income blacks and whites for expenditures on recreation and leisure, home furnishings and equipment (p. 28).

Sawyer's (1962) findings failed to support those of Bullock (1961) and Alexis (1962) that blacks spend less on consumption than comparable income whites.[29] The major thesis underlying Sawyer's research emanated from an assumption in economic theory. He assumed that blacks spend less on goods and services because at any given income level, blacks saved more than whites.

After developing a linear regression equation from a theory of the consumption function resulting in stipulated marginal propensities to consume for both black and white consumers in different geographical regions of the United States, Sawyer summarized his findings:

> The inference is clear that factors other than race are at work in the determination of consumption patterns...the theory

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[28] Marcus Alexis, "Some Negro-White Differences in Consumption," American Journal of Economics and Sociology, Volume 21, Number 1 (January 1962), pp. 27-28.

[29] Broadus E. Sawyer, "An Examination of Race as a Factor in Negro-White Consumption Patterns," The Review of Economics and Statistics, Volume XLIV, Number 2 (May 1962), p. 220.

> still prevails...even in academic circles...that at any given income level, Negroes spend less on consumption than Whites. The data examined here do not support that conclusion and there is an obligation upon the proponents of the theory to present data that support it (p. 220).

Schwartz's (1963) study purpose was directed toward explaining why blacks' dress patterns are significantly different from whites by advancing an in-depth essay focusing on the dress wear of blacks beginning with Pre-Emancipation times and extending through Post World War II. During slavery, the black field and house slaves interacted frequently with the white bourgeoisie (noticing the dress attire of the master's family and friends during formal and informal gatherings) and emulated their dress standards which were "higher than that of lower-class rural whites."[30] As late as the 1930's Sterner (1943) reported that hand-me-down clothing items were frequently worn substantially more by blacks as compared to rural and low income whites.[31] A significant change occurred in the dress attire of blacks throughout the South after World War II.[32] Schwartz had this to say:

> Ottley reported after World War II that throughout the South the emergence of a large class of serious looking, neatly dressed, intelligent Negroes had become increasingly apparent. The familiar rags and hand-me-down, the scuffed, unlaced shoes, the improvised hats--all these and many other details had vanished (p. 228).

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[30]Jack Schwartz, "Men's Clothing and the Negro," Phylon, Volume 24, 1963, p. 226.

[31]Richard Sterner, The Negro's Share, New York, 1943, p. 137.

[32]Roi Ottley, Black Odyssey, New York, 1948, pp. 305-306.

The author set out to test hypotheses relating to why black males purchase clothing items and wear fashions significantly different from comparable income male whites. Randomly selected issues of black and white periodicals (Ebony and Life) between 1947-1956 were used to compare clothing advertisements. The sample advertisements used were 499 and 287 for Ebony and Life respectively (p. 229). Sixty randomly selected stores (haberdasheries) were also included for analysis. The author used this sampling technique because he was interested in understanding how the advertisers and small store owners communicate their knowledge about the specific wants and needs of the black and white men's market (p. 230).

With the exception of suits and jackets, all other items studied (undergarments, hats, ties, shirts, slacks, stockings, shoes, overcoats and jewelry) were higher priced in Ebony and black neighborhood stores as compared to Life and white neighborhood stores. The findings might suggest that blacks, on the average spend more for specific clothing items than comparable income whites (p. 230).

Content analysis of advertising copy appearing in the two magazines was carried out to test the hypothesis that clothing style was more important to black men than the comfort derived from clothing. The author concluded "men's clothing is exhibited to Negroes in a verbal context where style, and not the physical qualities of the garment, plays the major role" (p. 230).
Fashionable and stylish shoes and hats were identified as the two most frequently purchased clothing items for blacks (p. 231).

Bauer, Cunningham and Wortzel (1965) conducted a study based on reanalyses of data obtained by previous researchers directed toward determining the consumption expenditure patterns of black Americans.[33] In identifying the black consumer population as possible segments by race, they coined a typology depicting two separate and distinct segments (strivers and nonstrivers). These terms were explained early in this literature review. Bauer, Cunningham and Wortzel's "striver" black segment seems to support the conclusions of Bullock (1961) that blacks emulate white middle class standards. There is much need for further research to test Bauer, Cunningham and Wortzel's striver/nonstriver" typology.

Portis' (1966) study focused on the fashion interest of black and white women with respect to clothing. He was interested in discerning the facts and fiction about the black fashion market.[34] Information for his study was actually acquired from Rich's (1963) survey study of black and white women shoppers in New York and Cleveland to determine their interest in clothing fashion.[35]

Using a structured questionnaire, an attempt to assess overall interest in fashion revealed blacks and whites exhibit similar interest in changing clothing fashions. When income differences were

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[33] Raymond A. Bauer, Scott M. Cunningham and Lawrence H. Wortzel, "The Marketing Dilemma of Negroes," Journal of Marketing, Volume 29, Number 3 (July 1965), pp. 1-6.

[34] Bernard Portis, "Negroes and Fashion Interest," Journal of Business, University of Chicago Press, Volume 39 (April 1969), p. 314.

[35] Stuart U. Rich, "Shopping Behavior of Department Store Customers," (Division of Research, Harvard Business School), Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1963.

controlled, the findings showed that black women considered fashion to be more important than comparable income white women except at the highest level of $7,500 and over (p. 38). He used interviewers[36] to solicit information from 3,074 white and 375 black women. After analyzing data on black and white consumer social characteristics (level of family income, life cycle and social activities) and their shopping and purchase behavior for clothing, Portis summarized his findings:

> Fashion interest is at least as important a factor as race in describing the methods women use to follow fashions and to purchase clothes. Race is a label applied to groups. . .it bears no necessary relation to the shopping habits or needs of individuals (p. 323).

However, the following questions are posed:

1. Was the sample selected sufficiently representative of black and white women residing in New York and Cleveland for the findings to be generalized to these geographical areas?
2. In that the study focused on fashion behavior reported by respondents, not observed behavior by the researcher, how were the response errors adjusted?

Bauer and Cunningham (1970) analyzed data that was obtained in the comprehensive 1960-1961 Bureau of Labor Statistics Cost of Living Survey and findings reported by Dr. Andrew F. Brimmer for the Department of Commerce in a study carried out comparing black and white consumption expenditure changes for the 1950-1951 and 1960-1961 Bureau of Labor

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[36] In most instances, the interviewer was of the same ethnic origin as the interviewee.

Statistics Cost of Living Surveys.[37]

Controlling for income, their findings showed that "Negroes and whites allocate about 6.6 percent of their expenditures differently" with clothing accounting for the most differences followed by personal care (p. 10). They further observed that Brimmer's findings showed traditional categories where blacks overspent (clothing, alcoholic beverages, tobacco, etc.) decreased with an index number of less than one. With food being an exception, all expenditure categories where blacks underspent (education, household operation, automobiles, medical care, etc.) exceeded that of whites (p. 12). In that Bauer and Cunningham's findings indicate that blacks allocate only 6.6 percent of their expenditures differently from whites, they are suggestive that few basic differences exist between the two races in product expenditure allocations. Hence, a black consumer market segment for certain products was not born out in their research findings.

Myers and Mount's (1973) study built on the original work conducted by Myers, Stanton and Haug (1971).[38] The 1968 Los Angeles Times Continuing Home Audit was the data based used by the authors for analysis. During the entire 1968 calendar year, the audit used a multi-stage area probability sample to collect data on purchases of durable, non-durable and services from 6,000 households via personal

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[37]Raymond A. Bauer and Scott M. Cunningham, "The Negro Market," Journal of Advertising Research, Volume 10, Number 2, (April 1970), pp. 3-13.

[38]James H. Myers, Roger R. Stanton and Arne F. Haug, "Correlates of Buying Behavior: Social Class vs. Income," Journal of Marketing, Volume 35 (October 1971), pp. 8-15.

interviews in the greater Los Angeles area.[39] The authors assigned household respondents to one of five income groups (A,B,C,D,E) and McCann's social class groups (Upper, Upper-middle, Middle, Lower-middle and Lower). Surprisingly, the authors did not clearly delineate the numerical income classes that the alphabets represented. The authors also neglected to specify the racial makeup of the sample. Presumably, one should acquire the earlier study cited for full elaboration. They suggested that income and social class were not intended to take on synonymous meaning and the differential was fairly well established with a correlation of .52 between income and social class (p. 71).

Myers and Mount (1973) computed chi-square values for social class and income groups on specific purchased items within such broad categories as furniture and appliances, children wear, women's wear, men's wear and travel and miscellaneous to determine "which of the two was most highly related to item purchased" (p. 73). Some of the specific purchased items analyzed were black and white televisions, refrigerators, boy's ready-to-wear, shoes for boy or girl, women's sweater, slacks, women's dress ($18-$28), commercial air travel (ever), have U. S. Passport, etc. In order to determine the importance of social class and income as correlates of buying behavior, Myers and Mount tested the variables separately against the null hypothesis of no difference in product ownership among the five social class and income groups (p. 72).

The findings showed that income was a more important variable

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[39] James Myers and John Mount, "More on Social Class vs Income as Correlates of Buying Behavior," Journal of Marketing, (April 1973), p. 71.

than social class in segmenting the market for all purchased items studied except ownership of black and white televisions, ownership of a U. S. Passport and usage of commercial air travel "ever" (p. 73).

More recent studies on service and product buying behavior of blacks using race as a basis for market segmentation were conducted by McKenzie et al. (1976) and Brogowicz (1977) respectively. McKenzie et al. (1976) conducted a study in a major city in the Southwest during late 1974 to determine the importance of race as a basis for segmenting the black population when attitudes of blacks and whites toward banking services are assessed using sex, age, education, family size, income and striver-nonstriver as alternative bases for segmentation.[40] Of the 406 completed interviews (84 percent completion rate of the area sample of 487 homes), 225 and 151 interviews represented a 63:37 percentage ratio of black and white respondents respectively (p. 644). The authors suggested that the percentage proportionality was almost identical to the 1970 Census ratio of blacks and whites residing in the sampling area. Their findings showed alternative bases, especially the striver-nonstriver variable, to be quite important augmenting the effects of race as a useful basis for segmenting the black population for bank services.

Brogowicz (1977) dissertation research investigation (the sample was comprised of black and white faculty and administrators at Michigan State University and residents of Lansing's Model Cities Area) showed

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[40]Roy E. McKenzie, Jr., Jac L. Goldstucker, Kenneth L. Bernhardt and Danny N. Bellenger, "Race as a Segmentation Variable: Some Caveats," 1976 Combined Proceedings: American Marketing Association, 1976, pp. 644-651.

that race was a less effective basis for segmenting the black population for alcoholic beverages when compared to income, social class, race stratified by social class, race stratified by motivation to strive and benefits sought as alternative bases for segmenting the black consumer population.[41] However, Brogowicz's (1977) dissertation study was exploratory, used a convenience sample and this limited generalization of his findings to the black and white populations in the geographical area from which his sample was selected and also with respect to the consumption of alcoholic beverages.

In summarizing the research findings on black product buying behavior, research gaps are abound. While some study findings have revealed that blacks (particularly low income blacks) are status conscious and purchase socially visible products, other study findings have been conflicting. Contradictory research findings have also been reported on blacks' being product innovative. These are areas that are suggestive for future research directions.

Brand Buying Behavior

Sexton (1972) cited two views relating to black consumers brand selection process. The first view is related to price and holds that the black consumer is too poor to purchase national brands. The second view is related to status and holds that the black consumer desires brands and/or labels he feels the most affluent middle and high income

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[41] Andrew Allen Brogowicz, "Race as a Basis for Market Segmentation: An Exploratory Analysis," An unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1977.

whites possess.[42] The contemporary broad view holds the assumption that the black consumers purchase national brands. Conflict of the two views is readily apparent. While price may be more important to low-income blacks, price and quality (national brands denoting status) may be important for high income blacks (Sexton, 1972, p. 38). Earlier in this literature review the point was made that Feldman and Star (1968) found price to be more important to low-income blacks in their shopping behavior more so than convenience of location and quality of the goods purchased than middle-income blacks. Also, conflicting findings were reported by Cox, Higginbotham and Stafford (1972) that high-income blacks tended to patronize discount stores (price consciousness) more than low-income blacks. Therefore, the literature is replete with contradictory and corroborative findings as to low and middle-income blacks preference and purchase behavior for high and low priced brands. In sum, the two viewpoints of black consumers suggested by Sexton are unresolved issues demanding further research exploration.

Larson's (1968) study built on an earlier study carried out by himself and Dr. John S. Wright to determine the brand preferences of Chicago blacks for certain products (no citation of the study was given). Larson's first study was directed toward assessing the findings of the earlier study and a second study of white Chicago households to discern black and white brand usage and media exposure differentials,

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[42]Donald E. Sexton, Jr., "Black Buyer Behavior," p. 38. A proponent of the contemporary broad view is: W. L. Evans, "Ghetto Marketing--What Now?" In Marketing and the New Science of Planning, Robert L. King, ed. (Chicago: American Marketing Association, Fall 1968, p. 528.

if any.[43] The area propability sample consisted of 210 black households and 200 white households, each representative of the black/white households situated in the city of Chicago (Larson, 1968, p. 209). The author studied several food and nonfood products to determine home ownership, gasoline preferences, product preferences, brand preferences and radio listing habits of the black and white household sample respondents.

Larson (1968) used percentages obtained from the original 1966, 1967 data analyzed in his and Dr. Wright's earlier study to discern differentials in brand usage and media exposure for his immediate study. Larson's specific findings showed that white household's income was higher than black household's income; more white households owned their homes than black households; the income effect was more important than the race effect in explaining blacks' ownership and preference for more automobiles than white households; black households purchased more expensive branded gasolines than white households; black households shopped at a low priced food store (A&P) while white households shopped at higher priced food stores (Jewel Tea Company and National Tea Company); food and nonfood product preference differentials between the two ethnic groups were the result of an income effect and black households listened to black oriented radio stations (Larson, 1968, p. 209-213).

Contrary to earlier research findings that blacks shopped at

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[43]Carl M. Larson, "Racial Brand Usage and Media Exposure Differentials," in Keith Cox and Ben M. Enis, A New Measure of Responsibility for Marketing, Proceedings of the 1968 June Conference, American Marketing Association, pp. 208-215.

small inefficient "mom and pop" type stores and preferred private brands, Larson findings showed blacks to patronize national chains for food and nonfood items and were more loyal to national brands than private brands (p. 213). Although Larson's findings indicated that blacks shop at the low priced A&P grocery chain, he added that this grocery chain carried enormous national brands.

Aaker's (1968) study was a spin off research effort of data collected for his doctoral dissertation, which was funded by the Gulf Oil Corporation.[44] The major purpose for the study was to compare automobile characteristics (price class, model class, model year, number of cylinders, number of years owned, new or used) owned by blacks with those owned by whites while holding such demographic variables constant as age, sex, education, occupation, family size, and automobile usage (p. 284). The amount of variation in the criterion variables (automobile characteristics) accounted for by the predictor variables (demographics) were later assessed by using stepwise regression analysis.

Aaker (1968) used an income (trichotomized into lower, middle and upper classes) stratified, two-stage probability, block-controlled quota sampling method to select the basic sample of 300 automobile-owning families for each race; and thereafter randomly selected sub-classes to be interviewed (p. 284). Hence, the basic sample was comprised of 600 families interviewed.

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[44]Fred C. Aakers, "Negro and White Automobile-Buying Behavior: New Evidence," Journal of Marketing Research, Volume v (August 1968), pp. 283-290.

The author alluded to Duesenberry's Relative Income Hypothesis which relies on an emulation of peers principle. Aaker states the hypothesis as "a person total savings (and consumption) are a function of his relative position in the income distribution to which he belongs" (p. 286). He concluded that the relative income hypothesis did not hold for black automobile owners in his sample in that blacks "owned higher price cars, higher priced models, and cars with more cylinders than comparable income whites" (p. 286). Presumably, his point was to show that the distribution of income to blacks is lower than whites; however, blacks' automobile buying behavior refutes the underlying assumptions of the Relative Income Hypothesis. He further tested the upward mobility hypothesis (motivation). This hypothesis basically contends that an individual purchases prestige brand named goods that he feels will increase his social position or status in society. Indeed this is a hypothesis suggested by Bauer, Cunningham and Wortzel (1965) classical "striver"/"nonstriver" segments of the black population. The upward mobility hypothesis relates to the striver segment. However, the upward mobility hypothesis was not supported in Aaker's findings.

The predictors (demographic variables) were quite low in explaining variations in the criterion (automobile characteristics) variables. The highest R^2 (13.62) obtained was for the model year criterion variable and the lowest R^2 (3.7) obtained was for the model class criterion variable. In sum, the authors' findings revealed that blacks in his sample owned more cadillacs than comparable income whites and race is a more useful basis for segmenting the black Chicago population for expensive prestigious automobiles than income (p. 288).

Emanating from a somewhat similar data based study conducted by Dalrymple, Robertson and Yoshino (1969),[45] the major purpose of this research effort was directed toward determining factors that influence ethnic consumption behavior by testing some research findings reported by others, e.g. Attitudes of ethnic groups toward brands (Bauer, Cunningham and Wortzel, 1965 and Akers, 1968); Blacks favor credit heavily (Bullock, 1961); Blacks feel insecure in department store shopping (Bullock, 1961); Blacks purchase new products after they have reached the maturity stage of the product life cycle; and how efficiently are advertisers in penetrating the black consumer market? (Bullock, 1961; Business Week, 1962; Barban and Cundiff, 1964 and Petrof, 1968).[46]

The randomly selected sample was comprised of 150 black, white and Japanese-American housewives in the West Los Angeles area. Consumption behavior data was obtained by trained interviewers conducting depth interviews, direct questioning and self administered materials. The authors indicated that the sample was not representative of the three ethnic groups due to the smallness of the subsample and the methods used to select the respondents.

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[45]Douglas J. Dalrymple, Thomas S. Robertson and Michael Y. Yoshino, "Cultural Compatibility in New Product Adoption," in Philip R. McDonald. Marketing Involvement in Society and the Economy, Proceedings, 1969 Fall Conference, American Marketing Association, pp. 70-75.

[46]Douglas J. Dalrymple, Thomas S. Robertson and Michael Y. Yoshino, "Consumption Behavior Across Ethnic Categories," California Management Review, Volume 14, (Fall 1971), p. 66.

No significant differences in brand preferences between the three ethnic groups were found. Further analysis was undertaken by dividing the three groups into three brand preference levels (high, medium and low). Calculated chi-square statistic values revealed no significant relationships between the three ethnic groups and brand preferences. The three groups were quite diverse on new product innovativeness. Blacks were more innovative for clothing items; whites for food products and Japanese-Americans for small appliance items (p. 67). The income effect accounted for these differences more so than an ethnic effect. Some specific findings follow (pp. 68-69):

1. There was no significant differences between low income members of the three ethnic groups.

2. High income blacks and Japanese-Americans showed significant higher credit interest as compared to whites.

3. Marked differences existed for the three ethnic groups on store preference (blacks preferred medium and high prestige stores; Japanese-Americans preferred discount stores and whites preferred medium and discount stores).

4. Japanese-Americans and whites sought more market information sources before purchasing products than black consumers.

5. The decision making unit for the purchase of cars, tv's, toasters and furniture was dominated by the wife in the black households whereas joint decisions were made in the white and Japanese-American households.

Although smallness of the sample size limits generalization of the authors findings, future replicative studies with larger samples may be appropriate to either support or refute their reported findings. Understandable, some of the author's findings clearly support and contradict those of previous researchers in the black segmentation literature.

King and DeManche (1969) conducted their study in a medium-sized southern Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area on low-income black and white households residing in public housing projects.[47] Their study interest was primarily directed toward discerning whether differentials existed between low-income black and white consumers as to their preferences and purchase behavior of private-branded food products. The authors' general hypothesis was that black and white low-income families purchase private brand food items because they equate lower prices with acceptable quality (p. 63). This hypothesis is clearly in conflict with the findings of most researchers in the area. It has generally been found that low-income consumers prefer national prestigious brands rather than private brands that they know very little about. On the other hand, middle and high income consumers are able to weigh brand attributes more completely before deciding to purchase a national or private brand.

A simple random sample of fifty family units, divided evenly between the two low-income races, was selected for investigation. The authors defined a "low-income" family as a multi-person household with an annual total family income of $3,000 or less (p. 63). Using as middle-income criterion one's affiliation with a city wide

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[47] Robert L. King and Earl Robert DeManche, "Comparative Acceptance of Selected Private-Branded food Products by Low-Income Negro and White Families," in Philip R. McDonald, ed. Marketing Involvement in Society and the Economy, Proceedings, 1969 Fall Conference, American Marketing Association, p. 63.

organization or church affiliation, a quota middle-income sample was selected consisting of only twelve black and thirteen white families.

The authors selected bread, flour, regular coffee, oleomargarine, peanut butter and pork and beans as the six food items to be studied. It was pointed out that these selected food items were also frequently purchased by middle-income families. Personal interviews were conducted in the family households aided with survey and observational techniques.

Specific low and middle-income consumer findings were: Low-income consumers demonstrated a slightly higher knowledge level of available private brands than middle-income consumers; Low and middle-income consumers purchased more national brands of the six food items studied than private brands; Low-income consumers purchased slightly more private brands of the six food items studied than middle-income consumers; and middle-income consumers demonstrated a higher knowledge level of prices for private and national brands of the six items studied than low-income consumers (p. 68).

Specific low-income black and white consumer findings were: Low-income black consumers named more private brands than comparable income whites but no significant differences exist in their level of brand awareness; Store location and public transportation accessibility were more important to low-income consumers than price in determining store preference; however, price was less important to the low-income black consumers than comparable income white consumers on store preference; and black low-income consumers demonstrated a greater significant concern for food price items than comparable income whites when a preferred store was selected (pp. 68-69).

Although this study did not address the issue, Bauer, Cunningham and Wortzel's (1965) "nonstriver" hypothesis appears to have been born out in their findings since low-income blacks purchased more private brands than comparable income whites. However, their findings can be considered suggestive rather than definitive due to the smallness of the sample limiting generalization to other geographical areas.

