The Effects of Psychological Home and Place Attachment on Life Satisfaction in Women of Color

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The Effects of Psychological Home and Place Attachment on Life Satisfaction in Women of Color

A Thesis
Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Masters of Art of Psychology

By Kendall P. Crum
March 19, 2018

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Acknowledgments

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A special thanks to my husband, Carl Crum, for his support throughout this process. You have believed in me from the beginning and are always there when I need you. My daughter, Linden, has been with me throughout this entire process and I hope I inspire you to achieve your goals in the future. Lastly, a very special thanks to my mom, Deanna Pritchard. She is my original cheerleader and biggest supporter. I would not be here without her I am proud to be her daughter.
Biography

Kendall Crum (formerly Kendall Reid-Webster) was born in Miami, Florida, April 18, 1982. She graduated from South Plantation High School in Plantation, Florida. She received her Bachelor of Science degree in Psychology from Georgia State University in 2003, and her Master of Science degree in Professional Counseling from Georgia State University in 2007.
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Abstract

The cognitive judgments individuals make to evaluate their quality of life (i.e. life satisfaction), are vital to understanding how individuals perceive their overall well-being. Predictors, such as, gender, ethnicity, and external environmental factors may influence life satisfaction. Few studies examined the relations between psychological home, place attachment, and life satisfaction. The present study was the first to examine these concepts in women of color. For the present study, data were taken from a larger nationwide study of 1,394 adults (M = 53.94 years old) examining the relationship between home, clutter, and well-being. The current study explored the influence of psychological home on life satisfaction, among 99 adult women of color (M = 50.33 years old), after accounting for resource (i.e., annual household income, homeownership status, and relationship status) and contextual (i.e., type of dwelling, number of people in household, and years in residence) variables. Additionally, the effects of place attachment and clutter on psychological home and life satisfaction were examined. Hierarchical regression analyses revealed that psychological home was a significant predictor of life satisfaction over and above resource and contextual variables. Place attachment and clutter did not moderate the relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction. However, clutter mediated the relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction. More research is needed to better understand these processes in woman of color. The implications for community psychology, limitations of the current study, and future directions are discussed.
Introduction

Inquiry into what makes people healthy, happy, and prosperous has been taking place as long as people pondered the essence of human existence. There are a variety of factors one may use to judge if they are satisfied with the circumstances in their life. For instance, the quality of relationships, gainful employment or unemployment, and the state of one's physical and mental health all provide an indication of one's quality of life. Judgements about these and other criteria vary based on individual characteristics and preferences.

To better understand the similarities and differences in how satisfied individuals are with their life, researchers studied how gender, ethnicity, and numerous other variables affect levels of life satisfaction (Giusta, Jewell, & Kambhampati, 2011; Kirmanoglu & Baslevent, 2014). Results were mixed about whether women experience higher levels of life satisfaction than men (Giusta, Jewell, & Kambhampati, 2011). However, ethnic minority members have lower life satisfaction levels, such that persons belonging in a minority ethnic group tend to experience stressful life events more frequently than the majority population (Kirmanoglu & Baslevent, 2014). Consequently, it is important to investigate these differences to better understand the predictors and processes that contribute to life satisfaction. The current study focuses on examining life satisfaction among women of color.

Subjective Well-Being and Life Satisfaction: Similar, But Not Identical

Many researchers attempted to answer questions concerning how people view their life, such as “What contributes to good health,” “What makes people happy,” and “What contributes to a good life?” This broad range of inquiry falls under the umbrella of subjective well-being (SWB; Busseri, 2015). Over the past three decades, SWB has been widely studied in psychology, consumer behavior, sociology, political science, public health and anthropology. For instance, in consumer behavior, materialism has been related to SWB (Iyer & Muncy, 2016). Research
showed individuals who are more materialistic and have a passion for new products reported lower levels of SWB than individuals who are less materialistic and less passionate about new products (Burroughs & Rindfleisch, 2002; Oropesa, 1995). Another example is the relationship between poverty and SWB. Lever, Pinol, and Uralde (2005) found poverty directly affects SWB, but also indirectly promoted attitudes and behaviors that have a significant impact on SWB. Essentially, most research focused on what factors hinder or enhance SWB, and what processes underlie the concept of SWB.

SWB refers to people’s overall evaluation of their lives and emotional experiences (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). Diener et al. (1985) suggested SWB was a multidimensional construct comprised of three components: positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction. More specifically, enhanced subjective well-being consists of higher levels of positive affect, lower levels of negative affect, and greater life satisfaction (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005). For instance, most research focused on the correlates and predictors of individual differences in each of the three SWB components (Eid & Larsen, 2008). Research suggested more frequent positive affect, less frequent negative affect, and higher life satisfaction were associated with higher income, higher levels of education, higher self-esteem, stronger interpersonal bonds, and less physical impairment and illness (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999; Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, & Schkade, 2005; Pressman & Cohen, 2005).

Furthermore, research provided compelling evidence that at the national and societal level, nations and societies with higher SWB have higher standards of living, greater economic prosperity, more positive population-health indicators, more access to democratic procedures, and were more peaceful compared to countries with lower SWB (Diener, Kesebir, & Lucas, 2008; Diener & Lucas, 2000; Diener & Tov, 2007; Dolan & White, 2006). Results of this
research impacted individual and group level outcomes, as well as impacted and informed social policy and reform (Cummins, Eckersley, Pallant, Van Vugt, & Misajon, 2003; Diener, Lucas, Schimmack, & Helliwell, 2009). For example, policymakers are investing in the creation and monitoring of “national accounts” of SWB to guide and inform the impact of social policy and reforms (Cummins, Eckersley, Pallant, Van Vugt, & Misajon, 2003; Diener, Lucas, Schimmack, & Helliwell, 2009). Considering the amount of research conducted by a variety of disciplines, SWB is a vital part of understanding the human experience.

SWB might be considered a theoretical construct with an extensive area of inquiry. For instance, in positive psychology SWB is commonly referred to as “happiness” (Diener & Lucas, 2000). Additionally, other fields use SWB as an indicator of quality of life. Research on SWB suggests people rate happiness and life satisfaction as more important than money (Pavot, Diener, Colvin, & Sandvik, 1991). Additionally, high SWB may yield many good outcomes. For example, people who are high in long-term average positive emotions (i.e. happy) seem to be more sociable and creative, they live longer, they have higher incomes, they make more money, and are better citizens in their workplace (Larsen, Diener, & Lucas, 2002). Religious people also tend to experience higher SWB; more specifically, participation in religious services, relationship with God, and prayer have all been associated with higher SWB (Ferriss, 2002). Further, universal factors such as democratic governance, human rights, and longevity seem to be related to high SWB throughout different cultures (Diener, Diener, & Diener, 1995).

There have been many attempts to define, conceptualize, operationalize, and analyze SWB. Unfortunately, there is still no single, agreed upon approach to researching SWB. Opposing viewpoints surround the interpretation of life events based personality and the effects of life events regardless of personality (Diener & Ryan, 2008). The general debate concerns
whether SWB is defined as a trait (i.e., a stable personality characteristic) or a state (i.e., varying in response to external circumstances and contexts; Diener & Ryan, 2008). Explanation for SWB as a trait suggests individuals with high SWB have a predisposition to react positively rather than feeling happy (Diener & Ryan, 2008). Conversely, SWB as a state suggests higher levels of SWB are caused by a collection of happy moments, events, and contexts individuals are exposed to (Diener & Ryan, 2008). However, the theoretical construct and components of SWB (i.e., positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction) are well established and the structure and relationship between the components has been widely explored.

Brief, Butcher, George, and Link (1993) identified two types of theories to describe SWB, *top-down* and *bottom-up*. Top-down theories suggest that individuals are predisposed to experiences and their personalities cause them to react in positive or negative ways and personality will influence the perception of life events (Brief et al., 1993; Diener & Ryan, 2008). Regardless of the situation or experience, some individuals are generally happy and others are generally unhappy. While this approach does take individual-level factors into considerations, it does not account for environmental or contextual factors. In fact, it suggests that the emotional components of SWB (i.e., positive and negative affect) are the primary determinants of SWB. Bottom-up theories suggest that higher levels of SWB are derived from the summation of pleasurable and unpleasurable situations and experiences (Brief et al., 1993; Diener & Ryan, 2008). Therefore, happy individuals are happy because they have many happy moments and experiences. This theoretical orientation asserts that life satisfaction is a combination of contentment in many different areas (e.g., financial situation, marriage, and housing; Brief et al., 1993). This approach suggests people, regardless of their personality, have the capability to experience happiness based on their circumstances.
**Life Satisfaction.** The first two components of SWB, positive and negative affect, refer to the affective aspects of SWB. The third component, *life satisfaction*, is a cognitive process of judgement through which individuals evaluate the quality of their life according to their own criteria (Diener et al., 1985). Diener et al. (1999) suggested even though different components of SWB generally were intercorrelated, each component should be studied in its own right. Judgements of satisfaction depend on how individuals compare their present life circumstances to a standard they have set for themselves, not an externally imposed standard (Diener et al., 1985). This approach is an important distinction from other global measures of SWB or criterion deemed important by researchers. This is especially the case when the focus is on people of diverse ethnic backgrounds, who may have different values and perceptions of what defines a “good life.”

Life satisfaction seems to be heavily influenced by factors used to systematically evaluate one’s life, such as health, income, and the quality of one’s work (Schimmack & Oishi, 2005). Additionally, research suggested personality, personal circumstances, and external environments might influence life satisfaction (Giusta et al., 2011). Standards for life satisfaction vary across cultures, but these standards are associated with an individual's needs and salient cultural values (Arellano-Morales, Liang, Ruiz, & Rios-Oropeza, 2016). Discrimination and other processes affect an individual’s life satisfaction. African American and Latinos report less life satisfaction than European Americans because of discrimination (Arellano-Morales et al., 2016). As previously mentioned, there is disagreement regarding gender differences in life satisfaction. While some studies have found women to have higher levels of life satisfaction than men, others have found no difference, and others have found women are less satisfied than men (Giusta et al.,
Since standards for life satisfaction vary across cultures and gender, it is important to understand how different factors and processes affect different ethnicities.

The Meaning of Home: An Ecological Perspective

*Home* is an abstract concept with a wide set of meanings and associations (Moore, 2000). The field of environmental psychology studied the meaning of home for over two decades. Research examined home as a physical structure, territory, as locus in space, as reflective of self and self-identity, and as a social and cultural unit (Moore, 2000). In psychological research, the emotional bonds between people and the places they consider home is the primary focus. There are many psychological benefits of home. Home provides comfort, social needs and physiological needs (Moore, 2000). People’s relationship to their living environment plays a key role in their well-being (Gattino, De Piccoli, Fassio, & Rollero, 2013).