Coe (1971) indicated in her precise literature review that it is a general consensus (largely void of empirical evidence) that low-income consumers purchase substantially more national brand products than middle and upper-income consumers because they are reluctant to purchase private brands that they know very little about; and middle and upper-income consumers purchase substantially more private brands because of their knowledge of availability of national and private brands and their security in their ability to make rational decisions.[48] The major purpose of Coe's study was to discern brand preference differences between low and middle-income consumers by testing hypotheses relating to the previous two assumptions mentioned. The author was also interested in determining the effects of price changes on national and private brand switching by low and middle-income consumers.

Coe's (1971) random area, income block sample was comprised of fifty low-income black and white consumers and fifty middle-income black and white consumers residing in a central Texas county. An

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[48] Barbara Davis Coe, "Private Versus National Brand Preference Among Lower and Middle-Income Consumers," Journal of Retailing, Volume 47, Number 3 (Fall 1971), pp. 62-63.

income criteria of $3,000 or less depicting low-income consumers and $8,000-$13,000 or less depicting middle-income consumers was used to select her sample respondents.

Coe used variance analysis to test four major hypotheses relating to low and middle-income respondent's preferences for national and private brand food items; their degree of brand loyalty and their price consciousness. The findings revealed that substantial differences exist between low and middle-income consumers' preferences for national and private brand items. More specific findings follow: Lower-income consumers preferred substantially more national brands than middle-income consumers; low-income consumers equated price with quality; middle-income consumers were more price conscious; middle-income consumers were more educated and relied less on product promotions than low-income consumers; low-income consumers exhibited more brand loyalty than middle-income consumers and younger respondents preferred private brands while older respondents preferred national brands (pp. 68-71).

Coe's findings corroborate the findings of King and DeManche (1969) that low-income black consumers prefer national brands over private brands. Her study findings contradict those of Feldman and Star (1968) and Progressive Grocer (1967) that low-income blacks prefer private brands over national brands. Of course, smallness of her sample size limits generalization to low and middle income consumers residing in the central Texas city from which she selected her sample for study.

Larson and Wales' (1973) data based study updated findings on Chicago blacks' brand preferences that were investigated in an earlier study conducted by Wright and Larson (1967).[49] The primary purpose of this study was directed toward getting at changes, if any, in the brand preferences of Chicago blacks as compared to the early 1967 study findings.

The research methodology employed in the study[50] was basically similar to the earlier study. Initially, the authors randomly selected 400 black respondents from the same 12 census tracts with a 25 percent or more concentration of black residents. However, two census tracts had to be deleted and replaced by two others randomly selected because of interviewing difficulties; and the authors ultimately selected three additional census tracts (randomly) to insure the sample base as being representative of the black Chicago population (p. 15). Hence, the 400 black respondents were actually randomly selected from 15 Chicago census tracts.

The data collection method used in the present study differed from the earlier study in that respondents were interviewed as they were leaving food supermarkets; whereas the earlier study interviewed respondents in their homes. A structured questionnaire was used to solicit information on selected branded products purchased for a 30-day period prior to the interview.

With an exception of the demographic profiles of the black household respondents, Larson and Wales' findings were basically

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[49] John S. Wright and Carl M. Larson, A Survey of Brand Preferences Among Negro Families, Champaign, Illinois: Stipes Publishing Company, 1967.

[50] Carl M. Larson and Hugh G. Wales, "Brand Preferences of Chicago Blacks," Journal of Advertising Research, Volume 13, Number 4, (August 1973), pp. 15-21.

similar to the 1966 study findings. The black household respondents were found to be brand loyal, especially for food and cosmetic products, to the same products they preferred in 1966 (p. 21). Aakers' (1968) findings that blacks purchase expensive automobiles such as Cadillacs and Continentals were not born out in their findings; and the "Mom" and "Pop" hypothesis was not supported by the present study nor the 1966 study in that the black household respondents tended to shop at national chain food stores (p. 18).

Over a five-year period, their findings revealed that black consumers were brand loyal to certain products and brands. As has been stressed throughout this literature review, researchers in the area have suggested that the black population may be a viable segment for specific products and brands. Hence, certain food, automobile, cosmetic, gasoline and alcoholic and non-alcoholic beverage products (where black households exhibited brand loyalty over the five-year period) may be candidate products to assess the usefulness of "race" as a segmentation variable.

The earlier dissertation research findings of Ingram (1971) neither clearly refuted or supported the findings of Larson and Wales (1973) in that his findings suggested that blacks' brand loyalty varies across the products studied.[51]

In summarizing the research studies on black brand buying behavior, findings have often been conflicting and inconclusive. While some

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[51]Marcus Vorner Ingram, "A Study of Negro-White Brand Loyalty," Unpublished doctoral dissertation (Chapel Hill, North Carolina, University of North Carolina, 1971).

study findings have revealed that blacks, more so than whites, prefer and purchase nationally brand named products (status and high quality consciousness), other studies have found contrasting results. Contradictory findings have also been reported on the thesis that low-income blacks are more loyal to nationally brand named food and nonfood products rather than private brands as compared to whites and middle-income blacks. Conflicting results have also been reported on blacks being more store loyal, for food and nonfood products, to establishments carrying national brands than comparable income whites. Clearly, these theses being void of definitive corroborative support, beg for future research exploration.

Promotion Behavior

There is a broad data based research literature on the reactions of blacks and whites toward integrated and segregated advertising and media preferences and usage.[52] When one considers the diverse media

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[52] See for example: Arnold M. Barban and Edward W. Cundiff, "Negro and White Response to Advertising Stimuli," Journal of Marketing Research, (November 1964), pp. 53-56; James W. Carey, "Variations in Negro/White Television Preference," Journal of Broadcasting, (Summer 1966), pp. 199-212; Carl M. Larson, "Racial Brand Usage and Media Exposure Differentials," in Keith Cox and Ben M. Enis, eds. A New Measure of Responsibilities for Marketing (Chicago, American Marketing Association, 1968), pp. 208-215; Alan Fletcher, "Negro and White Children's Television Program Preferences," Journal of Broadcasting (Fall 1969), pp. 359-366; Arnold M. Barban, "The Dilemma of Integrated Advertising," The Journal of Business of the University of Chicago, (October 1968), pp. 477-496; James E. Stafford and Al E. Birdwell, "Verbal versus Non-Verbal Measures of Attitudes: The Pupilometer," paper presented at the Consumer Behavior Workshop, American Marketing Association, 1969; Taylor W. Meloan, "Afro-American Advertising Policy and Strategy," in Bernard A. Morin, ed., Marketing in a Changing World (Chicago, American Marketing Association, 1969), pp. 20-23; James W. Cagley and Richard N. Cardozo, "White Response to Integrated Advertising,"

advertisers have used to exhibit brand named clothing and clothing related items using all black models and integrated models to try and reach the black population, the promotional area is quite important in trying to get at the usefulness of "race" as a segmentation variable.

One can readily determine from the cited studies that there is a broader base of research efforts addressing integrated advertising than emphases on all-black versus all-white model advertising. From a marketing manager's decision perspective, this research direction is warranted and will be addressed later in this promotional area of the literature review. However, the reported findings relating to black/white attitudes and preferences toward integrated and segregated advertising and the impact these promotional strategies have on their product purchase behavior, have been conflicting and inconclusive.

It has been suggested that the use of blacks in advertising is mere "tokanism" (Meloan, 1970 and Spain, Dunnaville, Pickins and

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Journal of Advertising Research (April 1970), pp. 35-40; John W. Gould, Norman B. Sigband and Cyril E. Zoerner, Jr., "Black Consumer Reactions to 'Integrated Advertising: An Exploratory Study," Journal of Marketing, (July 1970), pp. 20-26; Lester Guest, "How Negro Models Affect Company Image," Journal of Advertising Research (April 1970), pp. 29-34; Stuart H. Surlin and Joseph R. Dominick, "Television's Function as a 'Third Parent' for Black and White Teenagers," Journal of Broadcasting (Winter 1970-1971), pp. 55-64; B. Stuart Tolley and John J. Goett, "Reactions to Blacks in Newspaper Ads," Journal of Advertising Research (April 1971), pp. 11-17; William V. Muse, "Product-Related Response to Use of Black Models in Advertising," Journal of Marketing Research (February 1971), pp. 107-109; Mary Jane Schlinger and Joseph T. Plummer, "Advertising in Black and White," Journal of Marketing Research (May 1972), pp. 149-153; and Ronald F. Bush, Robert F. Gwinner and Paul J. Solomon, "White Consumer Sales Response to Black Models," Journal of Marketing, Volume 38 (April 1974), pp. 25-29.

Nash, 1969); while others have concluded that marketers and advertisers want to penetrate this possible segment for economic reasons (Gould, Sigband and Zoerner, 1970).

Cagley and Cardozo (1969) conducted a controlled experiment at the University of Minnesota's School of Business Administration using students enrolled in a principles of marketing course as subjects.[53] Their findings indicated that integrated advertisements featuring a black model received a significant lower evaluation by highly prejudiced white students than liberal white students (p. 56). Their findings seemed to have suggested that marketers and advertisers were faced with the problem of trying to determine appropriate promotional strategies and/or tactics to employ in trying to effectively reach the black consumer population without alienating the white majority market. The authors suggested that the products advertised using black models could adversely affect company sales and image from highly prejudiced white "backlash" (p. 56). Adverse reactions, to at least one black model advertisement among the several black model advertisements tested, were also reported by Barban and Cundiff (1964); Barban (1969); Guest (1970); Stafford, Birdwell and Van Tassel (1970); Muse (1971) and Block (1972).[54] However, some of these studies and others generally reported that whites had no significant attitudinal differences toward

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[53]James W. Cagley and Richard N. Cardozo, "Racial Prejudice and Integrated Advertising: An Experimental Study," in Philip R. McDonald, ed. Marketing Involvement in Society and the Economy, 1969 Fall Conference Proceedings, American Marketing Association, pp. 52-56.

[54]Ronald F. Bush, Robert F. Gwinner and Paul J. Solomon, "White Consumer Sales Response to Black Models," p. 25.

all-black models or integrated models (Guest, 1970; Stafford, Birdwell and Van Tassell, 1970; Muse, 1971; Schlinger and Plummer, 1972; and Bush, Gwinner and Solomon, 1974).

Gould, Sigband and Zoerner (1970) conducted a survey study in Los Angeles with a sample comprised of five advertising agencies and advertisers (using telephone interviews) and 109 randomly selected black respondents (using personal interviews at supermarket sites) to determine their attitudes toward integrated advertising.[55] The advertisers and black respondents basically agreed that the introduction of integrated advertising was economic; however, some of the black respondents felt that it was mere tokanism (p. 26). It is well worth advertisers time to consider the age factor when trying to reach the black consumers in that the authors' findings showed that younger blacks were less favorable toward integrated advertising than older blacks. The authors interpreted this dilemma, which was born out by future research findings, as an implication that younger blacks are inquisitive as to whether the move on advertisers' part to use integrated advertising is indicative of social change; while older blacks feel that this is a step forward in recognizing blacks as being a contributory spoke to the American consumer market wheel. Hence, evidence of progress was evolving in the promotional arena giving older blacks a sense of pride that they are no longer looked upon as second class citizens.

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[55] John W. Gould, Norman B. Sigband and Cyril E. Zoerner, Jr., "Black Consumer Reactions to 'Integrated Advertising': An Exploratory Study," Journal of Marketing, Volume 34 (July 1970), pp. 20-26.

Muse (1971) was interested in discerning how whites felt toward ads using black models and whether their reactions varied across product categories.[56]

From the student body of a large state university in the Midwest, a randomly selected sample of 120 white subjects as an experimental group and 120 white subjects as a control group resulted in 233 usable responses (121 for the control group and 112 for the experimental group) for analysis (p. 107).

The author noted that one limitation of his study was the use of students which may restrict the generalization of the findings to the noncollege population. However, "students are a major consuming group and might serve as a 'weather vane' for future advertising strategy using only black models for white audiences" (p. 109). His findings showed that the white respondents rated all-black advertisements as favorable as all-white advertisements and any degree of unfavorableness was the result of the product advertised (for example, feminine napkins) rather than race (p. 109). Muse's findings clearly contradicted those of Stafford and Birdwell (1969) and Cagley and Cardozo (1969, 1970) in that their study findings revealed no significant incidence of white unfavorableness toward black models being product related.

Schlinger and Plummer (1972) were interested in ascertaining the reactions of black and white adult women toward all-black and all-white

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[56] William V. Muse, "Product-Related Response to Use of Black Models in Advertising," Journal of Marketing Research, Volume VIII (February 1971), pp. 107-109.

cast versions of a television commercial.[57] Two fifty-second color commercials, being identical except for the casting, were tested featuring a male and female model admiring a special premium gift with cigarettes as they smoked the brand named cigarette (p. 150).

The sample was comprised of 192 white and 94 black women users of the product as respondents who were recruited and interviewed individually. In order to get at their study objectives, half of the white and black respondents were shown the all-white commercial while the other halves were shown the all-black commercial. The respondents were subjected to several statements on a Likert type scale indicating their level of agreement or disagreement with the statements.

Schlinger and Plummer's findings further supported those of Stafford, Birdwell and Van Tassell (1970); Guest (1970) and Muse (1971) that no significant differences exist in white respondent reactions to all-black, all-white or integrated advertising (p. 151). The answer is still unclear as to whether advertisers should use all-black versus all-white or integrated advertising in the general media to effectively penetrate the black consuming population. Findings have also been contradictory relating to the hypothesis that it is a most effective marketing strategy to use all-black models in black oriented media, especially black oriented magazines and newspapers, when trying to get blacks to purchase company products. Further research efforts are needed to explore these theses.

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[57] Mary Jane Schlinger and Joseph T. Plummer, "Advertising in Black and White," Journal of Marketing Research, Volume IX (May 1972), p. 150.

Bush, Gwinner and Solomon (1974) observed that several studies have been conducted discerning the attitudes of black and white consumers toward segregated and integrated advertising; however, little attention has been directed toward understanding what effects their attitudes have on sales response.[58] So a research effort was directed toward explaining answers to the following questions: "What do these attitudinal findings mean in terms of sales response? Will more neutral or less favorable attitudes, particularly among white consumers, manifest themselves in reduced sales?" (Bush, Gwinner and Solomon, 1974, p. 26).

The authors were specifically interested in the product-choice behavior of white consumers after being exposed to end-aisle, point-of-purchase supermarket displays that were either segregated (all-white models and all-black models) or integrated (black and white models). Three hypotheses to be tested were formulated relating to younger and older white men and women purchase behavior (for bars of bath soap) after being exposed to displays exhibiting black models.

The study was conducted in Phoenix, Arizona in three experimental supermarket chains situated in the research area whose residents were ninety-seven percent white; had a fairly well age distribution of households under 50 and 50 or older; had a median household income of $12,000 and the households had a median education level of 13 years (p. 27).

The results were analyzed using a double Latin square experimental design to evaluate the store effect, the models' race and shopping

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[58]Ronald F. Bush, Robert F. Gwinner and Paul J. Solomon, "White Consumer Sales Response to Black Models," pp. 25-26.

days.[59] Their findings showed no significant differences in whites' sales response relative to the three displays they were exposed to. Chi-square statistics also showed that age and sex were not related to whites' sales response (p. 28). Hence, all three hypotheses were rejected. The authors indicated that their findings were consistent with those of Guest (1970); Stafford, Birdwell and Van Tassel (1970); Muse (1971) and Schlinger and Plummer (1972) in that they too found no significant differences in whites' attitudes toward the use of black models in advertisements.

In sum, the findings have been inconsistent relative to an effective promotional strategy for advertisers and marketers to employ in trying to reach and penetrate the black consumer population. Before turning to a summarization of the literature reviewed and research needs, attention is focused on promotional strategy guidelines Cohen (1970) and Cox, Higginbotham and Stafford (1972) suggested for advertisers and marketing managers when trying to reach and penetrate the black consumer population. Cohen had this to say:

> By applying a segmentation strategy to what has heretofore been considered a homogeneous community, the advertising world can offer evidence of significant differences among black groups. Advertising can provide the opportunity for the higher level black to secure the recognition he deserves and incentive for the lower level black to strive for similar status.[60]

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[59]Ibid: The three experimental supermarkets were subjected to a rotation of the three displays over a six day week period. e.g. Supermarket A: Monday (I), Tuesday (W), Wednesday (B), Thursday (I), Friday (W), Saturday (B). I equal a black and a white model, W equal all white models, and B equal all black models.

[60]Dorothy Cohen, "Advertising and the Black Community," Journal of Marketing, Volume 34 (October 1970), p. 11.

Cox, Higginbotham and Stafford suggest:

> Marketers of all kinds have become increasingly aware of the potential opportunities offered by cultivating the Negro market. The advertising industry, in particular, has taken the lead in trying to appeal to the Negro and white markets simultaneously through integrated advertising. Yet, in reality, our society is not an integrated one and it is very likely that broad based promotional campaigns lose some of their effectiveness because of antiquated ideas, practices, and policies of retailers....Retailers must become more cognizant of Negro shopping behavior patterns and attitudes toward credit if they are to derive the maximum benefits from this segment.[61]

Knowingly, advertisers and marketing managers are interested in yielding the maximum sales response from monies expended for promotional strategies when trying to reach and penetrate the black and white populations. Cox, Higginbotham and Stafford's (1972) contentions have merit; but will a separate promotional strategy treating the black population yield outcomes (increasing percentage of blacks' purchase of a company's products) that will offset the advertising expenditures allocated toward reaching this ethnic group? Schewe (1976), after advancing an excellent review of data based studies in the promotional area, sheds some light on this issue:

> Marketers may be well advised to use integrated ads to ensure high effectiveness with black market segments--except where there is an indication of a highly prejudiced white segment of sufficient size. Research suggests that marketing managers be aware of differences in media usage patterns between blacks and whites. More work is needed here however.[62]

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[61] Keith K. Cox, James B. Higginbotham and James E. Stafford, "Negro Retail Shopping and Credit Behavior," Journal of Retailing, (Spring 1972), p. 65.

[62] Charles D. Schewe, "Marketing to Blacks: Research Implications for Managers," p. 37.

Summary and Research Needs

Opportunities for meaningful market segmentation research efforts in the black buyer behavior area abound. This chapter began with a review of data based studies on black buyer behavior sectioned as store shopping, product, brand and promotion behavior.

Findings on the shopping scope of black consumers have been conflicting and inconclusive. While some study findings have shown that black consumers tend to be limited in their shopping scope in that they shop for food and nonfood products in their immediate neighborhoods because they are immobile and lack transportation to shop outside their immediate residential area; other findings have revealed that they have assess to public transportation (buses, cabs, subways, etc.) and therefore go outside their immediate vicinities to get better deals in their purchase of food and nonfood products. The mobile shopping behavior hypothesis has particularly been supported for middle income blacks who have assess to automobile transportation and go outside their immediate neighborhoods to purchase goods and services.

Relating to patronage behavior for nonfood items, research findings have also been conflicting. While study findings have shown that low-income blacks patronize national chains and department stores (product and brand quality consciousness) and middle and high-income blacks frequent private chains and discount stores, other findings have been conflicting. Further, conflicting findings have been reported relating to blacks' interest in convenience of location, store atmosphere and prices of food and nonfood items. While some findings have shown that blacks place more importance on convenience of location and friendly store personnel over low prices, other findings have shown reversed results. Reported findings have also revealed that the shopping scope of black consumers is the result of an income effect rather than an ethnic effect. As the income of blacks increase, their shopping behavior tends to equate that of middle class whites. Due to the conflicting findings surrounding this hypothesis, it is quite evident that it begs for further research efforts to be carried out in different geographical settings. Schewe (1976) suggested an avenue for future research to be directed toward getting at whether the income effect limits blacks' impulse buying more so than comparable income whites.

Empirical evidence has also been provided suggesting that the age variable is significant in the black consumers' shopping and purchase behavior. Younger blacks behave differently from older blacks in the marketplace. Hence, the youth versus the older generation market has been suggested as a useful segment of the black population.

A basic gap in the shopping scope of black consumers has been research directed toward determining the shopping preferences and motivations of this ethnic group. Do low-income blacks prefer to shop in their immediate neighborhoods although they are cognizant of the same brand named products being available at lower prices by mass merchandisers situated outside their immediate vicinity? If so, what factors account for this type of behavior demonstrated by low-income black consumers? Is it because they have credit availability within their immediate residential areas that cannot be acquired from outside merchants? Is it because they do not have available transportation to shop outside their immediate neighborhoods? Is it because they are ethical to black owned businesses operating in their neighborhoods? Or, is it because their grossly inadequate annual income tends to limit their shopping scope to their immediate vicinities? Reported findings addressing these questions have often been conflicting and inconclusive. There is much need for future research efforts to be carried out addressing these issues.

The product buying behavior area has received a fair amount of research and study findings have faired well in being corroborative on samples of black and white respondents situated in different geographical areas. When blacks' product buying behavior was compared to whites with comparable incomes, blacks tended to overspend on clothing, personal care products (e.g. toothpaste, mouthwash and deodorant), alcohol (especially brands of scotch), furniture and appliances, and tobacco. However, blacks spend less than comparable income whites for food, education, medical care, transportation and utilities. These findings suggest that blacks are more interested in socially visible products (status consciousness) than comparable income whites. It has been suggested by Sexton (1972) that socially visible products may be meaningful product classes to explore race as a useful basis for segmenting the black population for certain products and brands.

Study findings have generally shown that blacks are more product innovative, particularly for clothing products, than comparable income whites in that they are normally the first purchasers of new clothing fashions and styles. For less socially visible products such as appliances, findings suggest that blacks are less innovative than comparable income whites.

There is a need for further studies to be directed toward researching the striver versus nonstriver black market segments; to better understand the distinct product innovativeness of blacks; and to better understand blacks' attitudes toward product quality (expected versus perceived versus actual) Schewe, 1976.