In line with bottom-up theories, an ecological approach would include taking into account contextual and environmental variables when investigating the factors that underlie life satisfaction. More specifically, how contextual variables contribute to the meaning and interpretation of home. Increasing health by investigating contextual factors that foster well-being and protect individuals is of interest to community psychologists (Gattino et al., 2013). Further, individuals’ perception of their living environment reflects the initial questions of life satisfaction and overall well-being (Gattino, 2013). As mentioned earlier, minority racial groups, compared to majority groups, experienced more stressful life events that might impact their life satisfaction. Additionally, women compared to men evaluated life satisfaction differently. Therefore, it is important to better understand how contextual variables impact life satisfaction among women of color. The present study will be an initial assessment of SWB among this racial minority gender group.
The Role of Psychological Home in Life Satisfaction

Sigmon, Whitcomb, & Snyder (2002) defined psychological home as a sense of belonging in which self-identity is tied to a particular place (p. 11). Therefore, an individual’s interaction with their physical space might be a reflection of their self-identity, leading them to create a psychological home that they will benefit from on multiple levels (Sigmon et al., 2002). Furthermore, psychological home is a reflection of an underlying motive that is driven by an individual’s psychological need to identify a sense of self with a physical location (Sigmon et al., 2002). The word “home” is widely used in most vernaculars, yet it takes on many meanings and interpretations dependent upon one’s culture and ethnicity (Moore, 2000). The commonalities between the meanings are an emotional experience in conjunction with energy expressed towards one's physical surroundings (Sigmon et al., 2002).

Many different disciplines have looked at “home” through a variety of lenses. Environmental psychology, social psychology, and consumer sciences have explored the meaning of home in an attempt to better understand the importance of home for individuals. Taking that into consideration, it is clear that there is an underlying psychological process happening when one uses the word “home.” Psychological home takes into account the cognitive, affective, and behavioral aspects of an individual (Sigmon et al., 2002). The cognitive components of psychological home include attributions about self in relation to the environment, the meaning and beliefs about home, and one's self theory in relation to home (Sigmon et al., 2002). The affective components of psychological home include feelings of security, warmth, attachment, consistency, identity, and familiarity (Sigmon et al., 2002). The behavioral components of psychological home include the actions of construction, manipulation, flexibility, maintenance, and personalization of an individual's surroundings (Sigmon et al., 2002).
Psychological home also encompasses manifestation (i.e., how psychological home is expressed) and functional (i.e., the benefits and liabilities of psychological home) components (Sigmon et al., 2002). Individuals express psychological home by expending more time and energy surrounding themselves with things that reinforce who they are and may quickly re-establish home-like environments (Sigmon et al., 2002). In turn, psychological home provides security, safety, protection, and privacy (Sigmon et al., 2002). Both manifestation and functional components offer a thorough explanation for how an individual’s level of psychological home affects multiple levels of their life. Yet, although psychological home explains how an individual may interact and manipulate their physical space, it does not predict time, circumstances, or specific behaviors.

Currently, two studies explored psychological home in relation to subjective well-being and place attachment. Taken together, these two studies suggested individuals who have higher levels of psychological home reported higher levels of subjective well-being and lower negative affect (Cicognani, 2011; Roster, Ferrari, & Jurkat, 2015; Sigmon et al., 2002). In addition, individuals who have higher levels of place attachment tend to also have higher levels of psychological home (Roster et al., 2015). The present study will examine the role of psychological home in predicting life satisfaction among women of color.

Impact of Clutter

Individuals suffering from chronic disorganization have a past history of disorganization, which self-help efforts to change have failed, a diminished quality of life due to disorganization, and the expectation of future disorganization (Institute for Challenging Disorganization, 2017). In extreme cases, excessive disorganization and clutter are indicative of hoarding disorder. Hoarding disorder is the persistent acquisition of and failure to discard possessions, regardless of
the value attributed to the possessions (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Furthermore, individuals with hoarding disorder have difficulty parting with possessions and the resulting clutter that interferes with the ability to use rooms in one’s home (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). These behaviors cause significant distress and impairment. Frost and Hartl (1996) found that individuals with excessive clutter were unable to use the living areas of their homes for intended purposes due to excessive clutter, had limited access to furniture, difficulty preparing food, and unsanitary living conditions (Frost, 2010). Additionally, hoarding is associated with low subjective and objective quality of life measures (Saxena et al., 2011). The present study will examine the potentially negative impact of clutter on psychological home and life satisfaction.

The Role of Place Attachment in Life Satisfaction

*Place* in psychology focuses on the variety of meanings and emotions associated with a location by individuals or groups (Devine-Wright, 2009). The meanings of place are important as are individual’s personal relationships with different places (Anton & Lawrence, 2014). People with higher place attachment report greater social and political involvement in their communities (Anton & Lawrence, 2014) and communities comprised of highly attached people are more likely to work together to achieve a desired outcome (Brown, Reed, & Harris, 2002). Additionally, place attachment is correlated with environmentally responsible behavior (Vaske & Corbin, 2001) and advocacy for the environment (Brown & Raymond, 2007).

*Place attachment* is a process through which individuals create and define self-identity through repeated personal, social, and cultural interactions with special places over time that reinforce affective connections, beliefs, and self-identity (Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989). Additionally, place attachment reflects bonds attributed to places that permit the pursuit of self-
oriented goals in a manner that is superior to other alternatives (Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989). There is a distinction between emotional or symbolic attachments to a place and functional or physical attachments. These two components of place attachment are *place identity* and *place dependence*.