Brand buying behavior findings on black consumers have also been somewhat conflicting and inconclusive. Emanating from Bullock's work (1961) suggesting that blacks prefer to aspire toward white middle class standards and Bauer, Cunningham and Wortzel's "striver" versus "nonstriver" typology (1965), future researchers should test hypotheses that blacks prefer quality brand named products; and as the income of blacks increase, product and brand selection differences between black and white consumers tend to disappear. Relating to the status hypothesis cited, reported findings have shown that as the income of blacks increase, their interest in the price of products increase; however, other study findings failed to support the status hypothesis.

Blacks, as compared to their white counterparts, have been found to be more loyal to nationally branded food and nonfood products than private brands; low-income blacks are more loyal to private brand food items than national brands and vis' a versus'; while black brand loyalty for national and private food and nonfood items was shown to vary for different products within a product class.

Although reported research findings on the purchase behavior of blacks for national and private branded food and nonfood products have been inconclusive, it appears justified to conclude that the findings generally revealed that middle and high-income black consumers closely relate to the status hypothesis in that they tend to emulate white middle class status and act out these motives by purchasing quality brand named food and nonfood products.

Further research is needed to understand blacks' preferences and purchase behavior for national and private branded food and non-food products; and to determine to what extent they equate price with quality of the goods purchased. Findings relating to Bauer, Cunningham and Wortzel's (1965) striver versus nonstriver hypothesis are still unclear and demands further validation through replicative data based research efforts in different geographical areas. Hence, do generalizable significant differences exist between low and middle-income blacks as to their brand preferences and purchase behavior?

More research efforts are needed to discern whether blacks' preferences and brand selection behavior (on the aggregate) significantly differ from comparable income whites. If significant differences are generally found from data based study findings, marketing managers may find race to be a useful basis for segmenting the black population for certain products and brands. In sum, more research investigations are needed to ascertain blacks' brand loyalty and brand switching (from national to private, private to private and national to national) for specific products within product classes and the reasons underlying such occurrences.

Advertisers and marketing managers are confused as to what type of advertising strategy to use (integrated and/or segregated) in different general and/or racially oriented media to effectively reach and possibly penetrate the black consumer population. Advertisers desire to use promotional strategies that will effectively penetrate the black consumer population while not alienating the white general consumer market. Using the general media to tap both black and white consumers may lead to a white "backlash" from highly prejudiced whites.

Study findings have revealed that whites have no significant attitudinal differences toward segregated black and/or integrated advertisements being used to promote company products; while other findings have shown that highly prejudiced whites rate ads using black models significantly lower than ads using all white models. Blacks, especially low-income and noncollege attended, have been found to prefer all-black models over all-white models in television advertisements. Younger blacks have been found to be less favorable toward integrated advertising than older blacks. Also, findings suggest that whites have no negative effect on a companys' image being tarnished when advertisers use black models to promote their products.

Findings relating to blacks' preferences for certain television and radio programs, shows and usage rate, have shown that younger and older blacks' preferences differ significantly and blacks' preferences differ significantly from whites (Carey, 1966; Larson, 1968; Fletcher, 1969 and Surlin and Dominick, 1970-1971).

Due to the absence of significant criticism from blacks and whites, some researchers in the area have concluded that blacks can be effectively reached through the general media using integrated promotional strategies; while others have formed a contrary opinion. A majority of these researchers' data based study findings have been less than conclusive.

There is much need for further research to be carried out examining television commercials in that most studies have used print media advertisements to study the attitudes of blacks and whites toward integrated and/or segregated advertising. More research efforts are needed to discern the attitudinal effect on sales response of blacks and whites toward integrated and/or segregated advertising. Further research is needed addressing the age variable in different geographical areas as well as income, education, sex, organizational affiliations and occupation to determine what impact these variables have on black and white consumers' attitudes toward integrated and segregated advertising.

In that most previous research efforts in the area lack replication and corroboration, it is felt that the research reported herein will make a positive contribution to the field.

CHAPTER III

OBJECTIVES, HYPOTHESES, AND METHODOLOGY

Research Objectives

The effectiveness of race as a single segmentation variable has been questioned in the marketing literature. Research efforts have been directed toward discerning the buyer behavior differences and similarities between black and white consumers (Stafford, Cox and Higginbotham, 1968; Bauer and Cunningham, 1970; Alexis, Haines and Simon, 1972; McKenzie et al., 1976; and Engel, Kollat and Blackwell, 1978). It is the consensus of researchers in the area that the effects of race, as a segmentation variable, can be better understood when moderator variables are controlled. In Chapter II, several researchers were cited who studied or specified general customer characteristic (e.g. age, sex, income, geographical location, etc.) and product-specific characteristic (e.g. store and product loyalty, innovators and noninnovators, attitudes, perceptions, preferences, etc.) variables as moderators to better explain the effects of race as a segmentation variable.

The major research objective of this dissertation is to discern the effectiveness of race as a basis for market segmentation while controlling for income, occupation, education and striver versus nonstriver correlative variables. More specifically, this study is directed toward determining whether a sufficient black female clothing market exists to warrant separate management treatment.

Studies appearing in the black buyer behavior literature treating race as a single segmentation variable normally used lower income blacks with minimum attention directed toward middle income black consumers. "Although it would be incorrect to assume that segments do not exist within the black market, most research has not made such delineations" (Engel, Kollat and Blackwell, 1978, p. 102). Recent data based studies using moderator variables sugmenting the effects of race as a segmentation variable fell short of adequately treating the buyer behavior patterns of subgroups that may exist within the black population (Kindel, 1970; McKenzie, et al., 1976 and Brogowicz, 1977). Brogowicz treated low and middle income blacks' preferences and purchase and usage behavior differences for alcoholic beverages in his exploratory study using a convenience sample. He used an "affluent class" and "disadvantaged class" typology to depict middle and lower income/class consumers respectively.

Socioeconomic, demographic and psychographic variables have been cited as common ways by which markets are segmented (Kotler, 1976, p. 144). Also, past research efforts in the black buyer behavior segmentation area have born out the fact that such variables as occupation, education, income, age and benefits sought may be plausible candidates augmenting the effects of race as a basis for market segmentation.

While some researchers have concluded that socioeconomic and demographic variables are of little use for discerning customer purchase behavior differences for frequently purchased household durables (e.g. Garfinkel, 1963; Twedt, 1964; Frank, Green and Sieber, 1967; Frank, 1968; and Day, 1969), other study findings have been conflicting (e.g. Martineau, 1958; Cox and Rich, 1964; Bass, Pessimer and Tigert, 1969). Carman's (1965) findings showed socioeconomic and demographic variables to be effective in explaining consumer purchase behavior for durable home furniture. However, the above cited studies focused on the general consumer market. Further, most of the negative results were from studies of frequently purchased household grocery products. The clothing product category was not directly addressed by these studies and deserves added attention.

Study Design

To accomplish the research objectives posed for this dissertation study, several factors must be considered: (1) Operational definitions of terms to be used in this study must be specified; (2) In order to either reject or accept the major research hypothesis, the writer must state product-specific, statistically testable hypotheses; (3) A representative black/white sample selection procedure must be specified; (4) An adequate data collection procedure must be outlined; and (5) A plan for analyses of data must be presented.

Descriptive studies must address the who, what, when, where, why and how of the research study (Churchill, 1976, p. 68). The sample is comprised of women head of households or wives. Respondents' perceptions, shopping patterns and purchase behavior for nationally and privately branded dresses and slacks were measured. Respondents were interviewed in their homes over a two month period during Summer, 1979. The measurements were developed to discern whether a black female market for clothing exists. Measurements were obtained by administering a structured undisguised questionnaire via personal interviews.

Personal interviews were chosen over telephone or mail surveys for several reasons. First, the absence of control over the data collection setting deemed mailed questionnaires and telephoning to be infeasible (Boyd, Westfall and Stasch, 1977, p. 120). Secondly, interviewer personal contact with the interviewees was highly necessary to appropriately complete the survey instrument. Certain procedures needed to be explained and certain questions demanded further elaboration (e.g. a sorting of "high priced" and "medium priced" brands). Further, personal interviews were used to insure a reasonable response/participation rate by respondents.

Operational Definition of Terms

Race refers to black and white American consumers only. Income refers to the total annual household income, before taxes. Occupation refers to white collar positions (e.g. professionals; government, federal, state and local officials; and executives) and blue collar positions (e.g. technicians; skilled, semiskilled and unskilled workers; and clerical workers). A respondent's educational level is defined as formal education (or equivalent verified via examinations) with a minimum of no formal education to a maximum of graduate education. A striver is defined as a black consumer attempting to achieve white middle class values. A nonstriver is defined as a black consumer who feels that she cannot or does not desire to achieve white middle class values; and therefore, continues to live at a lower class level. Lastly, a $9,000 break was used to classify low and middle income sample respondents. *Time Magazine* (June 17, 1974, p. 19) cited a controversial article in *Commentary* (1973) indicating that blacks have made it into the middle class because a majority of Northern blacks earn more than $8,000 a year and a majority of Southern blacks earn more than $6,000 annually. Criticisms were received from black scholars who felt that these income levels were periously low to measure for middle class in such inflationary times and suggested that a floor level of $11,500 would be a more adequate measure. Time Magazine noted that this income level would classify only a quarter of black Americans as middle class as compared to almost 50 percent of whites. Sales Management (Thayer C. Taylor, July 8, 1974, p. A-7) used $8,000-$15,000 black income groups to denote middle class. Due To the controversy surrounding a cutoff level to denote black middle income families, we decided to follow the more dated classification advanced by the Bureau of Census.[1]

Before defining the dress and slack product classes studied, the reasons for their selection will be cited. The product classes were selected to potentially meet the segmentation criteria specified in Chapter I. Alexis, Haines and Simon's (1968) study was not a black buyer behavior segmentation study. However, they encouraged their respondents to shop for nonpersonal clothing items such as dresses, blouses, sweaters, slacks and raincoats where valid and reliable data may be obtained; rather than personal clothing items such as undergarments, sleepwear and maternity clothing where good data could be

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[1]Income levels were chosen on the basis of the U. S. Bureau of Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-60, No. 108 indicating median black family income of $9,321 in 1975.

difficult to obtain.[2] The dress and slack product classes selected for this dissertation study also appear to be visible clothing products connotating the "upward mobility" hypothesis (status consciousness). Further, national and private brands for the product classes selected are readily available affording the respondents diverse selection for formal and informal occasions.

The following product-specific definitions of the clothing product classes studied are:

<u>Dresses</u> - refer to full, medium or short length dresses and full, medium or short length skirts that may be of a formal or casual nature.

<u>Slacks</u> - refer to all pants (e.g. blue jeans, shorts, gym suits, pantsuits, pedal pushers, etc.).

Operational definitions of nationally and privately branded dresses and slacks must be advanced. The problem of trying to operationally define national and private brands is compounded when manufacturers are selling their clothing products under their own name and/or a distributors' name. Schutte (1969) has suggested that marketers should come up with a terminology classification in branding that can be properly used for all product categories and industries. He advanced a two term typology; manufacturers' brand (national) and distributors' brand (private) that was successfully

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[2] Marcus Alexis, George H. Haines, Jr. and Leonard Simon, "Consumer Information Processing: The Case of Women's Clothing," in Robert L. King, ed. <u>Marketing and the New Science of Planning</u>, Proceedings of 1968 Fall Conference, American Marketing Association, p. 198.

tested and used in a research project he conducted:

> A manufacturers' brand may be defined as one which is owned and controlled by an organization whose primary commitment is production. A distributors' brand may be defined as one which is owned and controlled by an organization whose primary economic commitment is distribution....For example, Genesco's show products include Jarman, Mademoiselle, Johnson & Murphy and Cover Girl. Since manufacturing contributed 64% of sales and retailing 36%, the primary economic commitment of the company is production. Hence, the Jarman and other shoe labels are manufacturers' brands.[3]

As used for this dissertation study, the brands are defined as:

National brands - refer to dresses and slacks that bear a manufacturers' label (e.g. Bobby Brooks, Jonathan Logan, Panther and College Town).

Private brands - refer to all other distributors (regional and local wholesalers and retailers) branded name dresses and slacks not bearing a manufacturers' label (e.g. Proffitt, Miller's, Sears, J. C. Penney's and Wards).

Lastly, operational definitions of the dependent measures explored in the study must be specified. The way a female consumer perceives nationally and privately branded dresses and slacks on such attributes as price, style, quality and status consciousness affect her level of satisfaction for the product. Further, the way she perceives store assortment, services, friendliness of store personnel, store physical characteristics and store clientele affect her shopping, purchase and store patronage behavior.[4] Perceptions

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[3]Thomas F. Schutte, "The Semantics of Branding," Journal of Marketing, Volume 33 (April, 1969), pp. 9-10.

[4]Michael Perry and Nancy J. Norton, "Dimensions of Store Image," Southern Journal of Business, Volume 5 (April 1970), pp. 1-7.

refer to the way a female consumer perceived nationally and privately branded dresses and slacks relative to the price, value, quality, fashion and prestige attributes. Perceived familiarity refers to the number of nationally and privately brand named dresses and slacks a respondent is familiar with measured by a predetermined list (See Appendix I, Part I-A). Shopping behavior refers to the form of transportation used, store location, type of store, and store attributes (e.g. credit availability, store's reputation, ethnic ownership, type of brands carried and personnel knowledge of brands carried) affecting a female's shopping behavior for dresses and slacks. Purchase behavior refers to the brand named dresses and slacks the female consumers actually purchased over a two year period. The writer also attempted to determine the reasons underlying the purchase of nationally and privately branded name dresses and slacks.

Statement of Hypotheses

Perceptions, shopping patterns and purchase behavior of female blacks were explored to determine whether a separate clothing market exists that would warrant separate management treatment. Black buyer behavior segmentation research studies have mostly focused on such consumer behavior dimensions as saving patterns, credit usage, brand and store preferences, media habits and so on.[5] The decision making unit, purchase patterns and shopping patterns have been categories used to report black segmentation research findings (Frank, Massy

[5] Alan R. Andreasen, "Consumer Research Needs in the Ghetto," Paper presented at the American Marketing Association Fall Conference, August 20, 1975, p. 3.

and Wind, 1972, p. 38); while savings and consumption, product and brand purchases and decision making behavior have also been specified.[6] The why (benefits sought) of black buyer behavior and psychographic/ life style variables have received minimal attention in the black segmentation literature. This study examines the perceptions, shopping patterns and purchase behavior of black Americans where voids are still present demanding further research.

The major research hypothesis stated in Chapter I is operationally restated in null form followed by research questions that must be addressed in this dissertation study in order to formulate testable subhypotheses:

> No significant differences exist between black and white consumer (or between various subgroups within the black population) perceptions, shopping patterns and purchase behavior as they relate to nationally and privately branded clothing when controlling for income, occupation, education and striver versus nonstriver variables.

Emanating from the major operational research hypothesis stated, the following research questions are posed:

1_a Do Significant differences exist in the perceptions and perceived familiarity of low and middle income black consumers of nationally and privately brand named dresses and slacks?

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[6]Alan R. Andreasen and Lloyd C. Hodges, "Clothing Race and Consumer Decision Making," Paper prepared for Marketing and Minorities Workshop, Ohio State University, May 27-29, 1976, pp. 4-5.

1_b If so, how do their perceptions and familiarities differ?

1_c What variables account for the most difference?

2_a Do significant differences exist in the perceptions and perceived familiarity of black and white consumers of nationally and privately brand named dresses and slacks?

2_b If so, how do their perceptions and familiarities differ?

2_c What variables account for the most difference?

3_a Do significant differences exist in the shopping and purchase behavior of low and middle income black consumers for nationally and privately brand named dresses and slacks?

3_b If so, how do their shopping and purchase behavior differ?

3_c What variables account for the most difference?

4_a Do significant differences exist in the shopping and purchase behavior of black and white consumers for nationally and privately brand named dresses and slacks?

4_b If so, how do their shopping and purchase behavior differ?

4_c What variables account for the most difference?

In order to respond to the research questions and satisfy the research objectives stated, operational subhypotheses are now stated. A statement of subhypotheses and dependent variable measurements are shown in Table I. The hypotheses are diagrammatically presented in Figure II.

<u>Hypotheses - Black and Whites' Perceptions and Perceived Familiarity</u>

Researchers have observed that many blacks aspire to achieve white middle class values (Bullock, 1961; Bauer, Cunningham and

TABLE I

DEPENDENT VARIABLE MEASUREMENT*

	Dependent Variables	Hypotheses	Section of Questionnaire
I.	Blacks' perceptions of clothing brands	H_{1A}	I-B
II.	Black and Whites' perceptions of clothing brands	H_{1B}	I-B
III.	Blacks' perceived familiarity with clothing brands	H_{2A}	I-A
IV.	Black and Whites' perceived familiarity with clothing brands	H_{2B}	I-A
V.	Blacks' shopping behavior for dresses and slacks	H_3, H_4, H_5	II-A, II-B, IV
VI.	Black and Whites' shopping behavior for dresses and slacks	H_6, H_7	II-A, II-B
VII.	Blacks' purchase behavior for clothing brands	H_8	III-A
VIII.	Black and Whites' purchase behavior for clothing brands	$H_9, H_{10}, H_{11}, H_{12}$	III-A, III-B

*The questionnaire is presented in Appendix I.

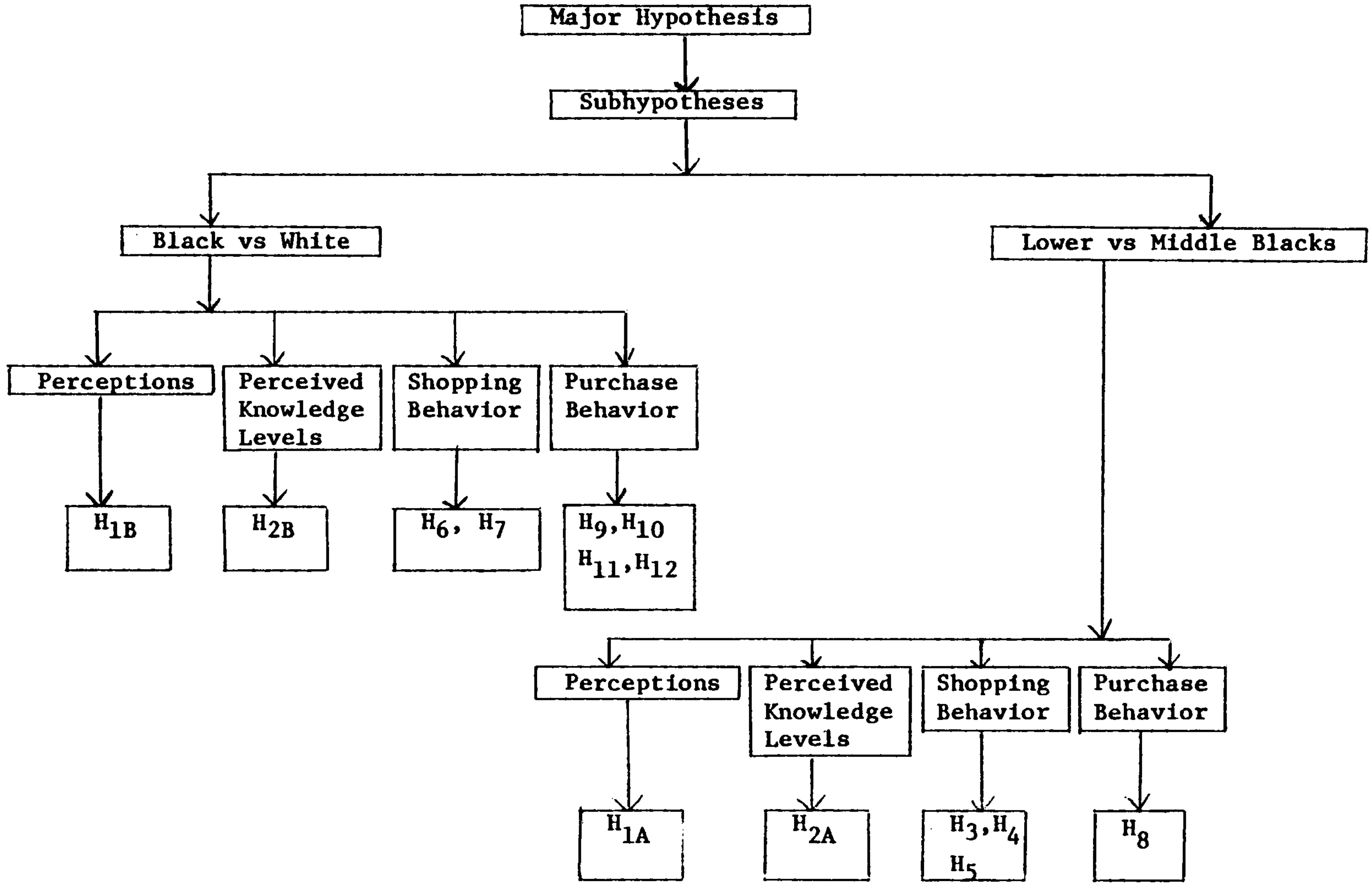

FIGURE II

H Y P O T H E S E S

Wortzel, 1965; and Bauer and Cunningham, 1970). Further, if these study findings indicate that blacks' perceptions and perceived familiarities of existing clothing brands and their shopping and purchase behavior are not significantly different from comparable whites, separate management treatment to penetrate the black consumer clothing population would not be warranted. Assuming that nationally branded items usually denote quality and high prestige, the following four (4) subhypotheses were formulated to partially test the above theses:

H_{1A} Lower income blacks will perceive nationally branded name dresses and slacks to be indicative of high quality and high prestige to a greater degree than middle income blacks.

H_{1B} Overall, blacks perceive nationally branded name dresses and slacks to be indicative of high quality and high prestige to a greater degree than their white counterparts.

H_{2A} Lower income blacks' familiarity with existing nationally and privately branded name dresses and slacks are significantly lower than middle income blacks.

H_{2B} Overall, blacks' perceived familiarity with existing nationally and privately branded name dresses and slacks are significantly lower than their white counterparts.

Research findings have been quite diverse relating to the shopping scope and purchase behavior of black consumers. The literature has generally revealed: Low income black consumers have a more limited shopping scope as compared to middle income black consumers; low income black consumers shop at department stores to a greater degree than middle income black consumers; low income black consumers are more store loyal to black owned and/or operated businesses than middle income black consumers; low income black consumers are more loyal to nationally brand named products than middle income black consumers; younger blacks are more private brand proneness than older blacks; younger blacks prefer all black models in advertising while older blacks prefer integrated advertising; and middle income blacks tend to emulate white middle class standards by attempting to achieve their values. Several subhypotheses will be stated below specifically addressing certain of these theses:

Hypotheses - Black and Whites' Shopping and Purchase Behavior

H_3 Lower income blacks have a more limited shopping scope than middle income blacks.

H_4 Lower income blacks consider black ownership/management of businesses to be a more important patronage attribute than middle income blacks.

H_5 Lower income blacks consider advertising to have little less effect on where they shop for dresses and slacks than middle income blacks.

H_6 Blacks patronize department stores, as compared to specialty and discount stores, to a greater degree than comparable income whites.

H_7 A store's degree of prestiguous reputation, credit availability, personnel friendliness and salesperson knowledge of merchandise carried are less important patronage attributes for blacks than for whites.

H_8 Lower income blacks consider price to be less important in their clothing purchase behavior for dresses and slacks than middle income blacks.

H_9 Blacks consider price to be more important in their clothing purchase behavior than comparable income whites.

H_{10} Blacks are more style and fashion conscious than comparable income whites.

H_{11} Younger blacks (older blacks) purchase more privately branded name dresses and slacks and are more innovative than younger whites (older whites).

H_{12} Lower income blacks purchase more nationally branded name dresses and slacks than middle income blacks and/or lower and middle income whites.

Interviewer Selection and Training

Interviewers consisted of two black females (one with a master's degree in business education and the other a bachelor's degree in accounting) and two white females (one with a master's degree in educational psychology and the other a bachelor's degree in elementary education). Of the two black interviewers, one was employed by the City of Knoxville in the budget department and the other was working toward a Master of Public Accountancy at the University of Tennessee. Of the two white interviewers, one is an elementary school teacher in Knoxville's Public School System while the other was working part-time at a junior college and pursuing a doctorate degree in educational psychology at the University of Tennessee. A modest enumeration was given to the interviewers to conduct the personal interviews. The black interviewers interviewed black female household respondents while white interviewers interviewed white female household respondents. This interviewing procedure tends to minimize possible race and sex biases in that we explored black and white female clothing behavior to discern the effectiveness of race as a basis for segmenting markets. The black and white interviewers were thoroughly instructed on how the survey instrument should be used coupled with a pretesting of the survey instrument using the field interviewers. Pretests with thirty one (31) women who resided in the interviewers' immediate vicinity were conducted. On the average, the questionnaire took twenty minutes to complete. The writer also pretested the questionnaire on eighteen (18) black and white wives residing in Kingston married student apartments at the University of Tennessee. The pretests of the survey instrument resulted in an elimination of several questions and a changing of measurement scales. Likert type statements were deleted altogether because of vast differences in respondents' understanding of the statements.

The Sample

A randomly selected sample of 300 black and white households in Knoxville, Tennessee was the ultimate sample size for this dissertation study. The sample was comprised of one hundred fifty black households and one hundred fifty white households. Women head of households and household wives were interviewed. Sudman (1974) indicating several examples of survey samples appropriate for the research requirements when unfunded research investigations are conducted in academic circles states:

> Unfunded doctoral dissertation research...If a general population sample and face-to-face interviewing are required, the samples are typically in a single place and the number of respondents usually ranges from 200 to 300. The interviewing is all done by the candidate or by the candidate with a few helpers, either paid or unpaid. The selected place is chosen to be easily reached by the candidate to avoid travel costs. There is usually a city directory available to reduce sampling costs.[7]

Smallness of the sample size could pose contingency table cell frequency problems. Churchill (1976) has suggested that "it is generally agreed that only a few cells (less than 20 percent) should be permitted to have expected frequencies less than five (5) and none should have an expected frequency less than one (1)."[8] The clustering sample procedure selected tends to guard against this problem.

The City of Knoxville has fifty-seven (57) census tracts of which eleven (11) have an adequate representative population of blacks. A criterion for "representative" is based on the 1970 Bureau of Census data where a population of 400 or more blacks depicted a black tract. Further, the Bureau of Census gathered socioeconomic and demographic data on tracts that had at least 400 blacks. Of the eleven black census tracts, one was deleted (tract 0033) because it had less than 400 blacks (although blacks made up 42.9 percent of the census tract population). A cluster

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[7]Seymour Sudman, Applied Sampling, Working Papers, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, Draft 2 (March 1974), p. 12.

[8]Gilbert A. Churchill, Jr. Marketing Research, Methodological Foundations, Hinsdale, Illinois: The Dryden Press, 1976, p. 418.

sampling technique was used to insure representation of both black and white households residing within the City of Knoxville.

A cluster sample was deemed appropriate for this dissertation study for two reasons:

1. To insure that every census tract in the City of Knoxville was included in the sample selection process; while being careful to include an adequate representation of black tracts.
2. The low interviewing costs and overall efficiency advantages of a cluster sample complemented the writer's limited financial resources.

The Bureau of Census and 1976 Knoxville County Metropolitan Planning Commission tract data were used to identify black and white tracts (47 white and 10 black tracts).[9] See Appendix II for an identification of black and white tracts.

We decided to sample from all ten black tracts and select 150 black households because of the small percentage of blacks residing in Knoxville. An optimum cluster (tract) size formula was used to select 150 white households. The optimum white cluster (tract) sizes were fifteen (See Appendix III-A).[10] White tracts were selected by sampling with probabilities proportionate to size relative to the number of family households stratified by income. Market segment-

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[9]Bureau of Census, Metropolitan Knoxville Census of Population Tract Data, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1970, PHC (1), p. 3+ and Population Estimates and Forecasts Knoxville Knox County 1970-1990, June (1976) Knoxville Knox County Metropolitan Planning Commission.

[10]The clustering procedure to follow was adapted from Sudman, 1974, Chapter 3, p. 14 and Chapter 6, p. 5+.

ation studies have usually used income as a proxy variable denoting social class. Further, aside from income being highly correlated with occupation and education, data on income is reliably reported by primary sources.

The probability proportionate to size cluster sampling technique leads to primary sample units with approximately equal sizes. All one needs is a random start and a sampling interval. Fifteen white tracts were selected (See Appendix III-B). Within each white tract, two blocks were selected (See Appendix III-C). Therefore, 30 white blocks were selected. Within the 30 blocks, five (5) women household heads and/or household wives per block were selected and interviewed.

Thirty (30) blocks were systematically randomly selected from the ten (10) black tracts (See Appendix III-D). Within the 30 blocks, five (5) women household heads and/or household wives per block were selected and interviewed. Block #101 in tract seven required ten households to be interviewed because two random selected numbers fell within this block and it contains 69 percent of the tracts' population. Sudman (1974) notes that this is permissible because "here one is not concerned about getting distinct places, as one was with Primary Sampling Units" (Sudman, Chapter 6, p. 16).

Validity and Reliability of Study Design

It should be noted that the validity and reliability of the study design is very important for generalization of study findings and sample representativeness of the populations studied. Boyd, Westfall and Stash (1977) have defined validity as "the characteristic used to describe research which measures what it claims to measure; whereas, reliability is the characteristic of research methodology which allows it to be repeated again and again by the same and by different researchers, but always with the same results."[11] While the writer was careful to construct a well developed questionnaire outlining accurate measures and selecting representative samples of the populations studied to attain study objectives and test the major and subhypotheses, the validity and reliability of the measures used may be questionable. In that this field study does not lend itself to careful controls such as those exercised by true experimental design settings, measurement of cause and effect relationships are lacking. Hence, this further limits the validity and reliability of study findings. Replicative study findings, either corroborating or refuting the findings to be reported herein, will shed more light on these important issues.

Field Data Collection Procedures

The interviewers were instructed to go to their assigned blocks and count the number of dwelling units on each block; the total number of dwelling units had to be divided by five (5) to obtain the random sampling interval; then a random start was taken and every Nth house interviewed. For example: If a block had eleven dwellings (11/5 = 2) and a random start was seven (7), the interviewers interviewed dwelling units 7, 9, 11, 2 and 4.

A structured undisguised questionnaire (See Appendix I) was used to collect the data. The questionnaire was administered on a one time

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[11] Harper W. Boyd, Jr., Ralph Westfall and Stanley F. Stasch, Marketing Research Text and Cases, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., Fourth Edition, 1977, p. 34.

basis to respondents via personal interview in respondents' homes. The questionnaire was partially interviewer administered and respondent self administered. The data was collected over a two month period during Summer, 1979. Field interviewing was completed during the first week of August, 1979. There was a minimum of callbacks due to "not at homes." One call back normally resulted in a completed interview.

Although it is difficult to discern whether interviewers collect data accurately and conduct the reported interviews (Boyd, Westfall and Stasch, 1977, p. 41), the writer initiated two procedures to check interviewers' performance. Letters with a self-addressed stamped post card enclosed were forwarded to 5 percent of the black and white respondents, randomly selected, asking them what store they cited on the questionnaire as where they usually bought dresses and slacks. The writer also paid house visits to some respondents located in his vicinity to verify whether the interviews took place. No significant interviewing problems were encountered.

Data was subsequently transferred to coding forms and punched on computer cards for analysis. The objectives for the analysis and the results obtained are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Introduction

The major objective of this chapter is to report how well race could serve as a basis for market segmentation when compared to education, occupation, income and striver/nonstriver variables. The hypotheses are restated in Table II. The hypotheses tested and results obtained will be discussed in the order as cited in Table II. Focus is on discerning whether race is a significant variable begging for differentiated market mix strategy treatment for the product classes and brands studied (using the criteria specified in Chapter I to constitute a viable product and/or brand market segment). The types of data collected from the study are in Table III followed by a breakdown of response rates in Table IV. A cluster random sample was taken, stratified by income, of 300 black and white female heads of households and/or household wives. Table IV reveals that this was accomplished. If an interviewer was in a certain area and the subject from a randomly selected household was "not at home," she would go on to contact the other randomly selected households in the area and come back to the "not at homes" (one callback). In most cases, the subjects were at home when the interviewer came back for the second time and interviews were conducted (See Table IV). An examination of key characteristic sample variables follows.

TABLE II

HYPOTHESES

H_{1A}	Lower income blacks will perceive nationally branded name dresses and slacks to be indicative of high quality and high prestige to a greater degree than middle income blacks.
H_{1B}	Overall, blacks perceive nationally branded name dresses and slacks to be indicative of high quality and high prestige to a greater degree than their white counterparts.
H_{2A}	Lower income blacks' familiarity with existing nationally and privately branded name dresses and slacks are significantly lower than middle income blacks.
H_{2B}	Overall, blacks' familiarity with existing nationally and privately branded name dresses and slacks are significantly lower than their white counterparts.
H_3	Lower income blacks have a more limited shopping scope than middle income blacks.
H_4	Lower income blacks consider black ownership/management of businesses to be a more important patronage attribute than middle income blacks.
H_5	Lower income blacks consider advertising to have less effect on where they shop for dresses and slacks than middle income blacks.
H_6	Blacks patronize department stores, as compared to specialty and discount stores, to a greater degree than comparable income whites.
H_7	A store's degree of prestigious reputation, credit availability, personnel friendliness and salesperson knowledge of merchandise carried are less important patronage attributes for blacks than for whites.
H_8	Lower income blacks consider price to be less important in their clothing purchase behavior for dresses and slacks than middle income blacks.
H_9	Blacks consider price to be more important in their clothing purchase behavior than comparable income whites.

TABLE II (Continued)

H_{10}	Blacks are more style and fashion conscious than comparable income whites.
H_{11}	Younger blacks (older blacks) purchase more privately branded name dresses and slacks and are more innovative than younger whites (older whites).
H_{12}	Lower income blacks purchase more nationally branded name dresses and slacks than middle income blacks and/or lower and middle income whites.

TABLE III

SUMMARY OF TYPES OF DATA COLLECTED FOR STUDY

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

Demographics

Age
Race
Highest level of Schooling
Marital status
Occupation
Annual household income before taxes
Number and age of children in household
Home ownership

KNOWLEDGE AND PERCEPTIONS OF CLOTHING

Familiarity with selected nationally and privately branded named dresses and slacks

Actual vs perceived knowledge of high and medium priced brands

Perceptions of nationally and privately brand named dresses and slack attributes

CLOTHING SHOPPING BEHAVIOR

Type of store frequented most often to purchase dresses and slacks

Types of other stores frequented to purchase dresses and slacks

Distance of stores from home

Attributes affecting store choice behavior

CLOTHING PURCHASE BEHAVIOR

Attitudes affecting purchase behavior

Purchase rate

Variety of brands purchased

Brands purchased most often

Degree of brand loyalty

CLOTHING PROMOTION BEHAVIOR

Promotional attributes affecting shopping and purchase behavior for dresses and slacks

TABLE IV

RESPONSE RATE FOR PERSONAL INTERVIEWS

	Blacks	Whites
Total Number of Households contacted	176	169
Less Ineligible Households (house torn down, vacancies)	5	3
Not-at-Homes	9	11
Refusals	12	5
Total Sample Size interviewed	150	150

Sample Characteristics: Key Variables

As shown, preliminary analyses examine the distribution of key variables. Frequency distributions and cross tabulations serve this purpose. A demographic and socioeconomic profile of the lower and middle income black and white respondents are presented in Tables V-IX. Past studies often found race related differences but did not control for variables such as income. It may be seen however that the income differences between blacks and whites in this study are not as great as might have been expected.

Table VI shows that the number of low income black respondents unemployed was higher, as expected, than middle income black respondents. These respondents were generally receiving government subsistence. Other interesting findings from Table VI are: 17.5% of the low income black respondents were housewives as compared to 28.0% of the low income white respondents; 18.8% of the low income black respondents

TABLE V

BLACK AND WHITE FAMILY HOUSEHOLD INCOME

Income Category	Black Households (N=150) Number	%	White Households (N=150) Number	%
$3,000 or less	12	8.0	7	4.6
$3,001-$6,000	18	12.0	21	14.0
$6,001-$9,000	39	26.0	47	31.3
$9,001-$12,000	15	10.0	10	6.7
$12,001-$15,000	5	3.3	4	2.6
$15,001-$18,000	11	7.3	10	6.7
$18,001-$21,000	24	16.0	23	15.4
More than $21,000	26	17.4	28	18.7
Totals	150	100.0%	150	100.0%

TABLE VI

RESPONDENT'S EMPLOYMENT STATUS BY RACE AND INCOME

Employment Status	MIB Number	%	LIB Number	%	MIW Number	%	LIW Number	%
Student	3	3.7	--	--	6	8.0	3	4.1
Retired	5	6.2	1	1.4	--	--	5	6.6
Housewife	11	13.7	12	17.5	5	6.7	21	28.0
Unemployed	--	--	13	18.8	2	2.7	1	1.3
Professional, Technical and Kindred	36	44.4	1	1.4	40	53.3	--	--
Managers, Officials, Proprietors	3	3.7	--	--	4	5.3	--	--
Clerical, Sales and Kindred	18	22.2	24	34.8	18	24.0	28	37.3
Craftmen, Foremen Kindred	1	1.2	2	2.9	--	--	17	22.7
Machine operatives/ Service workers/ Laborers	4	4.9	16	23.2	--	--	--	--
Totals	81	100.0%	69	100.0%	75	100.0%	75	100.0%

TABLE VII

AGE OF RESPONDENT'S INTERVIEWED BY RACE AND INCOME

Age of Respondent	MIB Number	%	LIB Number	%	MIW Number	%	LIW Number	%
20-24	5	6.2	9	13.1	10	13.3	12	16.0
25-34	29	35.9	21	30.4	31	41.3	23	30.7
35-49	36	44.4	33	47.8	32	42.7	31	41.3
50-64	7	8.6	6	8.7	2	2.7	8	10.7
65 or over	4	4.9	--	--	--	--	1	1.3
Totals	81	100.0%	69	100.0%	75	100.0%	75	100.0%

TABLE VIII

RESPONDENT'S DWELLING PLACE BY RACE AND INCOME

Respondent's Residence	MIB Number	%	LIB Number	%	MIW Number	%	LIW Number	%
Own Home	59	72.8	13	18.8	60	80.0	20	26.7
Rent Home	5	6.2	21	30.4	3	4.1	31	41.3
Rent Apartment	14	17.3	20	29.0	10	13.3	15	20.0
Own Mobile Home	2	2.5	--	--	1	1.3	3	4.0
Rent Mobile Home	--	--	1	1.4	--	--	4	5.4
Own Condominium	--	--	--	--	1	1.3	1	1.3
Other (live in projects)	1	1.2	14	20.4	--	--	1	1.3
Totals	81	100.0%	69	100.0%	75	100.0%	75	100.0%

TABLE IX

RESPONDENT'S EDUCATIONAL LEVEL BY RACE AND INCOME

Educational Level	MIB Number	MIB %	LIB Number	LIB %	MIW Number	MIW %	LIW Number	LIW %
0-6 years	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
7-8 years	--	--	14	20.3	--	--	2	2.7
9th, 10th, 11th grade	2	2.5	19	27.5	--	--	13	17.3
High school graduate	8	9.9	27	39.1	2	2.7	44	58.7
1-3 years college	24	29.6	8	11.6	24	32.0	16	21.3
College graduate	28	34.6	1	1.5	33	44.0	--	--
Graduate study	19	23.4	--	--	16	21.3	--	--
Totals	81	100.0%	69	100.0%	75	100.0%	75	100.0%

were unemployed as compared to 1.3% of the low income white respondents; 2.9% of the low income black respondents were employed as craftsmen, foremen and kindred as compared to 22.7% of the low income white respondents; and 23.2% of the low income black respondents were employed as machine operatives, service workers and laborers while none of the low income white respondents were employed in these categories. Table VII shows that the majority of sample respondents were between the ages 25-49 with both low and middle income black and white respondents being almost evenly distributed. Also, 6.2% of the middle income blacks were between the ages of 20-24 as compared to 13.3% of the middle income white respondents. Respondents between the ages 50-64 accounted for 8.6% of the middle income black respondents as compared to 2.7% of the middle income white respondents. A respondent's dwelling place also produced some interesting results. Table VIII reveals that the number of low (N=13 and 20) and middle (N=59 and 60) income black and white respondents owning homes were almost evenly distributed in the sample respectively. The same conclusions may be offered for sample respondents renting apartments. Lower income black and white respondents rented more homes than middle income black and white respondents. Also, 20.4% of the lower income black respondents lived in public projects as compared to 1.3% of the lower income white respondents. Lastly, Table IX reveals that the number of middle income black and white respondents who have acquired some college training, graduated from college and earned graduate credit were almost evenly distributed. However, the percent of low income black respondents who have acquired 1-3 years college was 11.6% as compared to 21.3% of the low income white respondents.

Nonparametric tests for statistical independence will first be used to test most of the hypotheses. However, some data collected meet the criteria suggested by Siegel (1956, p. 19) to justify one's use of a parametric t-test (e.g., How far from your home is the store where you shop most for dresses and slacks? H_3):

1. The observations must be independent.
2. The observations must be drawn from normally distributed populations.
3. These populations must have the same variance.
4. The variables involved must have been measured in <u>at least</u> an interval scale.

To test (H_3) it can be fairly well established that the first and fourth conditions have been met. A careful construction of the research design provided for independent observations. Meeting the requirements of the fourth condition to test H_3 is apparent in that respondents recorded their exact mileage which is interval scaled. Conditions two and three are presumed to have been met although documentation is impossible.

Inasmuch as the hypotheses call for a comparison of respondent subgroups along some variable/variables, the primary tool of analysis chosen was the nonparametric Pearson Chi-square test of independence of classification (for two independent samples). The hypotheses under test are that the subgroups differ with respect to some characteristic and hence with respect to the relative frequency with which subgroup members fall in several categories (Siegel, 1956, p. 164). A Chi-square analysis can be used when the data satisfy four conditions (Boyd, Westfall, and Stash, 1977, pp. 441-442):

1. There must be two observed sets of sample data or one observed set of sample data and one hypothetical set of data. Typically these data sets are in table form (R rows and C columns), or in frequency distribution form (one row and C columns, or R rows and one column).

2. The two sets of data must be based on the same sample size.

3. Each cell in the data contains an observed or hypothetical count(not a percentage or proportion) which is five or larger.

4. The different cells in a row or column can represent either continuous variables or categorical variables. However, continuous variable data must be placed into classes or categories before they can be analyzed.

To test study hypotheses using Chi-square tests, it can be fairly well justified that the first, second and fourth conditions have been met. The samples of 150 black and 150 white female heads of households and/or household wives and the related data collected was either categorical or continuous. Meeting the third condition cannot be assured (except by collapsing cells) in that one has no way of determining apriori how a respondent would respond to a statement on a categorical variable. However, Churchill (1976, p. 418) has suggested "it is generally agreed that only a few cells (less than 20 percent) should be permitted to have expected frequencies less than one"-or five? Moreover, Snedecor and Cochran (1967, p. 235) have noted that the Chi-square test is sufficient to test stated hypotheses on categorical data when less than 20 percent of the cells have expected frequencies less than five and also recommended combining classes to obtain cell sizes of at least one. If necessary, categories will be combined to satisfy the minimum cell frequency requirement for the use of Chi-square statistic.

The Chi-square test determines whether statistically significant relationships exist between two categorical variables but says nothing about the strength of that relationship. Hence, it would be impractical for one to use Chi-square values to determine which variables are most closely related. However, Churchill (1976, p. 418) has observed that the Chi-square test is the most widely used statistical test in marketing research to date.

Following a convention in the social sciences, a significance level of $p \leq .05$ has been established for the acceptance of any of the twelve hypotheses tested (i.e., $\alpha \leq .05$). This significance level may be quite liberal for rejecting the null hypothesis (Type I error) of no differences at all since we are using a less powerful Chi-square test as compared to the parametric t-test to evaluate most study hypotheses. However, this liberal rejection region using Chi-square statistics may result in the writer overlooking a potentially useful relationship in his data (Brogowicz, 1977, p. 124). Statistical analyses were performed on the data using routines of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Programs. An identification and results of the twelve (12) study hypotheses tested follow.