*Place identity* is an emotional attachment to a specific location (Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989). It emphasizes the symbolic importance of a place as a medium for emotions and relationships that give meaning and purpose to life. Place identity may enhance feelings of belonging to one’s community and it involves a psychological investment with a place that tends to develop over time (Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989). *Place dependence* is a functional attachment to a specific location (Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989). It reflects the importance of a place in providing features and conditions that meet an individual's needs and support specific goals or desired activities (Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989). Functional attachment is manifested in the area’s physical characteristics. Place dependence tends to precede place identity; a place meets a person's needs so they become dependent on it and tends to stay there.

Place attachment has been linked with many positive outcomes. Individuals with higher place attachment, have better quality of life, better physical and psychological health, more satisfying social relationships, and greater satisfaction with one’s physical environment (Tartaglia, 2012). Further, place attachment encourages greater freedom of behavior, exploration, confidence, and affective responsiveness within the local community (Fried, 2000). The present study will examine the role of place attachment in predicting life satisfaction among women of color.
Rationale

The literature on subjective well-being can be divided into two categories focusing on (1) the impact of emotions and personality (i.e., positive and negative affect) and (2) the cognitive judgements individuals make to evaluate their quality of life (i.e., life satisfaction). Life satisfaction is integral to understanding how individuals perceive their overall well-being. Research on life satisfaction has focused on the processes that underlie and the predictors that influence life satisfaction. As the preceding research indicates, predictors such as, gender, ethnicity, and external environments may influence life satisfaction. Fewer studies have examined specific processes and their impact on life satisfaction. Moreover, previous research has produced conflicting results about the influence of these predictors and processes on life satisfaction. Psychological home and its potential effects on life satisfaction has been examined by very few researchers. To date, there are no studies that investigate the relation between psychological home and life satisfaction in women of color. Consequently, the impact of clutter on psychological home has not been investigated in women of color. Further, the relation between place attachment and psychological home in women of color has not been investigated.

The further study of how these predictors and processes influence life satisfaction in women of color may have implications for improving overall well-being and expanding understanding of how gender and ethnicity impact life satisfaction. Investigating psychological home, place attachment, and the role of clutter will improve our understanding of life satisfaction with the possibility of increasing life satisfaction in women of color. The proposed study examines the relations between psychological home, place attachment, and life satisfaction in women of color.
Statement of Hypothesis

Hypothesis I. Psychological home will predict life satisfaction, after accounting for resource variables (i.e., annual household income, homeownership status, and relationship status). It is expected that psychological home will serve as an indicator for life satisfaction over and above resource variables.

Hypothesis II. Psychological home will predict life satisfaction, after accounting for contextual variables (i.e., type of dwelling, number of people in household, and years in residence). It is expected that psychological home will serve as an indicator over and above environmental factors.

Hypothesis III. Place identity will moderate the relation between psychological home and life satisfaction. It is expected that higher levels of place identity will increase the strength of the positive relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis IV. Place dependence will moderate the relation between psychological home and life satisfaction. It is expected that higher levels of place dependence will increase the strength of the positive relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis V. Possession clutter will moderate the relation between psychological home and life satisfaction. It is expected that higher levels of possession clutter will decrease the strength of the positive relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction.

Research Question: How does clutter impact the relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction?
Method

Participants

The current study was derived from a previous data set ($N = 1394$; see Roster et al., 2016) examining the relationship between home, clutter, and well-being. For the current study however, 99 women of color with mild to severe issues with clutter were extracted as the sample. Participants ranged in age from 21 to 81 years old, with the mean age of 50.33 years ($SD = 11.99$). Participants identified as African American ($n = 28; 28.3\%$), American Indian ($n = 5; 5.1\%$), Asian American ($n = 17; 17.2\%$), Latina ($n = 27; 27.3\%$), and Other/non-white ($n = 22; 22.2\%$). Participants are residents of the U.S. or Canada. Because the sample used in this study is from a previous data set, a post hoc power analysis was conducted using G*Power 3.1 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). With an alpha level of 0.05, a sample size of $n = 99$, six predictors, and a desired large effect size of 0.35 (Cohen, 1988), achieved power for the study was 0.995.

Data were collected by the Institute for Challenging Disorganization (ICD). ICD is a non-profit organization whose mission is to provide resources for people challenged by chronic disorganization. Chronic disorganization describes disorganization that poses a problem for an individual that may be lifelong or brought on by a particular life event. ICD is primarily made up of professional organizers who typically own their own businesses and work with clients in their homes, helping them manage their disorganization and the complications that have arisen because of it. Additionally, ICD offers educational programs and training to become a Certified Professional Organizer in Chronic Disorganization.

Recruitment. Data were collected by an online survey posted on ICD’s website. An invitation from the researchers with a link to the survey was distributed by ICD to professional
organizers who work with individuals affected by chronic disorganization. Additionally, ICD-affiliated professional organizers were asked to promote the study to their clients by posting the link on their business webpages and/or forwarding the link to their clients through email or social media. Respondents were not compensated, and the survey was voluntary. The survey was available for five months (July - November).

Psychometric Scales

The survey instrument included all items proposed by scale authors. For the purposes of this study, only scales pertaining to life satisfaction, psychological home, place attachment, and possession clutter will be included.

**Life satisfaction.** Diener et al.’s (1985) 5-item *Satisfaction With Life Scale* (SWLS) is a widely used one-dimensional measure of global life satisfaction. The SWLS measure how an individual evaluates their life in terms of global judgment (i.e. life satisfaction or feelings of fulfillment) by evaluating the domains of their life (e.g. work) or their ongoing emotional feelings about what is happening to them (e.g. pleasant emotions, which arise from positive evaluations of one’s experiences). Participants will indicate the extent to which they agree with each item along a 7-point scale anchored by 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Sample items include “*The conditions of my life are excellent*” and “*I am satisfied with my life*” (Diener et al., 1985). Reliability studies yielded Cronbach’s alpha ranging from 0.82 to 0.87 (Diener et al., 1985). Participants life satisfaction scores will be calculated by summing the scores across the 5-item SWLS. The range of possible scores will be 5 (low) to 35 (high).