Testing of Hypotheses

H_{1A} Lower income blacks will perceive nationally branded name dresses and slacks to be indicative of high quality and high prestige to a greater degree than middle income blacks.

A Chi-square test was used to test H_{1A} for the black subgroups on the quality and prestige variables respectively. On a scale ranging from five to one (very high to very low), respondents recorded their perceptions of the quality and prestige of nationally branded name dresses and slacks. Categories one and two were collapsed with category three (neither) to attain an expected cell size of at least five. This resulted in three quality and prestige categories: low to average; high; and very high. Table X and XI show Chi-square values of 17.803 and 20.419 for the quality and prestige variables respectively, both significant at the .001 levels in the direction hypothesized.

We can conclude that H_{1A} is supported. Therefore, in this sample, lower income blacks perceive nationally branded dresses and slacks to be indicative of high quality and high prestige to a greater degree than middle income blacks. When the low and middle income variables on the quality and prestige variables were controlled for levels of education and occupation (white and blue collar) interesting results emerged. No significant chi-square values for the quality variable between income groups were found while controlling for education. Before controlling for the occupation

TABLE X

BLACK RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE QUALITY OF NATIONAL BRANDS

Quality	LIB Number	LIB %	MIB Number	MIB %
Low quality and neither	5	7.3	14	17.2
Somewhat high quality	19	27.5	42	51.9
Very high quality	45	65.2	25	30.9
Totals	69	100.0%	81	100.0%

X^2 = 17.803 (corrected) with 2 df; p = .0001

TABLE XI

BLACK RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE PRESTIGE OF NATIONAL BRANDS

Prestige	LIB Number	LIB %	MIB Number	MIB %
Low prestige and neither	11	15.9	28	34.6
Somewhat high prestige	13	18.8	30	37.0
Very high prestige	45	65.3	23	28.4
Totals	69	100.0%	81	100.0%

X^2 = 20.419 (corrected) with 2 df; p = .0001

variable, respondents were classified as white and blue collar workers. Hollingshead's (1976) guidelines for classifying respondents as white and blue collar workers were followed. Respondents who indicated that they were professionals or managers were classified as white collar workers. If a housewife was unemployed, her husband's occupation determined whether she was classified as white or blue collar.

Although students accounted for a very small number of sample respondents (12), if they were married, the spouse's occupation determined her classification. Retired respondents (N=11) were classified according to the position they held prior to retirement. All other employed respondents were classified as blue collar workers. Table XII shows that a significant Chi-square value (13.570) was obtained for the blue collar workers but the white collar workers Chi-square value was insignificant.

TABLE XII

BLUE COLLAR BLACK RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE QUALITY OF NATIONAL BRANDS

	Blue Collar Workers			
	LIB		MIB	
Quality	Number	%	Number	%
Low quality and neither	5	7.4	6	14.3
Somewhat high quality	19	27.9	24	57.1
Very high quality	44	64.7	12	28.6
Totals	68	100.0%	42	100.0%

$X^2 = 13.570$ (Corrected) with 2 df; $p = .0011$

Therefore, significant differences exist between low and middle income blacks on the quality variable among blue collar workers. Similar results were obtained on the prestige variable when controlling for education and occupation. Table XIII shows that the only Chi-square value significant was for the blue collar black workers. Hence, no differences exist between low and middle income black respondents when controlling for education and when controlling for occupation, differences

TABLE XIII

BLUE COLLAR BLACK RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE PRESTIGE OF NATIONAL BRANDS

	Blue Collar Workers			
	LIB		MIB	
Prestige	Number	%	Number	%
Low prestige and neither	11	16.2	13	31.0
Somewhat high prestige	13	19.1	17	40.4
Very high prestige	44	64.7	12	28.6
Totals	68	100.0%	42	100.0%

$X^2 = 13.600$ (Corrected) with 2 df; $p = .0011$

exist only within the blue collar group. So the differences between low income blacks and middle income blacks for the quality and prestige variables are substantial but appear to be primarily among blue collar workers. The absence of differences within education groups, however, suggests it is not an income-based difference but rather may be education or both income and education (these being highly correlated).

H_{1B} Overall, blacks perceive nationally branded name dresses and slacks to be indicative of high quality and high prestige to a greater degree than their white counterparts.

The Chi-square test was also used to evaluate H_{1B} on the quality and status variables to study race differentials, if any. Due to small expected cell frequencies for the "very unimportant" category for quality and prestige, category one (1) was collapsed with category (2) for the use of Chi-square statistics. Although the "somewhat low quality" category for the black respondents was less than five (5), condition three for the use of Chi-square statistics was not seriously violated since there were no cells with zero responses. Tables XIV and XV show that Chi-square values of 9.879 and 13.246 for the quality and prestige variables are significant. Therefore, we must conclude that H_{1B} is supported. That is, blacks perceive nationally branded dresses and slacks to be indicative of high quality and social prestige to a greater degree than whites. But can the difference be explained by other variables?

TABLE XIV

RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE QUALITY OF NATIONAL BRANDS BY RACE

	Blacks		Whites	
Quality	Number	%	Number	%
Somewhat low quality	3	2.0	12	8.0
Neither high or low quality	16	10.6	12	8.0
Somewhat high quality	61	40.7	74	49.3
Very high quality	70	46.7	52	34.7
Totals	150	100.0%	150	100.0%

X^2 = 9.879 (Corrected) with 3 df; p = .019

Chi-square values were also obtained for the quality and prestige variables while controlling for income, education and occupation for the two sample groups. Respondents were classified as blue and white collar respondents. Table XVI shows that black vs. white blue collar respondents resulted in a significant Chi-square value at the .05 alpha level for the quality variable. But no significant differences were found when controlling for the income variable! Table XVII shows a

TABLE XV

RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE PRESTIGE OF NATIONAL BRANDS BY RACE

Prestige	Blacks Number	Blacks %	Whites Number	Whites %
Somewhat low prestige	10	6.7	10	6.7
Neither high or low prestige	29	19.3	20	13.3
Somewhat high prestige	43	28.7	73	48.7
Very high prestige	68	45.3	47	31.3
Totals	150	100.0%	150	100.0%

$X^2 = 13.246$ (Corrected) with 3 df; $p = .004$

TABLE XVI

BLUE COLLAR RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE QUALITY OF NATIONAL BRANDS BY RACE

	Blue Collar Workers			
Quality	Blacks Number	Blacks %	Whites Number	Whites %
Somewhat low quality	1	0.9	10	9.5
Neither high or low quality	10	9.1	9	8.6
Somewhat high quality	43	39.1	52	49.5
Very high quality	56	50.9	34	32.4
Totals	110	100.0%	105	100.0%

$X^2 = 13.537$ (Corrected) with 3 df; $p = .003$

significant Chi-square value for black vs. white respondents who completed 1-3 years college. We must conclude that since race differentials were nonexistent within income groups that income may instead explain the differences rather than race (or that it may be a combination).

TABLE XVII

RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE QUALITY OF NATIONAL BRANDS BY RACE WITHIN EDUCATION

	1-3 years College Completed			
	Blacks		Whites	
Quality	Number	%	Number	%
Low quality and neither	4	12.5	7	17.5
Somewhat high quality	13	40.6	27	67.5
Very high quality	15	46.9	6	15.0
Totals	32	100.0%	40	100.0%

$X^2 = 8.795$ (Corrected) with 2 df; $p = .012$

H_{2A} Lower income blacks' familiarity with existing nationally and privately branded name dresses and slacks are significantly lower than middle income blacks.

Respondents were asked on a scale from one to three (very familiar, somewhat familiar, and not familiar) their familiarity with eight nationally and eight privately brand named dresses and slacks. The brands were acquired through a rigorous pretest of classifying national and private brand named dresses and slacks on females in the Knoxville area. During pretests, females were asked to list brand named dresses and slacks that they perceived to be nationally and privately labeled on separate index cards. Of some forty (40) respondents surveyed in the brand identification pretests, only those national and private brands that were correctly labeled at least half of the time were used in the final survey instrument.

To test H_{2A} Chi-square values were obtained for the black subgroups on each national and private brand selected. Each brand had to be evaluated to determine whether H_{2A} can be accepted or rejected. No cell frequency problems were encountered. Using a .05 significance level with two degrees of freedom required that critical Chi-square values lie between .0506 and 7.38. Table XVIII shows that only one Chi-square value (Jonathan Logan, 7.853) fell outside the critical Chi-square region. All other Chi-square values for the black subgroups on the national and private brands were insignificant at the .05 alpha level. Overall, we must conclude that H_{2A} was not supported. No significant differences existed between low and middle income blacks' familiarity with nationally and privately branded name dresses and slacks. This is self-reported familiarity so differences in actual familiarity could exist since this, of course,was not directly measured.

H_{2B} Overall blacks' familiarity with existing nationally and privately branded name dresses and slacks are significantly lower than their white counterparts.

To evaluate H_{2B} Chi-square tests were performed on the eight national and eight private brands to determine race differentials, if any, for the entire sample. Table XIX shows the Chi-square values for the respondents for each of the brands studied. With the exception of Wards, all Chi-square values for the brands studied were insignificant

TABLE XVIII

LOW AND MIDDLE INCOME BLACK RESPONDENTS' FAMILIARITY WITH NATIONAL AND PRIVATE BRANDS

Brands	(N=80)MIB (N=69)LIB Chi-square values
Videl (national)	0.454
Wards (private)	1.913
Villager (national)	0.916
J. C. Penney (private)	5.440
Sasson (national)	1.121
Ups and Downs (private)	2.287
Bobby Brooks (national)	0.085
Sears (private)	3.176
Sedgefield (national)	4.656
Aldman (private)	6.068
College Town (national)	1.004
Spiegel (private)	5.184
Panther (national)	1.339
Millers (private)	1.407
Jonathan Logan (national)	7.853*
Proffitts (private)	0.581

*Significant at .05 alpha level

TABLE XIX

RESPONDENTS' FAMILIARITY WITH NATIONAL AND PRIVATE BRANDS BY RACE

Brands	(N=150) Blacks (N=150) Whites Chi-square values
Videl (national)	2.285
Wards (private)	16.516*
Villager (national)	2.441
J. C. Penney (private)	0.337
Sasson (national)	1.920
Ups and Downs (private)	1.887
Bobby Brooks (national)	3.626
Sears (private)	0.368
Sedgefield (national)	2.988
Aldman (private)	6.680
College Town (national)	5.507
Spiegel (private)	4.699
Panther (national)	0.932
Millers (private)	0.680
Jonathan Logan (national)	2.882
Proffitts (private)	2.695

*Significant at .05 alpha level

at the .05 alpha level. The cell data on all sixteen brands, with the exception of Wards, reveals that responses were almost evenly distributed over race. Therefore, one must conclude that H_{2B} was not supported. For the Knoxville sample, no significant differences exist between the black and white groups studied. When controlling for income, blacks vs. whites within most income levels exhibited no differences in familiarity levels (although two additional differences were identified within the lower income groups). Therefore, we must conclude that controlling income does not help to explain the overall absence of differences between blacks and whites. Controlling for education, Tables XX and XXI below show that the Ups and Downs and Sedgefield brands exhibited significant differences between blacks and whites for the "high school graduates" category.

TABLE XX

RESPONDENTS' FAMILIARITY WITH UPS AND DOWNS PRIVATE BRAND BY RACE WITHIN EDUCATION

	High School Graduates			
	Blacks		Whites	
Knowledge levels	Number	%	Number	%
Not familiar	9	25.7	14	30.4
Somewhat familiar	7	20.0	22	47.8
Very familiar	19	54.3	10	21.7
Totals	35	100.0%	46	100.0%

$X^2 = 10.335$ with 2 df; $p = .005$

TABLE XXI

RESPONDENTS' FAMILIARITY WITH SEDGEFIELD NATIONAL BRAND BY RACE WITHIN EDUCATION

	High School Graduates			
	Blacks		Whites	
Knowledge levels	Number	%	Number	%
Not familiar	17	48.6	26	56.5
Somewhat familiar	5	14.3	15	32.6
Very familiar	13	37.1	5	10.9
Totals	35	100.0%	46	100.0%

X^2 = 9.133 with 2 df; p = .010

All other education categories for the sixteen (16) brands studied were insignificant at the alpha .05 level. Therefore, we must conclude that controlling for education does not help to explain the absence of differences between blacks and whites. When controlling for occupation, no significant Chi-square values at the .05 alpha level were found. Therefore, we feel justified in concluding that H_{2B} was not supported and the education, occupation and income variables do not help to explain the absence of familiarity differences between blacks and whites.

H_3 Lower income blacks have a more limited shopping scope than middle income blacks.

To measure H_3, respondents recorded the distance the store was from their homes where they usually buy dresses and slacks. Hypothesis H_3 was evaluated using an alpha level of .05 and a one tailed t-test to identify significant differences between the black subgroup means, if any. Table XXII shows no significant differences were found between the shopping scope of low and middle income blacks:

TABLE XXII

BLACK RESPONDENTS' SHOPPING SCOPE BEHAVIOR

Shopping Scope	Mean Shopping Scope Miles	Standard Deviation	T Value	df	One-tail Probability
Middle Income (N=81)	6.0988	3.590	1.53	148	0.065
Low Income (N=69)	5.2174	3.442			

These are interesting results since most previous researchers have found significant differences in the shopping scope of lower and middle income blacks. However, most of these studies selected low income blacks from large city ghettos to compare with middle income blacks situated in the suburbia of the cities. Knoxville's black population is not clustered in that manner. Low and middle income blacks are closely concentrated in the same areas. This may indicate that previous studies measured suburban versus urban shopping rather than low income versus middle income.

H_4 Lower income blacks consider black ownership/management of businesses to be a more important patronage attribute than middle income blacks.

There was one item on the questionnaire directed toward the 150 black respondents only. On a five point scale ranging from very important (5 points) to very unimportant (1 point), they were asked to indicate the level of importance of a business being black owned and/or operated when shopping for dresses and slacks. The Chi-square statistic was used to test this item and evaluate H_4 for the black subgroups. Category one (very unimportant) was collapsed with category two (somewhat unimportant) to obtain satisfactory cell frequencies. Table XXIII below shows a calculated Chi-square value of 32.494 with three degrees of freedom was significant at the 0.001 level:

TABLE XXIII

IMPORTANCE OF RACE OF OWNERSHIP/MANAGEMENT TO MIDDLE AND LOWER INCOME BLACKS

Categories	LIB Number	LIB %	MIB Number	MIB %
Somewhat unimportant	4	5.8	9	11.1
Neither important or unimportant	16	23.2	49	60.5
Somewhat important	15	21.7	14	17.3
Very important	34	49.3	9	11.1
Totals	69	100.0%	81	100.0%

X^2 = 32.494 (Corrected) with 3 df; p = .001

Table XXIV shows significant differences existing between the low and middle income blue collar workers when controlling for occupation. However, controlling for education and white collar occupations failed to produce significant differences. We can infer that education may be a powerful predictor variable, even more than income. It helps to explain the differences....

TABLE XXIV

IMPORTANCE OF RACE OF OWNERSHIP/MANAGEMENT OF MIDDLE AND LOWER INCOME BLACKS WITHIN OCCUPATION

	Blue Collar Workers			
	LIB		MIB	
Categories	Number	%	Number	%
Somewhat unimportant	4	5.8	5	11.9
Neither important or unimportant	15	22.1	25	59.5
Somewhat important	15	22.1	6	14.3
Very important	34	50.0	6	14.3
Totals	68	100.0%	42	100.0%

X^2 = 21.101 (Corrected) with 3 df; p = .001

H_5 Lower income blacks consider advertising to have less effect on where they shop for dresses and slacks than middle income blacks.

Respondents were surveyed on twelve items (e.g. billboards, television, radio, etc.) on a scale ranging from very unimportant to very important to determine the level of importance they attribute to various advertising sources when shopping for dresses and slacks. Chi-square values were calculated for each of the twelve items. Of the twelve items analyzed (seven of which are advertising related), Table XXV shows three were significant at the .05 level (billboards, television and radio) while the other four advertising related items were insignificant. There were also no differences between the groups in the importance they attributed to other information sources shown in Table XXV. Hence, we must conclude that the directionality hypothesized in H_5 is not supported for those three media and no

TABLE XXV

LOW VS. MIDDLE INCOME BLACK RESPONDENTS' INFORMATION SOURCE IMPORTANCE

Attributes	Chi-square Values
Advertising:	
Billboards	16.750*
Television	14.633*
Newspaper	6.287
Magazine Ads	2.938
Radio Ads	12.375*
Window Display	7.608
Ads in Mail	4.520
Other Sources:	
Friends	2.501
Your Spouse	5.973
Your Children	3.969
Your Past Experience	0.124
Relatives	0.753

differences exist at all for newspapers, magazine ads, window displays and direct mail ads. Billboards, television and radio advertising sources were considered more important by lower income blacks than by middle income blacks.

H_6 Blacks patronize department stores, as compared to specialty and discount stores, to a greater degree than comparable income whites.

To evaluate H_6, Ninety (90) stores had to first be classified as department, specialty and discount stores. This categorization resulted in nine (9) department stores (the top five being Millers, Penneys, Profitts, Sears and Watsons, nine (9) discount stores (the top five being K-Mart, Almart, Zayre, Bargain Shop and Mill Outlet) and seventy-two (72) specialty shops (the top five being 5-7-9, Lerners, Smart Shop, Goofs and Glad Rags). Table XXVI below shows Chi-square values of 0.2149 and 0.5886 between the black and white low and middle income respondents respectively, both insignificant differences.

TABLE XXVI

LOW AND MIDDLE INCOME RESPONDENTS' STORE TYPE SHOPPED MOST BY RACE

	LIB		LIW		MIB		MIW	
Store Type	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Department store	45	65.2	47	62.7	56	69.2	56	74.7
Discount store	7	10.1	7	9.3	4	4.9	3	4.0
Specialty store	17	24.7	21	28.0	21	25.9	16	21.3
Totals	69	100.0%	75	100.0%	81	100.0%	75	100.0%

$X^2 = 0.2149$ with 2 df; $p = .898$

$X^2 = 0.5886$ with 2 df; $p = .745$

Therefore, we must conclude that H_6 is not supported.

H_7 A store's degree of prestigious reputation, credit availability, personnel friendliness and salesperson knowledge of merchandise carried are less important patronage attributes for blacks than for whites.

Respondents were surveyed on several attributes that could affect their store choice behavior when shopping and/or purchasing branded name dresses and slacks. Using categories ranging from "very unimportant" to "very important", respondents indicated the level of importance they attributed to prestigious reputation, credit availability, personnel friendliness, and salesperson knowledge of merchandise. Chi-square values were obtained for each of the attributes of interest. With the exception of the credit availability attribute (11.219), Table XXVII shows the calculated Chi-square values for the attributes fell within the critical Chi-square region and do not differ significantly in the importance assigned to store's prestigious reputation, personnel friendliness and knowledge of merchandise carried. Therefore, only the credit attribute yielded a racial difference and it is in the opposite direction from that hypothesized-blacks attributed greater importance to credit.

H_8 Lower income blacks consider price to be less important in their clothing purchase behavior for dresses and slacks than middle income blacks.

On a scale ranging from one (very unimportant) to five (very important) respondents marked the attribute importance level for them. Hypothesis H_8 was tested using the Chi-square test while controlling for the education and occupation variables. We were particularly interested in knowing the percentage of the black respondents who answered "somewhat important" and "very important". Table XXVIII shows that there were 15.9 percent of the low income blacks reporting that prices were "somewhat important" as compared to 35.8 percent of the middle income blacks. But 78.3 percent of the low income blacks reported that prices were "very important" as compared to only 54.3 percent of the middle income blacks. A calculated Chi-square value of 9.554 was obtained for the black groups on the price conscious attribute with two degrees of freedom being significant at the .05 alpha level. But the difference is in a direction opposite that

TABLE XXVII

THE IMPORTANCE OF STORE CHOICE ATTRIBUTES BY RACE

Categories	Knowledgeable Sales People				Friendly Personnel			
	Black	%	White	%	Black	%	White	%
Very unimportant	5	3.3	3	2.0	5	3.3	--	--
Somewhat unimportant	10	6.7	6	4.0	3	2.0	6	4.0
Neither	33	22.0	27	18.0	24	16.0	21	14.0
Somewhat important	66	44.0	90	60.0	71	47.3	71	47.3
Very important	36	24.0	24	16.0	47	31.4	52	34.7
Totals	150	100.0%	150	100.0%	150	100.0%	150	100.0%

$X^2 = 8.192$ with 4 df; $p = 0.0848$

$X^2 = 6.452$ with 4 df; $p = 0.1678$

Categories	Credit Availability				Prestigious Reputation			
	Black	%	White	%	Black	%	White	%
Very unimportant	8	5.3	5	3.3	8	5.2	8	5.2
Somewhat unimportant	6	4.0	8	5.3	7	4.7	5	3.3
Neither	46	30.7	72	48.0	43	28.7	54	36.0
Somewhat important	56	37.3	44	29.4	55	36.7	62	41.5
Very important	36	22.7	21	14.0	37	24.7	21	14.0
Totals	150	100.0%	150	100.0%	150	100.0%	150	100.0%

$X^2 = 11.219$ with 4 df; $p = 0.0242$

$X^2 = 6.413$ with 4 df; $p = 0.1703$

TABLE XXVIII

BLACKS' LEVEL OF IMPORTANCE FOR THE PRICE CONSCIOUS ATTRIBUTE BY INCOME

Prices	LIB Number	LIB %	MIB Number	MIB %
Neither important or unimportant	4	5.8	8	9.9
Somewhat important	11	15.9	29	35.8
Very important	54	78.3	44	54.3
Totals	69	100.0%	81	100.0%

X^2 9.554 (Corrected) with 2 df; $p = 0.0084$

hypothesized. That is, lower income blacks are more price conscious in their clothing purchase behavior for dresses and slacks as compared to middle income blacks. Controlling for education (<1-3 years college and ≥ 1-3 years college), no level of significance was obtained. Controlling for occupation, again no significant differences were obtained. The absence of differences when controlling for occupation and education indicates that the difference may not be income based but may be education and/or occupation based (or a combination of these with income).

H_9 Blacks consider price to be more important in their clothing purchase behavior than comparable income whites

Respondents were classified as low and middle income black and white respondents to test H_9 and to satisfy the cell frequency requirement for the use of Chi-square statistic. Respondents with ≤ \$9,001 annual family household income were classified as low income respondents; while those with annual family household incomes

$9,001 were classified as middle income respondents.

Table XXIX shows Chi-square values of 0.0657 and 1.47927 for the low and middle income black vs. white respondents respectively--these being insignificant at the .05 alpha level of significance. H_9 was not supported.

TABLE XXIX

BLACK VS. WHITE RESPONDENTS' PERCEIVED LEVEL OF IMPORTANCE FOR THE PRICE CONSCIOUS ATTRIBUTE WITHIN INCOME

	LIW		LIB		MIW		MIB	
Prices	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Neither					6	8.0	8	9.9
Somewhat important	15	20.0	15	21.7	34	45.3	29	35.8
Very important	60	80.0	54	78.3	35	46.7	44	54.3
Totals	75	100.0%	69	100.0%	75	100.0%	81	100.0%

X^2 = 0.0657 (Corrected) with 1 df; p = 0.5631 X^2 = 1.47927 (Corrected) with 2 df; p = 0.4773

When controlling for race however, Table XXX shows that significant income based differences did exist within both the black and white subgroups (lower income more price conscious). When educational levels were controlled, no significant Chi-square differences were obtained between the black and white respondents on the price consciousness attribute. Table XXXI shows that when occupation was controlled, blue collar low income vs. middle income workers had a significant Chi-square value. The low incidence of low income white collar workers prevented further analysis. Therefore, one may conclude that occupation

TABLE XXX

LOW VS. MIDDLE INCOME RESPONDENTS' PERCEIVED LEVEL OF IMPORTANCE FOR THE PRICE CONSCIOUS ATTRIBUTE WITHIN RACE

	LIW		MIW		LIB		MIB	
Prices	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Neither					4	5.8	8	9.9
Somewhat important	15	20.0	40	53.3	11	15.9	29	35.8
Very important	60	80.0	35	46.7	54	78.3	44	54.3
Totals	75	100.0%	75	100.0%	69	100.0%	81	100.0%

X^2 = 17.9416 (Corrected) with 1 df; p = 0.0001

X^2 = 9.55490 (Corrected) with 2 df; p = 0.0084

TABLE XXXI

RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF IMPORTANCE FOR THE PRICE CONSCIOUS ATTRIBUTE BY INCOME WITHIN OCCUPATION

	Blue Collar Workers			
	Low Income		Middle Income	
Prices	Number	%	Number	%
Neither	7	4.2	7	9.6
Somewhat important	24	16.9	30	41.1
Very important	112	78.9	36	49.3
Totals	143	100.0%	73	100.0%

X^2 = 19.65036 (Corrected) with 2 df; p = 0.0001 (blue collar) and income contribute to significant differences pertaining to price consciousness for dresses and slacks. However, again, the direct test revealed that H_9 was not supported so this underscores the need to control for income when attempting to find racial differences in price consciousness.

H_{10} Blacks are more style and fashion conscious than comparable income whites.

To evaluate H_{10}, the perceived importance of two clothing product attributes (latest style and fashion) were measured on a scale ranging from "very unimportant" to "very important" to determine innovative differentials, if any, between black and white sample respondents. Table XXXII shows there was a significant difference when style importance was tested between blacks and whites in the low income group, but not in the middle income group. Similar results were obtained when fashion consciousness was tested between blacks and whites. Again the differences were different in the low income range but not the middle income families (See Table XXXIII). For middle income black and white respondents on the "latest style" attribute, responses for the subgroups were nearly evenly distributed across all categories. In summary, H_{10} was supported for low but not middle income respondents with the lower income blacks perceiving the latest style and fashion as of higher importance relative to low income whites.

H_{11} Younger blacks (older blacks) purchase more privately branded name dresses and slacks and are more innovative than younger whites (older whites).

TABLE XXXII

BLACKS VS. WHITES PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE FOR THE LATEST STYLE ATTRIBUTE WITHIN INCOME GROUPS

Latest style	LIW Number	LIW %	LIB Number	LIB %	MIW Number	MIW %	MIB Number	MIB %
Somewhat Unimportant	14	18.7	3	4.3	5	6.7	5	6.2
Neither	18	24.0	3	4.4	7	9.3	12	14.8
Somewhat important	27	36.0	24	34.8	49	65.3	44	54.3
Very important	16	21.3	39	56.5	14	18.7	20	24.7
Totals	75	100.0%	69	100.0%	75	100.0%	81	100.0%

X^2 = 27.424 (Corrected) with 3 df; p = 0.0000 X^2 = 2.416 (Corrected) with 3 df; p = 0.483

TABLE XXXIII

BLACK VS. WHITES' PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE FOR THE LATEST FASHION ATTRIBUTE WITHIN INCOME GROUPS

Latest fashion	LIW Number	LIW %	LIB Number	LIB %	MIW Number	MIW %	MIB Number	MIB %
Somewhat Unimportant	6	8.0	3	4.4	5	6.7	6	7.4
Neither	18	24.0	4	5.8	7	9.3	9	11.1
Somewhat important	31	41.3	17	24.6	47	62.7	41	50.6
Very important	20	26.7	45	65.2	16	21.3	25	30.9
Totals	75	100.0%	69	100.0%	75	100.0%	81	100.0%

X^2 = 23.399 (Corrected) with 3 df; p = 0.0000 X^2 = 2.498 (Corrected) with 3 df; p = 0.546

The extremely low incidence of national brand purchases (3/300) by sample respondents prevented testing of this hypothesis with regard to brand.

To test the innovativeness part of H_{11}, operational definitions of younger and older respondents had to first be specified. Due to the diversity of studies using different age cutoff categories to operationally define younger and older respondents in the segmentation literature, this task was far from trivial. Walter and Paul's (1970) trichotomized age segment classification was used because it appeared to be more straightforward than other study age classifications. A formative years segment (34 and younger) was used to classify younger black and white respondents; the good years segment (35 to 55) and retirement segment (older than 55) were combined to form a category of older black and white respondents.

A Chi-square test was used to test the differences in the perceived importance of the latest style and fashion attributes with respect to age as advanced in H_{11}. Tables XXXIV and XXXV show Chi square values of 9.728 and 3.005 with four and three degrees of freedom for the latest style and fashion attributes respectively. The critical Chi square for a .05 alpha significant level is 9.49. Hence, the latest style attribute results in a significant difference while the latest fashion attribute results in no significant difference between age groups. Therefore, one may conclude that younger (black and white) respondents are slightly more "latest style conscious" than their older counterparts but that no statistically significant differences exist between the age subgroups' fashion consciousness.

TABLE XXXIV

RESPONDENTS' LATEST STYLE CONSCIOUSNESS BY AGE

	Younger Respondents		Older Respondents	
Latest style	Number	%	Number	%
Very unimportant	8	5.6	5	3.1
Somewhat unimportant	4	2.9	10	6.3
Neither	12	8.6	28	17.5
Somewhat important	76	54.3	68	42.5
Very important	40	28.6	49	30.6
Totals	140	100.0%	160	100.0%

$X^2 = 9.728$ with 4 df; $p = 0.0453$

TABLE XXXV

RESPONDENTS' LATEST FASHION CONSCIOUSNESS BY AGE

	Younger Respondents		Older Respondents	
Latest fashion	Number	%	Number	%
Somewhat unimportant	9	6.4	11	6.9
Neither	13	9.3	25	15.6
Somewhat important	68	48.6	68	42.5
Very important	50	35.7	56	35.0
Totals	140	100.0%	160	100.0%

$X^2 = 3.005$ (Corrected) with 3 df; $p = 0.1802$

Further analysis of the fashion consciousness and age relation revealed that it persisted within the white subgroup (Table XXXVI):

TABLE XXXVI

RESPONDENTS' LATEST FASHION CONSCIOUSNESS BY AGE WITHIN RACE

	Younger White Respondents		Older White Respondents	
Latest fashion	Number	%	Number	%
Somewhat unimportant	4	5.2	7	9.5
Neither	7	9.2	18	24.3
Somewhat important	45	59.3	33	44.6
Very important	20	26.3	16	21.6
Totals	76	100.0%	74	100.0%

$X^2 = 7.924$ (Corrected) with 3 df; $p = 0.5351$

A similar analysis of the black subgroup was not significant. Further, neither race subgroup produced any difference on the style attribute. The race variable does little to help clarify the role of the age variable as a determinant of respondents' innovativeness. If anything, it suggests the differences may be greater among whites than blacks. Controlling for education produced Chi-square values that were insignificant at the .05 alpha level. It appears that the education variable is not useful in further explaining the age variable as a determinant of innovativeness of younger and older respondents. After carefully evaluating the findings, one must conclude that H_{11} was only partially supported and that few overall significant differences were revealed between younger and older black and white respondents' innovativeness for dresses and slacks.

H_{12} Lower income blacks purchase more nationally branded name dresses and slacks than middle income blacks and/or lower and middle income whites.

Aside from the eight (8) national brands already identified, some forty (40) other brands had to be identified as national or private brands. Ultimately, eighteen (18) brands were classified as national brands and forty-four (44) as private brands. National and private brands were classified according to the operational definitions advanced in Chapter III. If the writer was uncertain about carefully classifying a brand correctly, local retailers and female purchasers of dresses and slacks were consulted for verification. Frequency distributions were obtained for the national and private brands to determine the number of times each respondent had purchased a particular brand within the last two years. Only three of one hundred forty four low income respondents reported purchase of national brands and none of the middle income respondents reported purchase of national branded items. Hence, a testing of H_{12} cannot be performed on this distribution.

Bauer and Cunningham's (1970) "Striver" Index

Bauer and Cunningham (1970) constructed a "Striver Index" based on goal-oriented questions to segment the black and white populations into "striver" and "nonstriver" segments. Answers to four questions were scored, and respondents who scored above the median were labeled "strivers" while those who scored below the median were labeled "nonstrivers". Each "striver" and "nonstriver" groups were further subdivided by race. Questions have been raised in the literature as to whether these populations can be validly divided into two dichotomous subgroups using a four-question index as adequate measures (McKenzie, et al., 1972 and Brogowicz, 1976). Despite these concerns, replication of their operationalization of the "striver" and "nonstriver" typology was pursued with the intent of studying income, educational and occupational correlates with a view toward partially assessing its validity. Since the Index's construction was published in the black buyer behavior literature, subsequent researchers have tested the Striver Index in their research efforts. The same four item index was replicated in the present study with slight rephrasing of questions to allow for "yes," "no," or "not sure" responses to the following questions:

1. I feel that most people tend to live from day to day rather than plan for the future.

2. Children should accept problems that face them rather than attempt to solve them.

3. I would rather spend my money today and enjoy it rather than save for the future.

4. I feel that Knoxvillians can better improve their quality of life by getting together and helping one another rather than relying on government aid.

According to Bauer and Cunningham's Index, it is assumed that "strivers" will answer "no" to questions 1, 2 and 3 and "yes" to question 4 and "nonstrivers" will do the opposite. On questions 1-3, yes, no and not sure answers received a score of 1, 3 and 2 respectively. For question 4, yes, no and not sure answers received a score of 3, 1 and 2 respectively. Therefore, a perfect score for a "striver" is twelve (12) points and a perfect score for a "nonstriver" is four (4). This four-question index was used to construct a distribution of scores for all respondents. Those respondents who who scored above the median were labeled "strivers" while those respondents who scored below the median were labeled "nonstrivers". Respondents were thereafter subdivided by race. Frequencies were run to determine the median and set up a distribution of scores for all respondents for the four questions asked as shown in Table XXXVII:

TABLE XXXVII

FREQUENCIES FOR BAUER AND CUNNINGHAM'S STRIVER INDEX

Scores	Absolute frequencies	Relative frequencies (percent)	Adjusted frequencies (percent)	Cumulative frequencies (percent)
4	19	6.3	6.3	6.3
5	22	7.3	7.3	13.7
6	26	8.7	8.7	22.3
7	18	6.0	6.0	28.3
8	34	11.3	11.3	39.7
9	37	12.3	12.3	52.0
10	55	18.3	18.3	70.3
11	36	12.0	12.0	82.3
12	53	17.7	17.7	100.0
Total	300	199.0	100.0	

Median = 9.338

Using the median (9.338) to divide the strivers from the nonstrivers, resulted in 156 nonstrivers and 144 strivers for the 300 sample respondents. Table XXXVIII presents the results when the strivers and nonstrivers were subdivided by race. Sixty-eight (68) black respondents were classified as strivers while eighty-two (82) black respondents were classified as nonstrivers. Seventy-six (76) white respondents were classified as strivers while seventy-four (74) white respondents were classified as nonstrivers. There is a slightly greater incidence of blacks within the nonstriver category but, overall, strikingly little difference:

TABLE XXXVIII

"STRIVER" "NONSTRIVER" RESPONDENTS BY RACE

Classification	Blacks Number	Blacks %	Whites Number	Whites %
Strivers	68	45.3	76	50.7
Nonstrivers	82	54.7	74	49.3
Totals	150	100.0%	150	100.0%

Interest was directed toward determining how the strivers and nonstrivers would be classified by income level when the education and occupation variables were controlled. Again, the income, education and occupation classifications used were: (<$9,001 and ≥ $9,001); education (<1 to 3 years college and ≥1 to 3 years college); and occupation (white collar and blue collar workers).

Table XXXIX presents the results of the income striver and nonstriver respondents while controlling for education. Table XXXIX reveals that there are dramatic differences between strivers and nonstrivers in their income status although this is not highlighted. Higher income consumers appear to be much more likely to be strivers than nonstrivers. Differences also exist within educational level groupings. Chi-square values of 3.934 and 14.959 were obtained for

The less than 1 to 3 years college respondents and greater than or equal to 1 to 3 years college respondents respectively with one degree of freedom. It may also be seen that strivers clearly tend to have higher educational levels:

TABLE XXXIX

STRIVER VS. NONSTRIVER CLASSIFICATION BY INCOME WITHIN EDUCATION GROUPS

	Education < 1 to 3 years College				Education ≥ 1 to 3 years College			
Income	Strivers	%	Nonstrivers	%	Strivers	%	Nonstrivers	%
Less than $9,001	24	80	95	94.1	8	7	17	30.9
$9,001 or more	6	20	6	5.9	106	93.0	38	69.1
	30	100.0%	101	100.0%	114	100.0%	55	100.0%

X^2 = 3.934 with 1 df; p = 0.0473

X^2 = 14.959 with 1 df; p = 0.0001

Table XXXX shows that income based differences also exist within the blue collar worker group. The largest group of respondents were classified as nonstriving blue collar workers. The lack of income variation among white collar workers prevented similar analysis. These results appear generally consistent with the validation of Bauer and Cunningham's striver index, although the results by themselves are inadequate for citing conclusive results.

Stepwise Discriminant Analysis

In the course of this research, further analysis not directly connected with the hypotheses was conducted. Stepwise discriminant

TABLE XXXX

STRIVER VS. NONSTRIVER CLASSIFICATION BY INCOME WITHIN OCCUPATION GROUP

	Blue Collar Workers			
Income	Strivers	%	Nonstrivers	%
Less than $9,001	32	40.0	111	81.5
$9,001 or more	40	60.0	25	18.5
Totals	80	100.0%	136	100.0%

X^2 = 36.716 with 1 df; p = 0.0001

analysis was utilized to test the ability of measured variables to separate low and middle income respondents. Inasmuch as the same data were used to derive discriminant functions and classify data, one should expect a high percentage of correct classifications (Churchill, 1976, p. 537). Chi square tests showed significant difference between blacks and whites concerning the link between nationally advertised brands and quality and prestige. Quality and prestige also varied significantly between income groups in the following test (See Tables XXXXI, XXXXII and XXXXIII).

TABLE XXXXI

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS: SUMMARY OF THE CANONICAL DISCRIMINANT FUNCTIONS FOR THE PRESTIGE AND QUALITY VARIABLES

Step Entered Removed	Variables in	Wilks' Lambda	Significant
1. Prestige	1	0.981750	0.0192
2. Quality	2	0.976429	0.0289

TABLE XXXXII

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS: STANDARDIZED DISCRIMINANT FUNCTION COEFFICIENTS FOR THE QUALITY AND PRESTIGE VARIABLES

Variables	Discriminant Function Coefficients
1. Prestige	0.68568
2. Quality	0.51648

TABLE XXXXIII

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS: RESULTS OF PREDICTED AND ACTUAL GROUP CLASSIFICATION FOR THE QUALITY AND PRESTIGE VARIABLES

Income Groups	# of Cases	Predicted Classification: # < \$9,001	Group %	# ≥ \$9,001	Group %	Group Centroids
1. < \$9,001 annually	144	79	54.9	65	45.1	.16118
2. ≥ \$9,001 annually	156	59	37.8	97	62.2	-.14878

Percent of "Grouped" Cases Correctly Classified = 58.67%

As before, the low income group perceives that quality and prestige are related to nationally advertised brands more than the middle income group.

H_7, H_9 and H_{10} were directed toward determining race, income (low and middle income) shopping and purchase behavior differentials, if any. Using the Chi-square test, the hypotheses were either partially supported or not supported. The purchase and shopping behavior attributes tested in the hypotheses along with others were examined to determine how well the variables would discriminate between the income groups.

Tables XXXXIV, XXXXV and XXXXVI present the results of discriminant analysis for the shopping and purchase behavior variables. Table XXXXIV shows the variables as they enter the stepwise discriminant analysis. All of the shopping and purchase behavior variables were significant at the $\leq .05$ significant level including those to test H_7, H_9 and H_{10}.

TABLE XXXXIV

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS: SUMMARY OF THE CANONICAL DISCRIMINANT FUNCTIONS FOR THE SHOPPING AND PURCHASE BEHAVIOR VARIABLES

Steps Entered Removed	Variables in	Wilks' Lambda	Significant
1. Prices	1	0.953509	0.0002
2. Quality	2	0.911959	0.0000
3. Credit availability	3	0.903559	0.0000
4. Prestige	4	0.900412	0.0000
5. Prestigious reputation	5	0.893599	0.0000
6. Nationally advertised brands	6	8.889493	0.0000
7. Manufacturer brands	7	0.888493	0.0000
8. Latest style	8	0.887089	0.0000
9. Fashion	9	0.886318	0.0001
10. Warranty on clothes	10	0.885990	0.0001
11. Knowledgeable sales people	11	0.885656	0.0002
12. Friendliness of sales personnel	12	0.885246	0.0004

TABLE XXXXV

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS: STANDARDIZED DISCRIMINANT FUNCTION COEFFICIENTS FOR THE SHOPPING AND PURCHASE BEHAVIOR VARIABLES

Variables	Discriminant Function Coefficients
1. Nationally advertised brands	0.26625
2. Knowledgeable sales people	-0.11977
3. Friendliness of sales personnel	0.08603
4. Credit availability	0.32153
5. Prestigious reputation	0.28745
6. Latest style	0.26408
7. Manufacturer brands	-0.23123
8. Quality	0.85589
9. Prices	-1.19497
10. Fashion	-0.16711
11. Prestige	-0.35233
12. Warranty on clothes	0.08866

TABLE XXXXVI

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS: RESULTS OF PREDICTED AND ACTUAL GROUP CLASSIFICATION FOR THE SHOPPING AND PURCHASE BEHAVIOR VARIABLES

		Predicted Classification				
Income Groups	# of Cases	#<\$9,001	Group %	#≥\$9,001	Group %	Group Centroids
1. <\$9,001 annually	144	96	66.7	48	33.3	-.37349
2. ≥ \$9,001 annually	156	56	35.9	100	64.1	.34476

Percent of "Grouped" Cases Correctly Classified = 65.33%

A testing of H_{10} revealed the latest style and fashion variables to be significant for low income race respondents but not for middle income race respondents. The negative coefficient for the fashion variable is consistent with the previous results when group centroids are considered. However, the positive coefficient for style is inconsistent.

Table XXXXVI shows that the shopping and purchase behavior variables correctly classified just under 66 percent of the low and middle income respondents.

H_5 was a within black comparison on advertising source influencing their purchase behavior. The hypothesis was partially supported. The television, radio ads and billboards advertising sources were significant while all other advertising sources tested were insignificant. Table XXXXVII shows these advertising influence measures are significant as predictor of low and middle income group membership. Tables XXXVIII and XXXXIX further present the

TABLE XXXXVII

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS: SUMMARY OF THE CANONICAL DISCRIMINANT FUNCTIONS FOR THE ADVERTISING SOURCE VARIABLES

Steps Entered Removed	Variables in	Wilks' Lambda	Significant
1. Window displays	1	0.981138	0.0173
2. Your spouse	2	0.963785	0.0042
3. Relatives	3	0.955661	0.0038
4. Magazine ads	4	0.944061	0.0019
5. Radio ads	5	0.933352	0.0011
6. Billboards	6	0.924967	0.0008
7. Newspaper ads	7	0.920671	0.0010
8. Television	8	0.916550	0.0012
9. Your children	9	0.913258	0.0016

TABLE XXXXVIII

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS: STANDARDIZED DISCRIMINANT FUNCTION COEFFICIENTS FOR THE ADVERTISING SOURCE VARIABLES

Variables	Discriminant Function Coefficients
1. Billboards	0.57914
2. Television	-0.36011
3. Newspaper ads	0.47699
4. Magazine ads	0.40121
5. Radio ads	-0.59423
6. Window displays	-0.65798
7. Your spouse	0.64157
8. Your children	-0.24617
9. Relatives	-0.40708

TABLE XXXXIX

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS: RESULTS OF PREDICTED AND ACTUAL GROUP CLASSIFICATION FOR THE ADVERTISING SOURCE VARIABLES

		Predicted Classification				
Income Groups	# of Cases	#<$9,001	Group %	#≥$9,001	Group %	Group Centroids
1. <$9,001 annually	144	93	64.6	51		-0.31970
2. ≥$9,001 annually	156	53	34.0	103		0.29511

Percent of "Grouped" Cases Correctly Classified = 65.33%

results of the discriminant analysis for low and middle income group membership relative to advertising sources influencing their purchase behavior.