**Psychological home.** Sigmon et al.’s (2002) 8-item *Psychological Home Scale* is a one-dimensional measure assessing the level of psychological home an individual possesses. The psychological home scale was designed to measure the level of psychological home expressed in
an individual's environment and the benefits or liabilities a person receives from a relationship with a physical space. Participants will indicate the extent to which they agree with each item along a 7-point scale anchored by 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Sample items include “I put a lot of time and effort into making a home my own” and “I add personal touches to the place where I live” (Sigmon et al., 2002). Reliability studies yielded a Cronbach’s alpha ranging from 0.84 to 0.90. (Sigmon et al., 2002). Participants level of psychological home will be calculated by summing the scores across the 8-item Psychological home scale. The range of possible scores will be 8 (low) to 56 (high).

**Place attachment.** Williams and Roggenbuck’s (1989) 13-item Place Attachment Scale is a two-dimensional measure assessing the level of place identity and place dependence an individual associates with a specific place. The place attachment scale was designed to measure the intensity of the emotional bond between a person and a specifically targeted place (Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989). Participants will indicate the extent to which they agree with each item along a 5-point scale anchored by 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Sample items include “I feel like this place is a part of me” and “If I had been in another area my experience would have been the same” (Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989). Reliability studies yielded Cronbach alpha values ranging from .81 to .94 (Williams & Vaske, 2003). Place identity will be calculated by summing the scores on the place identity subscale and place dependence will be calculated by summing the scores on the place dependence subscale.

**Possession clutter.** The Clutter Quality of Life Scale (CQLS) was developed by ICD. It measures the negative impact of clutter on an individual’s life. Participants indicated the extent to which they agree with each item along a 7-point scale anchored by 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Sample items include “I don’t get to use spaces in my home the way I would
Participants possession clutter scores will be calculated by summing the scores across the 18-item CQLS. The range of possible scores will be 18 (low impact) to 126 (high impact).

**Social Desirability.** Reynolds’ (1982) 13-item, short form of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSD) will be used as a control variable. Social desirability influenced individuals to over-report desirable and under-report undesirable traits and behaviors across a wide range of contexts (Leite & Beretvas, 2005). Participants will respond to true/false statements about how they perceive themselves. Sample items include “I sometimes feel resentful when I don’t get my way” and “I’m always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.” Participants social desirability scores will be calculated by summing the scores across the 13 item MCSD. The range of possible scores will be 0 to 13, with higher scores representing an increased sense of social desirability in responding.

**Demographic questionnaire.** At the end of the survey, respondents were asked to answer several demographic questions, including age, relationship status, and annual household income. Age will also be used as control variable.

**Procedure**

Data were collected by an online survey posted on ICD’s website. After clicking on the link for the survey, the respondents completed a consent form. Consenting respondents answered two eligibility questions (i.e., age and country of residence). Ineligible respondents will be directed to the “thank you” close. The body of the survey contained five questions block. To avoid order effects, each question block was randomized in appearance to the respondents. At the end of the survey, respondents were asked to answer several demographic questions, including gender, age, location, and whether or not they own or are renting their current residence.
Respondents remained anonymous and forced answering was not used on any questions except for the consent form and eligibility questions.
Results

Preliminary Analyses and Missing Data

Data were evaluated for cases with excessive missing data and outliers. Missing values remaining in the valid sample were filled using mean imputation. Table 1 provides descriptive statistics for the measures used in the present study. The zero-order correlation matrix and the mean sum scores and their standard deviations for all study variables are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Intercorrelates and Mean Sum Scores for All Study Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>(SD)</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Psychological Home</td>
<td>43.72</td>
<td>(8.73)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Place Dependence</td>
<td>10.69</td>
<td>(3.89)</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Place Identity</td>
<td>12.99</td>
<td>(4.01)</td>
<td>.26**</td>
<td>.67**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Possession Clutter</td>
<td>80.28</td>
<td>(29.16)</td>
<td>-.38**</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Social Desirability</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>(2.74)</td>
<td>-.19</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>-.21*</td>
<td>.153</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Life Satisfaction</td>
<td>20.97</td>
<td>(8.19)</td>
<td>.42**</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>-.46**</td>
<td>-.24*</td>
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Note. N = 99, *p < .05, **p < .01. Values in brackets are coefficient alpha.

Hypothesis I. Psychological home will predict life satisfaction, after accounting for resource variables (i.e., annual household income, homeownership status, and relationship status). It is expected that psychological home will serve as an indicator for life satisfaction over and above resource variables.

A hierarchical regression analysis determined if psychological home predicted life satisfaction over and above resources variables. The results of the analysis, including values of change in $R^2 (\Delta R^2)$, along with unstandardized regression coefficients ($B$), standard errors ($SE B$), and standardized coefficients ($\beta$) for the predictor variables at each step, are presented in Table 2. There was linearity, as assessed by partial regression plots and a plot of studentized residuals against the predicted values. There was independence of residuals, as assessed by a
Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.79. There was homoscedasticity, as assessed by visual plot of studentized residuals versus unstandardized predicted values. There was no evidence of multicollinearity, as assessed by tolerance values greater than 0.1. There were no studentized deleted residuals greater than ±3 standard deviations, no leverage values greater than 0.2, and values for Cook’s distance above 1. There assumption of normality was met, as assessed by Q-Q Plot.