Lastly, an assessment of the shopping and purchase behavior variables was desired to determine how well they discriminate between the black and white respondents. Of course, race is the key variable for this study to determine whether the black population is a distinct clothing market begging for different treatment in the marketplace for successful reach. Table L shows that the shopping and purchase behavior do vary significantly between racial groups. Table LI shows that the shopping and purchase behavior variables relative contribution to the discriminant function were quite important while Table LII shows that the variables correctly classified 63 percent of the black and white respondents.

TABLE L

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS: SUMMARY OF THE CANONICAL DISCRIMINANT FUNCTIONS FOR THE SHOPPING AND PURCHASE BEHAVIOR VARIABLES BY RACE

Step	Entered Removed	Variables in	Wilks' Lambda	Significant
1.	Latest style	1	0.957419	0.0000
2.	Quality	2	0.933709	0.0000
3.	Nationally advertised brands	3	0.916899	0.0000
4.	Credit availability	4	0.908651	0.0000
5.	Friendliness of sales personnel	5	0.901391	0.0000
6.	High quality, low quality	6	0.896908	0.0000
7.	Prestige	7	0.894756	0.0000
8.	Prestigious reputation	8	0.890577	0.0000
9.	Prices	9	0.888881	0.0001
10.	Manufacturer brands	10	0.887292	0.0001
11.	High prestige, low prestige	11	0.886271	0.0002
12.	Fashion	12	0.885103	0.0004

TABLE LI

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS: STANDARDIZED DISCRIMINANT FUNCTION COEFFICIENTS FOR THE SHOPPING AND PURCHASE BEHAVIOR VARIABLES BY RACE

Variables	Discriminant Function Coefficients
1. Nationally advertised brands	-0.42497
2. Friendliness of sales personnel	0.29517
3. Credit availability	-0.33609
4. Prestigious reputation	0.26642
5. Latest style	-0.62576
6. Manufacturer brands	0.21998
7. Quality	0.37861
8. Prices	0.25488
9. Fashion	-0.20080
10. Prestige	-0.37901
11. High quality, low quality (mf. brands)	-0.26339
12. High prestige, low prestige (mf. brands)	0.11873

TABLE LII

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS: RESULTS OF PREDICTED AND ACTUAL GROUP CLASSIFICATION FOR THE SHOPPING AND PURCHASE BEHAVIOR VARIABLES BY RACE

		Predicted Classification				
Race Groups	# of Cases	# in White Group	%	# in Black Group	%	Group Centroids
1. White	150	88	58.7	62	41.3	0.35909
2. Black	150	49	32.7	101	67.3	-0.35909

Percent of "Grouped" Cases Correctly Classified = 63.00%

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Chapter IV presented the results of the analysis of data collected in this research effort. The purpose of this chapter is to review these results in summary fashion and to discuss their implications relative to contributing toward bridging certain gaps in black buyer behavior segmentation research; their contributions toward unfolding future research priorities; and their contributions toward identifying research voids.

Consumer Perceptions and Perceived Familiarity

The first set of hypotheses tested in this dissertation study were directed toward determining whether black and white race differentials existed, if any, (within and between groups) relative to their perceptions and perceived familiarity of nationally branded name dresses and slacks. See Table LIII for a summary of study hypotheses findings. H_{1A} and H_{1B} were supported (although not when controlling for educational level). That is, lower income black respondents' perceptions of nationally branded name dresses and slacks were significantly higher than their middle income black counterparts relative to the high prestige and high quality variables studied. These findings are consistent with previous study findings appearing in the black buyer behavior literature. The underlying theses for this type of findings advanced in the literature is that lower income blacks are not risk takers. They do not buy products that they know very little about and therefore stick to nationally advertised brands.

TABLE LIII

SUMMARY OF STUDY RESULTS

Dependent Variables	Findings
Consumer Perceptions of National/ Private Brands	
H_{1A} Prestige and Quality: LIB > MIB	Partially supported (but may be attributable to education
H_{2B} Prestige and Quality: Blacks > Whites	Partially supported (but may be attributable to income)
Consumer Perceived Familiarity of National/Private Brands	
H_{2A} LIB < MIB	Not supported (no difference)
H_{2B} Blacks < Whites	Not supported (no difference
Consumer Shopping Behavior/Patronage	
H_3 Shopping Distance: LIB < MIB	Not supported
H_4 Black Ownership Attribute LIB > MIB	Supported (but may be attributable to education)
H_5 Information-Advertising source Importance: LIB < MIB	Not supported (partial support for MIB > LIB
H_6 Department Stores vs. Specialty and Discount: Blacks > Whites	Not supported (no differences)
H_7 Prestige, Credit, Personnel Friendliness, Salesperson Knowledge Blacks > Whites	Not supported (Credit: Black > White)
Consumer Purchase Behavior	
H_8 Price: LIB < MIB	Not supported (LIB > MIB)
H_9 Price: Blacks > Whites	Partially supported (low income only)
H_{10} Style/Fashion Conscious: Black > Whites	Partially supported (LIB > LIW)
H_{11} Private Brands Purchased and Style/Fashion Conscious: Young > Old	Limited support (innovativeness only)
H_{12} National Brands Purchased: LIB > MIB or LIW or MIW	Untestable

However, middle income blacks are able to weigh different product attributes, whether national brands or private brands, and make rational choices. For example, they know that many private brands have as much quality as nationally advertised brands. Although these findings are limited to the Knoxville area, some suggestions may be offered since they are consistent with other study findings reported in the black segmentation literature. The lower income black segment may be a profitable target market for private brand producers to focus on. Such a strategy would require assessing the liklihood of educational-type efforts being successful.

Relating to the high status attribute, Bullock (1961) has suggested that blacks tend to emulate white middle class standards and act out these desires by purchasing high priced products that they feel will boost their high social status consciousness. It was further suggested that as the income of blacks equalize that of whites, race may cease to be an important variable accounting for consumption differences between the two ethnic groups. Bullocks' contentions may have been born out in the research findings reported here. Middle income blacks may be behaving in the marketplace in a similar fashion as their middle income white counterparts. Of course, we can only hypothesize this since we are studying their perceptions, not actual purchase behavior.

H_{1B} was a black/white hypothesis relating to their perceptions of nationally advertised brands. For both low and middle income black respondents, their overall perceptions of nationally brand name dresses and slacks being indicative of high quality and high prestige were higher than for comparable income whites. Although middle income blacks differed significantly from low income blacks, they also differed as hypothesized from comparable income whites. Hence, Bullock's theses was supported here concerning black vs. white differences although differences were also identified <u>within</u> the black population.

H_{2A} and H_{2B} were directed toward black and white (within and between) perceived familiarity of existing nationally and privately brand named dresses and slacks. The survey instrument consisted of a list of sixteen brands (eight national brands and eight private brands) that were acquired through pretests. In testing H_{2A} and H_{2B}, respondents were asked to indicate their level of familiarity with the sixteen brands. They were instructed to check either "very familiar", "somewhat familiar" or "not familiar". The two hypotheses were rejected because Chi-square values for a .05 significance level were obtained for only one brand. It was concluded that the perceived familiarity with existing nationally branded name dresses and slacks for the black vs. white and low-income vs. middle-income respondents was not significantly different.

Consumer Shopping Behavior

The second set of hypotheses (H_3, H_4, H_5, H_6, and H_7) were directed toward determining the shopping behavior of the black and white respondents. Some of the hypotheses were directed toward determining within race differences; while others were directed toward determining between race differences. H_3 was formulated to determine whether lower income blacks have a more limited shopping scope (distance) than middle income blacks. H_3 was not supported. Lower income blacks' shopping scope for dresses and slacks did not differ significantly from middle income blacks. These findings clearly contradict those of previous researchers. The location of blacks in the Knoxville area who were classified as middle and low income blacks may account for these findings. Low and middle income blacks in the Knoxville area are highly concentrated in the same vicinities. This is unlike previous studies that used ghetto blacks as low income consumers and middle income blacks from the suburbia of the metropolitan cities. This is a contradictory area begging for future research exploration in other geographical areas.

H_4 was supported. That is, lower income blacks indicated that the black owned and/or operated business attribute was more important to them than did middle income blacks. These findings corroborate some previous research findings; while they contradict those reported by others. Gensch and Staelin (1972) found that the appeals of convenience, shopping location, price and quality dominated the appeal of buying from a black-owned store, Schewe, 1976, p. 36. In that contradictory findings are present, this hypothesis demands further research exploration. Also, researchers should focus on determining the underlying reasons why low income blacks perceive black ownership to be more important than do middle income blacks. The fact that no differences were found when controlling for education may indicate that educational level is a more important predictor variable than income.

The testing of H_5 revealed that only three of the seven advertising related sources (billboards, television and radio) were significant at the .05 alpha level; and these advertising related sources were the reverse of what was hypothesized. Billboards, television and radio advertising sources were considered more important by lower income blacks than by middle income blacks. The reasons for these findings are unclear. Larson (1968) observed that television ownership (especially color televisions) were found more in middle income black homes than low income black homes. The explanation offered was that the latter black consumers may have fewer dwelling units equipped with electrical installations for the use of such appliances. For market management purposes, these findings should not be taken lightly. The low and middle income black differences exist for two of the most widely used media (television and radio). In that contradictory findings have been reported in the literature, this hypothesis warrants further research exploration.

The findings from testing H_3 and H_6 were somewhat unexpected. A number of study findings have revealed that lower income blacks are more localized in their shopping behavior and shop less at discount stores than middle income blacks (Progressive Grocer, 1969; King and Demanche, 1969; Goodman, 1968; Kunreuther, 1971; and Cox, Higginbotham and Stafford, 1972). However, Feldman and Star (1968) found that low income blacks shopped at discount stores to a greater degree than middle income blacks. In this research, H_6 was not supported. That is, no significant differences existed between comparable income black and white respondents' department store patronage, as compared to specialty and discount store patronage. An explanation for these findings may be that both low and middle income Knoxville respondents are highly concentrated close to downtown Knoxville and they are both closer to department stores than to discount stores which are situated miles away from shopping centers. Due to the conflicting findings surrounding blacks' store patronage behavior, this is clearly a gap in black buyer behavior research that demands further research exploration.

Conflicting findings have been reported in the black buyer behavior literature relating to certain attributes blacks' consider important when choosing a specific store to shop and possible purchase products. Such store and product attributes as quality, price, convenience of location, friendly atmosphere, access to public transportation and credit availability have been explored in research efforts (Progressive Grocer, 1969; Goodman, 1968; King and DeManche, 1969; Kunreuther, 1971; and Cox, Higginbotham and Stafford, 1972). In the research reported here, the store's prestigious reputation, credit availability, personnel friendliness and knowledge of merchandise carried attributes were studied. It was hypothesized that these attributes have a lesser effect on where blacks shop for dresses and slacks as compared to their white counterparts. Aside from the credit availability attribute, there were no differences (insignificant at the .05 alpha level). Further, the credit attribute was in the opposite direction from that hypothesized-blacks attributed greater importance to credit. H_7 was not supported. These findings have strong implications for market management purposes. If credit availability is a decisive reason influencing black patronage of certain stores, the income effect may be at work here. Do blacks shop at stores where they can acquire credit? Is this the major reason why previous study findings have concluded that low income blacks shop in their immediate vicinities where merchants grant them credit? Do blacks, particularly low income blacks, feel that they are low credit risks and cannot acquire credit from outside merchants? These are unresolved questions that should be considered major research priorities in future studies.

Consumer Purchase Behavior

The third and final set of hypotheses tested in this dissertation study were directed toward determining sample respondents' purchase behavior for nationally and privately branded name dresses and slacks to determine within group and between group differences, if any.

H_8 was formulated to determine whether lower income blacks were less price conscious in their clothing purchase behavior than middle income blacks. Taking on the values one (1) "very unimportant" to five (5) "very important", respondents rated the level of importance the price attribute was to them when purchasing dresses and slacks. The Chi-square test revealed that there was a significant difference at the .05 alpha level but that low income black respondents were more price conscious in their purchase of branded name dresses and slacks than middle income black respondents. Conflicting evidence has been reported in the black buyer behavior literature. While Goodman (1968) found that blacks' perceptions of food price levels were generally accurate, King and DeManche (1969) found that low-income blacks were more concerned about prices than both low and middle-income whites. Also, Mason and Wilkinson (1973) and French and Lynn (Winter 1971-1972) found no special price consciousness among low-income black consumers; while Ingram (1971) found them to be very price conscious. However, it was observed that the sources cited studied grocery items. Therefore, one must be cautious when comparing their findings to those reported in this research effort. More studies are needed addressing the clothing product category.

H_9 was directed toward determining whether blacks and whites differ significantly in their price consciousness when controlling for income. A Chi-square statistical test revealed that no significant difference existed between the racial groups. Study findings clearly indicated, however, that lower income consumers were more price conscious than middle income consumers.

To test H_{10} two product attributes were used (latest style and fashion) on a scale ranging from "very unimportant" to "very important" to determine perceived race innovative differentials between comparable income black and white respondents. For both the latest style and fashion attributes, low-income blacks and whites differed significantly at the .05 alpha level; while no significant differences were found between the middle-income black and white respondents. H_{10} was partially supported. These findings contradict those of previous researchers while they corroborate those of others. Bauer, Cunningham and Wortzel (1965) found that the higher the blacks' income, the more fashion consciousness they were (not tested herein). Portis (1966) found no significant differences in the fashion consciousness of blacks when compared to comparable income whites. Robertson, Dalrymple and Yoshino (1969) found that blacks were more innovative than whites. The findings reported here indicate blacks as more innovative than whites at the lower income levels. Although not tested, a visual inspection of Tables XXXII and XXXIII indicate that lower income blacks are more innovative than middle income blacks. Blacks' product innovativeness is a hypothesis in much need for further research investigations.

H_{11} was formulated to determine whether younger black and white respondents purchased more private brands and were more innovative than older black and white respondents (actually two subhypotheses). Private vs. national brand purchases were untestable because of the extremely low incidence of national brand purchases (3/300). Perceived importance of the latest style and fashion attributes were used to determine product innovativeness. A significant difference was found between younger and older (black and white) respondents with respect to the latest style attribute although only one difference was found within race with older whites responding slightly differently than younger whites on the fashion consciousness attribute. H_{11} received very limited support and that only in regard to younger consumers being more fashion and style conscious than older consumers. In that research on blacks and whites addressing the age variable to determine purchase behavior is lacking (especially for clothing), this issue may deserve additional research with more attention to measurement issues.

The final hypothesis (H_{12}) was formulated to test for differences among the sample respondents purchases of nationally vs. privately branded name dresses and slacks. It was hypothesized that lower income blacks purchased more nationally branded name dresses and slacks than middle income blacks and/or lower and middle income whites. More than ninety percent (90%) of the respondents reported they purchased zero (0) national brands. The sheer dominance of private brands was striking. None of the middle income respondents reported purchase of national branded items while only three of one hundred forty four low income respondents reported purchase of national brands. Therefore, a testing of H_{12} could not be performed on this distribution using Chi-square statistic.

Directions for Future Research

We have alluded to future research priorities throughout this chapter. However, more specific guidelines may be offered. There is a need for more research addressing the clothing product category in race-based segmentation research where gaps abound. There is a critical need for research efforts to be directed toward determining within and between black and white groups' brand loyalty for the nationally and privately branded clothing items studied here as well as for other clothing items. Future research efforts should not be limited to the female population, but should also include the male population to determine national and private clothing brand loyalty. Understandably, the perceptions and perceived familiarity results reported herein of blacks and whites (within and between groups) regarding nationally and privately brand named products are far from conclusive. For market management purposes, this is indeed a gray area in need of further research.

The shopping scope of blacks with all of its public policy implications still remains an unresolved issue in black buyer behavior. Do low income blacks restrain themselves to their neighborhoods to purchase goods and services because they are indebted to the local merchants? Are low income blacks knowledgeable of special bargains that are offered by merchants situated outside their immediate neighborhoods? If so, why do these consumers neglect to take advantage of these sellers' deals? Or do low income black consumers have a more limited shopping scope as compared to middle income blacks and/or low and middle income whites because of transportation unavailability. Are low income black consumers restricted to their immediate neighborhoods for purchases of goods and services because of garnishments and/or other legal ramifications levied by local merchants? These are only a few of the questions that need attention.

Blacks patronize black owned and/or operated businesses. This thesis has long been presented and tested in study hypotheses. In this research, the hypothesis was supported indicating that low income blacks patronize black owned and/or operated businesses to a greater degree than middle income blacks. Indeed, further testing of the hypothesis is warranted to further understand this issue. Moreover, researchers should attempt to get at "why" blacks (especially low income blacks) patronize black owned and/or operated businesses to a greater degree than other ethnic groups.

Findings relating to advertising sources (H_5) having an impact on where blacks shop for dresses and slacks produced interesting results. Low and middle income blacks differed significantly relative to two major advertising sources (television and radio). If significant differences actually exist between low and middle income blacks, marketers and advertisers should direct their attention toward understanding why differences exist.

More research need to be directed toward understanding blacks' store loyalty. Findings have been discussed relating to blacks' loyalty to department stores and discount houses. The findings have been inconsistent and inconclusive. Future researchers need to use more clearly defined operational definitions of brand and store loyalty. Brand and store loyalty studies are largely nonexistent in the black buyer behavior literature. Therefore, additional exploratory efforts are needed.

Several researchers have tested hypotheses relating to attributes important to blacks and whites when deciding where to shop and possibly purchase goods and services. Again, findings have often been conflicting and inconclusive. Of the four store attributes studied in this research, only one (credit availability) resulted in differences that were statistically significant. It is quite evident that this area is far from being conclusive and is in need of further research investigation.

Researchers have reported conflicting findings on blacks' purchase behavior for certain products and brands. One reason why researchers using the same product categories (liquor, furniture and food) report contrastive findings is that they attempt to study several merchandise classes within a product category. Too many black studies have been directed toward investigating several product categories in a single study. As Andreasen (1976) has cautioned, researchers of black buyer behavior have too often settled for breadth rather than depth. Therefore, future research efforts should be directed toward studying single product categories and only one or two product classes.

Are blacks more fashion conscious (innovativeness) in their product purchase behavior than comparable income whites? If so, why? These research questions demand top priority in future research efforts to better understand black consumers' purchase behavior.

Studies in the past have too often been classified as black buyer behavior segmentation studies when they have not met the requirements to be classified as such. First, these studies used an impercise definition of a market. Secondly, correlative variables were not controlled when studying race as a basis for market segmentation. Future black buyer behavior segmentation studies should define and stipulate criteria for a viable product market for the product categories and classes to be studied. It is evident that considerable work needs to be done before we will reach a sufficient level of understanding concerning the perceptions, perceived familiarity levels and shopping and purchase behavior of black consumers.

Conclusions

The writer set out to investigate how well the race variable would differentiate the perceptions, perceived familiarity levels and shopping and purchase behavior of the black and white respondents studied while controlling for income, education, occupation and striver/nonstriver variables. The striver/nonstriver index was actually measured separately since it is an unvalidated subjective measure and the reliability of the measurement is questioned in the black buyer behavior literature. For market management segmentation purposes, the mere existence of racial perception, perceived familiarity levels and shopping and purchase behavior differences do not of themselves define a viable product market demanding different marketing strategies and/or tactics for successful reach. Justifications were offered in Chapter 1 indicating that the clothing category met the criteria for a viable product market (as advanced by Kotler, 1976) for the black and white female populations studied. Therefore, the hypotheses tested must be reexamined to determine how the race variable resulted in statistically significant differences between the black and white respondents studied. The perceptions of black and white respondents toward nationally branded name dresses and slacks differed significantly (H_{1B}). Even after controlling for income, education and occupation, race still was the dominant factor accounting for ethnic perception differences. These findings should stimulate interest in black buyer behavior research directed toward further testing of the hypothesis. H_{1A} revealed that within black income subgroup differences existed relative to their perceptions of national branded name dresses and slacks. Marketers and advertisers are well advised to consider the heterogeneity of the black population when trying to advertise and sell products to this ethnic group, although they must also recognize that statistical significance may not be sufficient for managerial significance.

Findings did not support the hypothesis (H_{2B}) that differences existed between black and whites' perceived familiarity of nationally and privately branded name dresses and slacks. Study findings also revealed that no significant differences existed in the perceived familiarity levels of black subgroups relative to national and private branded name dresses and slacks. The findings reported here clearly contradict most previous black study findings.

No evidence was provided to support the hypothesis (H_6) that blacks patronize department stores, as compared to specialty and discount stores, to a greater degree than comparable income whites. Little evidence was provided to support the hypothesis (H_7) that store attributes have little effect on where blacks shop for dresses and slacks as compared to whites. Race did not fair well in determining black and white shopping behavior differentials.

Lastly, the purchase behavior of sample respondents was assessed to determine how well race differentiated blacks from whites. While H_9, H_{10} and H_{11} were partially supported, H_{12} was untestable. Race did not fair well in differentiating between black and white respondents' purchase behavior.

It is hopeful that the findings reported in this study will stimulate research interest in the black buyer segmentation area. Research efforts in black buyer behavior have been minimal in the last half of the 1970 decade. The reason for this tapering off of interest in black buyer behavior research remains unclear. Researchers may have become perplexed in trying to bridge the gaps that marketers and advertisers must understand to successfully penetrate the black population for at least selected products and brands. Indeed, black buyer behavior research is still at an infant stage. This research area lacks a theoretical base on which to hone future research directions. It is hoped that the research reported here has made a positive contribution to the black buyer behavior segmentation literature, while recognizing that the original objective (Chapter 1) of managerially interpreting each result was not possible. Overall, however, there are fewer differences between blacks and whites than expected, thus arguing for not assuming in advance that separate segments exist.