Table 2. Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Prediction of Life Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource Variables</th>
<th>At entry into model</th>
<th>Final model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>$\Delta R^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1 - Controls</td>
<td></td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Desirability</td>
<td>-.37</td>
<td>.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Household Income</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homeownership</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 4</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 5</td>
<td>.25**</td>
<td>.17**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. $N = 76$, *$p < .05$, **$p < .001$. $SE = $ standard error.

In the first step (see Table 2) of the regression analysis, age and social desirability were entered as control variables. Each of steps 2 (annual household income), 3 (homeownership status), and 4 (relationship status) were not significant. In step 5 however, psychological home was a significant predictor of life satisfaction $R = .50$, $R^2 = .25$, $\Delta R^2 = .17$, $F(6, 69) = 3.74$, $p < .01$. 
Hypothesis II. *Psychological home will predict life satisfaction, after accounting for contextual variables* (i.e., type of dwelling, number of people in household, and years in residence). *It is expected that psychological home will serve as an indicator for life satisfaction over and above environmental variables.*

A *hierarchical regression analysis* determined if psychological home predicted life satisfaction over and above contextual variables. The results of the analysis, including values of change in $R^2$ ($\Delta R^2$), along with unstandardized regression coefficients ($B$), standard errors ($SE$ $B$), and standardized coefficients ($\beta$) for the predictor variables at each step, are presented in Table 3. There was linearity as assessed by partial regression plots and a plot of studentized residuals against the predicted values. There was independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 2.07. There was homoscedasticity, as assessed by visual plot of studentized residuals versus unstandardized predicted values. There was no evidence of multicollinearity, as assessed by tolerance values greater than 0.1. There were no studentized deleted residuals greater than ±3 standard deviations, no leverage values greater than 0.2, and values for Cook’s distance above 1. There assumption of normality was met, as assessed by Q-Q Plot.

In the first step (see Table 3) of the regression analysis, age and social desirability were entered as control variables. Each of steps 2 (type of dwelling), 3 (number of people in household), and 4 (years in residence) were not significant. In step 5 however, psychological home was a significant predictor of life satisfaction $R = .50$, $R^2 = .26$, $\Delta R^2 = .14$, $F(6, 90) = 5.13$, $p < .001$. 
### Table 3. Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Prediction of Life Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contextual Variables</th>
<th>At entry into model</th>
<th>Final model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>$\Delta R^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 1 - Controls</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Desirability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Step 2</strong></td>
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<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Dwelling</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 3</strong></td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number in household</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 4</strong></td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years in residence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 5</strong></td>
<td>.26**</td>
<td>.14**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Home</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. N = 97, *$p < .05$, **$p < .001$. SE = standard error.*

**Hypothesis III.** Place Identity will moderate the relation between psychological home and life satisfaction. It is expected that higher levels of place identity will increase the strength of the positive relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction.

To examine Hypothesis III, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. Age and social desirability were entered in Step 1. In step 2, psychological home score was entered. In step 3, place identity score was entered. In step 4, a two way interaction between psychological home score and place identity score were entered. It was found that place identity did not serve as a moderator in the relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction.

**Hypothesis IV.** Place Dependence will moderate the relation between psychological home and life satisfaction. It is expected that higher levels of place dependence will increase the strength of the positive relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction.
In order to examine Hypothesis IV, a *hierarchical regression analysis* was conducted. Age and social desirability were entered in Step 1. In step 2, psychological home score was entered. In step 3, place dependence score was entered. In step 4, a two way interaction between psychological home score and place dependence score were entered. It was found that place dependence did not serve as a moderator in the relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis V. *Possession clutter will moderate the relation between psychological home and life satisfaction. It is expected that higher levels of possession clutter will decrease the strength of the positive relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction.*

To examine Hypothesis V, a *hierarchical regression analysis* was conducted. Age and social desirability were entered in Step 1. In step 2, psychological home score was entered. In step 3, possession clutter score was entered. In step 4, a two way interaction between psychological home score and possession clutter score were entered. It was found that possession clutter did not serve as a moderator in the relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction.

**Ancillary Analysis**

In order to address the impact of clutter on the relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction, a mediational analysis was conducted (see Figure 1). There was a significant indirect effect of psychological home on life satisfaction through possession clutter, $B = 0.121$, BCa CI [0.041, 0.241].
Figure 1. Possession clutter mediating relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction.
Discussion

The current study investigated the relationships between psychological home, place attachment, possession clutter, and life satisfaction in women of color. This study is unique in that very little research has examined the role of ethnicity and gender and its impacts on psychological home, place attachment, possession clutter, and life satisfaction (Cicognani, 2011; Roster et al., 2015). The current investigation examined these relationships in women of color and provided insight into the predictors and processes underlying life satisfaction. The present study suggested that psychological home positively predicted life satisfaction in women of color.

Hypothesis 1, proposed psychological home would predict life satisfaction after accounting for resources variables (i.e., annual household income, homeownership status, and relationship status). This hypothesis was supported. Income (Diener et al., 2002; Diner & Ryan, 2008), relationship status (Helliwell et al., 2009), and homeownership (Diaz-Serrano, 2009) have been found to contribute to higher levels of subjective well-being. However, in the present study these three variables did not account for a significant amount of variance in the model. Psychological home, in contrast, was a significant predictor of life satisfaction, over and above income, relationship status, and homeownership.

Hypothesis 2, proposed psychological home would predict life satisfaction after accounting for contextual variables (i.e., type of dwelling, number of people in household, and years in residence) was supported. Type of dwelling (Cicognani, 2011), social interaction (Diener & Ryan, 2008; Kahneman & Krueger, 2006), and length of time in a home (Shenk et al., 2004) contributed to higher levels of subjective well-being. However, in the present study these variables did not account for a significant amount of variance in the model. Psychological home alone, however, was a significant predictor of life satisfaction, over and type of dwelling, number of people in household, and years in residence. Together, results from these two findings are
consistent with previous research reporting a positive relation between psychological home and life satisfaction in women of color (Cicognani, 2011; Roster et al., 2015). Additionally, these findings suggested that psychological home is a better predictor of life satisfaction than specific resource and contextual variables. Results indicated the importance of better understanding psychological home and the role it plays in life satisfaction.

*Hypothesis 3*, proposed that place identity would moderate the relation between psychological home and life satisfaction. This hypothesis was not supported in the present study. Moreover, *Hypothesis 4*, proposed that place dependence would moderate the relation between psychological home and life satisfaction. This hypothesis also was not supported with the current sample of women of color. Taken together, place attachment does not seem to influence the relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction.

Results from *Hypothesis 3* and *Hypothesis 4* suggested while there are similarities between psychological home and place attachment, they are distinct constructs with different underlying processes. Previous studies showed a positive relationship between place attachment and life satisfaction (Roster et al., 2015). In the current study, there was a positive relationship with *place identity*, yet no significant relationship between *place dependence* and psychological home. Subsequently, neither place identity or place dependence affected the relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction. These results suggested with women color, the relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction is not affected by one’s place attachment. Perhaps, these results suggest a distinction between psychological home and place attachment, at least with this adult population.

In sum, results of the present study suggested psychological home and place attachment are similar, yet different concepts. That is, place attachment is a two-dimensional construct and
primarily involves geographical location and characteristics (Williams & Vaske, 2003). Place attachment is referring to the larger surrounding area, whereas psychological home is confined to an intimate space (REF, Snyder). In comparison to psychological home, place attachment is a broader construct. Psychological home is a limited, more defined space that can be more easily accessed and manipulated by an individual. Also, place attachment is fixed to a location whereas psychological home is mobile and flexible based on the context. The relationship between psychological home and place attachment should continue to be explored.

Hypothesis 5 proposed possession clutter moderates the relation between psychological home life satisfaction. This hypothesis was not supported. However, in the concomitant meditational analysis there was a significant indirect effect of psychological home on life satisfaction through possession clutter. For women of color, as psychological home increased, the negative impact of clutter decreased. Additionally, as the negative impact of clutter increased, life satisfaction decreased. These findings are consistent with research that has found clutter to negatively impact life satisfaction (Roster et al., 2015). Additionally, these findings demonstrate that psychological home does impact the effects of clutter; in turn, the impact of clutter affects life satisfaction.

Perhaps, the relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction might be explained by the amount or type of clutter one has. The type of clutter may impact an individual’s response to it. For example, if the clutter an individual has reflects their identity it may not be as distressing as other types of clutter. It is not the amount of stuff one has, but what the stuff is that matters. It is important to note, clutter does not have to be present for the relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction to exist. However, the perception of clutter may help explain the relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction. If
you have higher levels of psychological home, you perceive the clutter in your home to be less negative. In turn, you have higher life satisfaction.

**Implications for Community Psychology**

Community psychology examines the bi-directional relationship between persons and contexts (Kloos, Hill, Thomas, Wandersman, Elias, & Dalton, 2012). Additionally, community psychology views the individual, the community, and the larger society as indivisible. A primary concern for community psychologists is individual and family wellness. Prillentesky (2008) suggested one of the main missions of community psychologist should be “to enhance wellness for all” (p.133). Psychological home provides insight into one way of enhancing life satisfaction and well-being. Although psychological home tends to be an individual level factor (Sigmon et al., 2002), perception of home may affect interpersonal and community level factors. Individuals who feel safe and secure in their environment, for instance, may be more satisfied in their interpersonal relationships and engage more in their communities.

Additionally, psychological home may contribute to an individual’s resiliency especially in women of color. Research has shown gender (Giusta et al., 2011) and discrimination (Arellano-Morales et al., 2016) impact life satisfaction and ultimately well-being. Conceivably, psychological home may mitigate the negative effects of these factors. Further, if one was forced to leave a place they had a strong attachment to, the departure might be disruptive in many ways. However, if you have a strong sense of psychological home, while leaving would be traumatic you would be able to recover more quickly. Psychological home has applications for military families, the elderly population, children in the foster care system, homeless individuals, refugees, and other transient populations. For example, frequent relocation and moving is the most stressful aspect of growing up in a military family (Finkel et al., 2003). If families were
assessed for levels of psychological home, it might provide insight into ways to make transitions easier. Understanding psychological home might help to identify the needs of individuals that impact their life satisfaction and the systems in which they interact with.

The idea of ‘home’ is complex. There are an array of meanings and interpretation for what ‘home’ means to people. Psychological home is one way of recognizing the importance of identity expression in the space one surrounds themselves. This component of individual identity potentially impacts families, communities, and the larger society. Examining psychological home from an ecological perspective, could provide more context and understanding about the benefits of psychological home and its impact on well-being.