Limitations

As with any research effort, certain limitations must be recognized. One such area of concern is the extent to which the findings can be generalized to other black and white females situated in geographical areas other than the city of Knoxville. Generalizability from this study may be limited by the racial setting in Knoxville which is only 9 percent black, far lower than for most Southeastern cities. There has also been extremely little racial conflict in the past several years and the black population is considered by some to be politically apathetic and less active than in some communities. Therefore, generalization of any of the findings must be cautiously interpreted.

Another area of potential limitation is that of measurement. The measures used to test the respondents' perceptions, perceived familiarity levels and shopping and purchase behavior for the most part were single measures. To actually test these dependent measures in research efforts with any assured degree of validity and reliability, it is typically best to use multiple measures.

Also, the chi-square statistical test used to test study hypotheses is a test of statistical independence between two categorical variables but says nothing about the strength of that relationship. The parametric t-test is a more powerful test and would have been preferred over chi-square to test the study hypotheses. Since our data was categorical and ordinal, the use of such parametric tests had to be limited;

however, other nonparametric tests such as the Mann-Whitney U could have been used.

The distinct income categories used to operationally identify and define low and middle income respondents must also be recognized as a potential limitation of this research. Previous researchers in the black buyer behavior segmentation area used an imprecise income level to differentiate low from middle income consumers; so direct comparability with this study may not always exist.

It is hoped that the findings reported here will contribute toward bridging some of the gaps regarding the understanding of blacks' perceptions, perceived familiarity levels and shopping and purchase behavior.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE

Consumer Clothing Questionnaire

PART I-A Consumer Perceptions and Perceived Knowledge of Clothing

	Very Familiar	Somewhat Familiar	Not Familiar
Videl	____	____	____
Wards	____	____	____
J. C. Penney	____	____	____
Villager	____	____	____
Sasson	____	____	____
Ups and Downs	____	____	____
Bobby Brooks	____	____	____
Sear's	____	____	____
Sedgefield	____	____	____
Aldman's	____	____	____
College Town	____	____	____
Spiegel	____	____	____
Panther	____	____	____
Miller's	____	____	____
Jonathan Logan	____	____	____
Proffitt's	____	____	____

Instructions: Record last <u>two digits</u>.

<u>'High Priced'</u>	<u>'Medium Priced'</u>
___	___
___	___
___	___
___	___
___	___
___	___
___	___
___	___
___	___
___	___
___	___
___	___

PART I-B

Manufacturer Brand Dresses and Slacks

	Very	Somewhat	Neither	Somewhat	Very	
High Prices	___	___	___	___	___	Low Prices
Poor value for money	___	___	___	___	___	Good value for money
High Quality	___	___	___	___	___	Low Quality
Low Fashion	___	___	___	___	___	High Fashion
High Prestige	___	___	___	___	___	Low Prestige

Store Brand and other Dresses and Slacks

	Very	Somewhat	Neither	Somewhat	Very	
High Prices	___	___	___	___	___	Low Prices
Poor value for money	___	___	___	___	___	Good value for money
High Quality	___	___	___	___	___	Low Quality
Low Fashion	___	___	___	___	___	High Fashion
High Prestige	___	___	___	___	___	Low Prestige

PART II-A

Consecutive Clothing Shopping Behavior

1. What form of transportation do you use when you purchase dresses and slacks?

   ____Walk ____Bus ____Taxi ____Drive ____Ride with friend

   ____Other (list)

   ____

   ____

   ____

2. What store do you usually buy your dresses or slacks?____________

3. How far is this store from your home?__________________

4. What other stores do you usually visit when buying a new dress or slack?

   _________, _________, _________
   2 3 4

5. How far are the other stores you shop at from your home?

   2nd _________

   3rd _________

   4th _________

PART II-B Reasons for Clothing Store Choice

Please indicate the importance of each factor below that could affect your decision as to where to shop for dresses and slacks.

Please circle the appropriate number:

	Very Unimportant	Somewhat Unimportant	Neither	Somewhat Important	Very Important
Close to home	1	2	3	4	5
Close to other stores you shop in	1	2	3	4	5
Availability of parking	1	2	3	4	5
Large selection of styles	1	2	3	4	5
Selection of Nationally advertised brands	1	2	3	4	5
Quality of Merchandise	1	2	3	4	5
Knowledgeable sales people	1	2	3	4	5
Friendliness of sales personnel	1	2	3	4	5
Good value for price	1	2	3	4	5
Low prices	1	2	3	4	5
Store cleanliness	1	2	3	4	5
Ease of movement through store	1	2	3	4	5
Credit availability	1	2	3	4	5
Black owned and managed	1	2	3	4	5
Prestigious reputation	1	2	3	4	5
Friends shop there	1	2	3	4	5
Informative advertising	1	2	3	4	5

Consumer Clothing Purchase Behavior

PART III-A

Please indicate how important each of the following product characteristics are to you when you purchase dresses and slacks.

Circle the appropriate number:

	Very Unimportant	Somewhat Unimportant	Neither	Somewhat Important	Very Important
Latest style	1	2	3	4	5
Manufacturers' brands (e.g. Bobby Brooks)	1	2	3	4	5
Quality	1	2	3	4	5
Prices	1	2	3	4	5
Fashion	1	2	3	4	5
Prestige	1	2	3	4	5
Warranty on clothes	1	2	3	4	5

PART III-B

I am interested in determining the number of times you have purchased particular name dresses and slacks within the last two years. Please estimate the number of times you have purchased the following brands of dresses and slacks within the last two years:

_____Sedgefield

_____Aldman's

_____College Town

_____Spiegel

_____Panther

_____Miller's

_____Videl

_____Wards

_____Villager

_____J. C. Penney

_____Sasson

_____Ups and Downs

PART III-B Continued

_____Jonathan Logan _____Bobby Brooks

_____Proffitt's _____Sear's

Other, Please specify brand and number of times purchased within the last two years.

____

PART IV:

I am interested in the importance of various advertising and other information that could affect your decision as to where to shop and possibly purchase dresses and slacks. Please circle the number indicating the importance of each source to you. For example, if you feel that information from your past experience is very important in your selection of stores, you would circle 5 or if very unimportant, circle 1.

	Very Unimportant	Somewhat Unimportant	Neither	Somewhat Important	Very Important
Billboards	1	2	3	4	5
Television	1	2	3	4	5
Newspaper ads	1	2	3	4	5
Magazine ads	1	2	3	4	5
Radio ads	1	2	3	4	5
Window displays	1	2	3	4	5
Ads in the mail	1	2	3	4	5
Friends	1	2	3	4	5
Your spouse	1	2	3	4	5
Your children	1	2	3	4	5
Your past experience	1	2	3	4	5
Relatives	1	2	3	4	5

Classification Information

PART V:

Instructions: Please answer yes or no to the following questions. If you are not certain about the question, circle "not sure".

1. I feel that most people tend to live from day to day rather than plan for the future. Yes No Not Sure

2. Children should accept problems that face them rather than attempt to solve them. Yes No Not Sure

3. I would rather spend my money today and enjoy it rather than save for the future. Yes No Not Sure

4. I feel that Knoxvillians can better improve their quality of life by getting together helping one another rather than relying on government aid. Yes No Not Sure

5. What is your marital status?

   ___Single ___Separated ___Married ___Divorced ___Widowed

6. What is your highest level of education?

___0-6 years
___7-8 years
___9th, 10th, 11th grade
___high school graduate
___1-3 years college
___college graduate
___graduate study

7. What is your spouse's highest level of education?

___0-6 years
___7-8 years
___9th, 10th, 11th grade
___high school graduate
___1-3 years college
___college graduate
___graduate study

8. Which of the categories below includes your occupation?

___Student

___Retired (please indicate type of job retired from)

___Retail Clerk

___Military (specify rank)

___Farm Owner

___Housewife

___Machine or vehicle operator

___Manager/proprietor/official

___Clerical/office worker

___Professional/technical

___Skilled-Semi-skilled worker

___Service worker

___Other (please specify)

____

9. Which of the categories below includes your spouse's occupation?

___Student

___Retired (please indicate type of job retired from)

___Retail Clerk

___Military (specify rank)

___Farm Owner

___Housewife

___Machine or vehicle operator

___Manager/proprietor/official

___Clerical/office worker

___Professional/technical

___Skilled-Semi-skilled worker

___Service worker

___Other (please specify)

____

10. What year were you born in? ____________________________

11. Which of the categories below includes your total household income before taxes? (all income from household members)

___$3,000 or less

___$3,001-$6,000

___$6,001-$9,000

___$9,001-$12,000

___$12,001-$15,000

___$15,001-$18,000

___$18,001-$21,000

___more than $21,000

12. Please circle below the number of children in each age group who reside in your household. If you have none residing in your household, please circle the zeroes in each age group.

Age	Number			
0-4	0	1	2	3 or more
5-9	0	1	2	3 or more
10-14	0	1	2	3 or more
15-19	0	1	2	3 or more
20 or older	0	1	2	3 or more

13. Which of the following type housing best identifies your dwelling place?

___Own home

___rent home

___rent apartment

___own condominium

___Own mobile home

___rent mobile home

___Other (please specify)

UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE

Consumer Clothing Questionnaire

Interviewers' Instructions

"I am interested in understanding the reasons why you shop for and/or purchase branded name dresses and slacks."

Consumer Perceptions and Perceived Knowledge of Clothing

PART I-A:

"I would like to know how familiar you are with brands of dresses and slacks. Please check your degree of familiarity with the following brands".

Give Respondent Page 1

"Now, would you please sort these cards with the names of the brands you just read into 'High priced' and 'Medium priced' stacks".

Give Respondent card stack

Place rubber band around each stack and record position on page 2.

PART I-B

"I am also interested in your impression of national manufacturers' brands of dresses and slacks such as Bobby Brooks versus store brands such as Sears. Please check the space that most closely matches your impression with the listed qualities of the brands".

Give Respondent page 3

PART II-A Consumer Clothing Shopping Behavior

"Now I would like to ask you some questions regarding the way you shop for dresses and slacks".

Give Respondent page 4

1. What form of transportation do you use when you purchase dresses and slacks?

2. What store do you usually buy your dresses and slacks?

3. How far is this store from your home?

4. What other stores do you usually visit when buying a new dress or slack?

5. How far are the other stores you shop at from your home?

PART II-B Reasons for Clothing Store Choice

"I am also interested in the importance of certain factors affecting your decision as to where to shop for dresses and slacks." Please circle the appropriate number".

Give Respondent page 5

The Black owned and managed factor appears on the page 5 "black" questionnaire only.

PART III-A Consumer Clothing Purchase Behavior

"I would like to also know the importance of certain product characteristics to you when you purchase dresses and slacks".

Give Respondent page 6

Please circle the appropriate number.

PART III-B

"I am also interested in determining the number of times you have purchased particular name dresses and slacks. In Part III-B at the bottom of page six, please estimate the number of times you have purchased the following brands of dresses and slacks within the last two years". Insert the numbers in the blanks by the brands.

PART IV

"I am interested in the importance of advertising and other information that could affect your decision as to where to shop and possibly purchase dresses and slacks.

Give Respondent page 7

"Please circle the number indicating the importance of each source to you".

PART V

"You've been very patient in answering my questions. We've now come to the last part of the questionnaire. I'd like to ask you a few questions about yourself to help me analyze the questionnaire. I assure you that all your answers will be kept strictly confidential".

"At the bottom of page 7, we have four questions about life in general. Will you please circle "yes" or "no" to the questions. If you are uncertain about a question, circle "not sure".

Give Respondent page 8

"Please check the appropriate blanks as I read off the following questions".

5. What is your marital status?
6. What is your highest level of education?
7. What is your spouse's highest level of education?
8. Which of the categories below includes your occupation?
9. Which of the categories below includes your spouse's occupation?
10. What year were you born in?

11. Which of the categories below includes your total household income before taxes? (all income from household members)

12. Please circle below the number of children in each age group who reside in your household. If you have none residing in your household, please circle the zeroes in each age group.

13. Which of the following type housing best identifies your dwelling place?

That completes my survey. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

APPENDIX II

Black Tracts*	%black
1. 0005..........	34.1
2. 0006..........	96.4
3. 0007..........	99.0
4. 0012..........	71.9
5. 0013..........	55.5
6. 0019..........	21.6
7. 0020..........	90.3
8. 0021..........	43.0
9. 0028..........	38.1
10. 0032..........	19.7
Total	569.6

White Tracts	%black	White Tracts	%black
1. 0001..........	6.7	24. 0034..........	0.1
2. 0002..........	1.6	25. 0035..........	5.3
3. 0003..........	4.1	26. 0036..........	8.7
4. 0004..........	11.0	27. 0037..........	1.7
5. 0008..........	0	28. 0038..........	3.8
6. 0009..........	2.3	29. 0039..........	0.2
7. 0010..........	0.9	30. 0040..........	0
8. 0011..........	1.3	31. 0041..........	0.1
9. 0014..........	6.8	32. 0042..........	0
10. 0015..........	0.1	33. 0043..........	7.5
11. 0016..........	0.2	34. 0044..........	4.0
12. 0017..........	2.8	35. 0045..........	0.5
13. 0018..........	2.7	36. 0046..........	0.2
14. 0022..........	1.6	37. 0047..........	0
15. 0023..........	0	38. 0048..........	0
16. 0024..........	1.6	39. 0049..........	0
17. 0025..........	0.8	40. 0050..........	0.3
18. 0026..........	0.4	41. 0051..........	0
19. 0027..........	0.4	42. 0052..........	0
20. 0029..........	2.3	43. 0053..........	NI**
21. 0030..........	0	44. 0054..........	NI**
22. 0031..........	0.1	45. 0055..........	0
23. 0033..........	42.9	46. 0056..........	0
		47. 0057..........	0

SOURCE: Bureau of Census, Metropolitan Knoxville Census of Population Tract Data. PHC (1) Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1970, p. 3+ and pp. 41-44.

*The average percentage of blacks residing in black tracts is 57 percent. The average percentage of blacks residing in white tracts is 2.6 percent. **No information available

APPENDIX III A

Cluster Size for White Tracts

opt. white

n = 150 families

opt. = $(C_1/C_2\ (1-p/p)^{1/2}$

Assuming C_1 PSU set up = 8 hrs.

C_2 interview cost = .5 hr.

$p = .15$

Then: $16\ (.85/.15)^{1/2} = 9.4$ Cluster size

$\frac{150}{10}$ = 15 clusters of 10 each

Therefore, a probability proportionate to size cluster sampling technique, stratified by income, was used to select 15 white tracts. Thereafter, two blocks from each tract were selected. Five households in each block were randomly selected. Hence, we had a sample of 150 white households to be interviewed.

APPENDIX III B

Selection of Knoxville's White Tracts

	Tracts[1]	Median[2] $Income	Number of Family households	Cumulative Total	Selected Tracts
1.	0014	3,906	1,216	1,216	X128
2.	0002	3,921	566	1,782	
3.	0001	4,214	140	1,922	
4.	0011	4,388	744	2,666	X2496
5.	0003	4,940	803	3,469	
6.	0004	5,548	365	3,834	
7.	0010	5,610	315	4,149	
8.	0026	6,355	887	5,036	X4864
9.	0024	6,394	978	6,014	
10.	0008	6,466	709	6,723	
11.	0017	6,935	1,108	7,831	X7,232
12.	0015	6,973	1,394	9,225	
13.	0043	7,035	454	9,679	X9,600
14.	0029	7,445	855	10,534	
15.	0027	7,592	912	11,446	
16.	0057	7,611	39	11,485	
17.	0023	7,939	1,254	12,739	X11,968
18.	0056	8,000	30	12,769	
19.	0037	8,057	1,310	14,079	
20.	0016	8,074	1,061	15,140	X14,336
21.	0022	8,239	1,368	16,508	
22.	0040	8,379	879	17,387	X16,704
23.	0030	8,492	1,283	18,670	
24.	0050	8,520	1,115	19,785	X19,072
25.	0018	9,123	859	20,644	
26.	0041	9,218	1,326	21,970	X21,440
27.	0046	9,424	525	22,495	
28.	0038	9,459	972	23,467	
29.	0039	9,465	1,588	25,055	X23,808
30.	0048	9,936	937	25,992	
31.	0034	10,325	1,315	27,307	X26,176
32.	0051	10,586	482	27,789	
33.	0031	10,765	1,489	29,278	X28,544
34.	0042	11,000	1,218	30,496	

[1]Tracts #'s 0035, 0036, 0052, 0054 and 0055 were not included because no census income data was provided. This also applies to Tract 0053.

[2]Median income and household data from: Bureau of Census, Metropolitan Knoxville Census of Population Tract Data, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1970, 1970, p. 3+.

APPENDIX III B Continued

		Median $Income	Number of Family households	Cumulative Total	Selected Tracts
35.	0049	11,164	608	31,104	X30,912
36.	0044	11,582	1,166	32,270	
37.	0047	12,059	760	33,030	
38.	0009	12,136	157	33,187	
39.	0033	14,923	162	33,349	X33,280
40.	0045	16,921	977	34,326	
41.	0025	20,820	1,187	35,513	

$$\frac{35{,}513}{15 \text{ clusters}} = 2{,}368 \text{ sampling interval}$$

A random start r was selected between 1 and 2,368 using four-digit numbers from a random number table. The random start used was to begin in the left hand corner and read down and then across. The first three numbers were ignored because they were too large. Number 0128 was selected. The computation of selected numbers is:

$$\begin{aligned}
r &= 128 \\
r + s &= 2{,}496 \\
r + 2s &= 4{,}864 \\
r + 3s &= 7{,}232 \\
r + 4s &= 9{,}600 \\
r + 5s &= 11{,}968 \\
r + 6s &= 14{,}336 \\
r + 7s &= 16{,}704 \\
r + 8s &= 19{,}072 \\
r + 9s &= 21{,}440 \\
r + 10s &= 23{,}808 \\
r + 11s &= 26{,}176 \\
r + 12s &= 28{,}544 \\
r + 13s &= 30{,}912 \\
r + 14s &= 33{,}280
\end{aligned}$$

APPENDIX III C

Selection of Knoxville's White Blocks

T0014

s = 4987/2 = 2494 interval
r = 1133
r + s = 3627

B #304
B #402

T0017

s = 3960/2 = 1980 interval
r = 372
r + s = 2352

B #109
B #406

T0016

s = 3808/2 = 1904
r = 890
r + s = 2794

B #206
B #405

T0041

s = 4444/2 = 2222 interval
r = 1776
r + s = 3998

B #211
B #312

T0031

s = 5218/2 = 2609 interval
r = 2382
r + s = 4991

B #301
B #901

T0011

s = 4022/2 = 2011 interval
r = 128
r + s = 2139

B #115
B #311

T0043

s = 2325/2 = 1163 interval
r = 35
r + s = 1198

B #101
B #206

T0040

s = 3019/2 = 1510 interval
r = 248
r + s = 1758

B #102
B #207

T0039

s = 5743/2 = 2872 interval
r = 1299
r + s = 4171

B #205
B #402

T0049

s = 2870/2 = 1435 interval
r = 794
r + s = 2229

B #109
B #209

APPENDIX III C Continued

T0026

s = 3102/2 = 1551 interval
r = 1386
r + s = 2937

B #209
B #418

T0050

s = 4201/2 = 2101 interval
r = 465
r + s = 2566

B #102
B #302

T0033

s = 666/2 = 333 interval

r = 121
r + s = 454

B #102
B #103

T0023

s = 3958/2 = 1979 interval
r = 1809
r + s = 3788

B #303
B #320

T0034

s = 4777/2 = 2389 interval
r = 1222
r + s = 3611

B #112
B #317

B = Blocks selected   T = Tract

APPENDIX III D

Selection of 30 Blocks from the Ten Black Tracts

<u>T0005</u>

s = 3374/3 = 1125 interval
r = 128
r + s = 1253
r + 2s = 2378

B #104
B #204
B #314

<u>T0006</u>

s = 4110/3 = 1370 interval
r = 1133
r + s = 2503
r + 2s = 3873

B #112
B #214
B #415

<u>T0012</u>

s = 4157/3 = 1386 interval
r = 372
r + s = 1758
r + 2s = 3144

B #108
B #202
B #305

<u>T0013</u>

s = 2643/3 = 881 interval
r = 591
r + s = 1472
r + 2s = 2353

B #206
B #308
B #412

<u>T0020</u>

s = 5232/3 = 1744 interval
r = 35
r + s = 1779
r + 2s = 3523

B #101
B #217
B #417

<u>T0021</u>

s = 2909/3 = 970 interval
r = 895
r + s = 1865
r + 2s = 2835

B #113
B #126
B #217

<u>T0007</u>

s = 1030/3 = 343 interval
r = 138
r + s = 481
r + 2s = 824

B #101 (10 households)
B #416

<u>T0019</u>

s = 2648/3 = 883 interval
r = 593
r + s = 1476
r + 2s = 2359

B #212
B #406
B #509

APPENDIX III D Continued

T0028

s = 4668/3 = 1556 interval
r = 890
r + s = 2446
r + 2s = 4002

B #118
B #310
B #414

T0032

s = 3770/3 = 1257 interval
r = 248
r + s = 1505
r + 2s = 2762

B #109
B #211
B #313

Five households were selected in each block with the exception of B #101 in tract seven (7) where ten (10) households were interviewed. This block had 69% of the tracts' population.

T = Tract B = Blocks selected

VITA

James R. Smith was born August 11, 1944 in Athens, Georgia. He received his B.S. degree in business administration from Savannah State College at Savannah, Georgia in 1966 and an M.B.A. degree in marketing from Atlanta University at Atlanta, Georgia in 1967. He has been employed as an assistant professor of marketing at Jackson State University in Jackson, Mississippi since 1970. Since 1974, he has been on leave from Jackson State University to study toward the doctor of business administration at the University of Tennessee. The 1977 year of his doctoral studies was interrupted when he returned to Jackson State University to resume full time professional teaching in the marketing discipline. In 1978, Mr. Smith resumed inhouse matriculation at the University of Tennessee at Knoxville, Tennessee to write his dissertation.

As a doctoral student, he was awarded a W. W. Kellogg Foundation Fellowship from his employed institution; and a graduate teaching assistantship and scholarship from the University of Tennessee. Mr. Smith is single.