**Limitations of the Present Study**

The present study may be limited in a number of ways. For instance, it is a correlational, cross-sectional design. Also, the methodological approach relied upon self-report data, which may or may not be an accurate representation of reality. While this research does provide insight into psychological constructs, it does not aid in predicting behavior. Additionally, the present study was conducted on a small subset of a convenience sample of adults who self-identify as having an issue with clutter. Additionally, the respondents learned about the study through the Institute for Challenging Disorganization (ICD), which suggests these were individuals who were seeking help from professional organizers. Although the sample was collected from throughout the U.S. and Canada, it is not representative of the wider population and therefore should not be generalized.

Theoretically, the two-dimensional model of place attachment may not adequately explain the relationship between individual identity and place in women of color. Although, the two-dimensional model of place attachment has been found to be valid and reliable, research
suggests there may be additional factors to consider. Raymond, Brown, and Weber (2010) highlight the importance of considering social, cultural, and community level factors when assessing place attachment. For instance, components of culture may better explain how identity impacts place attachment in minority populations. Especially, considering cultural values have been found to be an important factor in assessing life satisfaction in minorities (Arellano-Morales, Liang, Ruiz, & Rios-Oropeza, 2016). These additional factors may help to better explain the relationship between psychological home and life satisfaction.

**Future Research on Psychological Home**

The construct of psychological home has not been widely studied (Sigmon et al., 2002; Roster et al., 2015; Cicognani, 2011), especially by gender and ethnic identity. Nevertheless, the construct of psychological home may provide a better understanding of the relationship between one’s self-identity and physical space. Additionally, a sense of home may help to understand what makes an individual feel more satisfied in their life and contributes to their overall well-being. Better understanding how an individual’s sense of self interacts with their physical surroundings can provide insight into how a person might interact with the larger community. More research into how psychological home contributes to life satisfaction in diverse communities is needed. Additionally, better understanding the role of place attachment, clutter, and psychological home will help provide a more nuanced understanding of well-being.
References


Appendix A

Clutter Quality of Life Scale
Instructions: To what extent does clutter, defined as "an overabundance of possessions," impact your current life and well-being? Please read each statement below and indicate your extent of agreement to each statement.

1 – Strongly Disagree
2 – Disagree
3 – Somewhat Disagree
4 – Neither Agree or Disagree
5 – Somewhat Agree
6 – Agree
7 – Strongly Agree

1. I'm concerned about what others might think of me if they knew about the clutter in my home.
2. I have to move things in order to accomplish tasks in my home.
3. I often buy things I already have because I don't know where things are in my home.
4. The clutter in my home upsets me.
5. I avoid having people come to my home because of clutter.
6. I try to avoid thinking about the clutter in my home.
7. I don't get to use spaces in my home the way I would like to because of clutter.
8. My family life has suffered as a result of the clutter in my home.
9. I feel overwhelmed by the clutter in my home.
10. I'm worried about the amount of clutter in my home.
11. I can't find things when I need them because of clutter.
12. I have incurred debt I can't really afford as a result of having too many possessions.
13. I feel guilty when I think about the clutter in my home.
14. I have to be careful when walking through my home in order to avoid tripping over objects.
15. I have neglected taking care of things that need to be done in my home because of the clutter.
16. I don't have family members over as much as I would like because of the clutter in my home.
17. I have been late paying bills more than once in the past 3 months because they got lost in the clutter.

18. I feel depressed by the clutter in my home.
Appendix B

Satisfaction With Life Scale
Instructions: Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Using the 1 – 7 scale below indicate your agreement with each item.

1 – Strongly Disagree
2 – Disagree
3 – Somewhat Disagree
4 – Neither Agree or Disagree
5 – Somewhat Agree
6 – Agree
7 – Strongly Agree

1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.

2. The conditions of my life are excellent.

3. I am satisfied with my life.

4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.

5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.
Appendix C

Marlowe Crown Social Desirability Scale
Instructions: For the following, please rate each item as either “True” or “False”.

True or False

1. It is sometimes hard for me to go to work if I am not encouraged.

2. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.

3. On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability to succeed.

4. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.

5. No matter whom I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.

6. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.

7. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.

8. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.

9. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.

10. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different than mine.

11. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.

12. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me.

13. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.
Appendix D

The Psychological Home Scale
Instructions: Please indicate your extent of agreement to each statement.

1 – Strongly Disagree
2 – Disagree
3 – Somewhat Disagree
4 – Neither Agree or Disagree
5 – Somewhat Agree
6 – Agree
7 – Strongly Agree

1. I have grown attached to many of the places I have lived.
2. I put a lot of time and effort into making a home my own.
3. I feel more relaxed when I'm at home.
4. I surround myself with things that highlight my personality.
5. I get a sense of security from having a place of my own.
6. I add personal touches to the place where I live.
7. I take pride in the place where I live.
8. I work at making a place my own.
Appendix E

Place Attachment Scale
Instructions: Please indicate your extent of agreement to each statement.

1 – Strongly Disagree
2 – Disagree
3 – Neither Agree or Disagree
4 – Agree
5 – Strongly Agree

1. I find that a lot of my life is organized around this place. (PI)
2. One of the major reasons I now live where I do is to be near this place. (PI)
3. My choice of career will be based in part on my desire to be near this place. (PI)
4. I identify strongly with this place. (PI)
5. I feel like this place is a part of me. (PI)
6. I get more satisfaction out of visiting this place than from visiting any other. (PI)
7. I enjoy doing the type of things here more than in any other area. (PD)
8. I wouldn't substitute any other area for doing the type of things I did here. (PD)
9. This area is the best place for what I like to do. (PD)
10. The time I spent here I could have just as easily spent somewhere else. (PD)
11. The things I do here I would enjoy just as much at another site. (PD)
12. No other place can compare to this area. (PD)
13. If I had been in another area my experience would have been the same. (PD)