INFORMATION FOR SUBSCRIBERS

Rural Development Research and Education is published quarterly by the Southern Rural Development Center, Mississippi State, MS 39762. Subscriptions or sample copies are available at this time without charge. Third-class mailing permit No. 39 at Mississippi State, Mississippi.

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Feature articles highlight research or programs of merit as examples to professionals, researchers, and educators in rural development in the southern region. They should deal with one area or subarea of the four major concerns of rural development outlined by USDA:

- Community Services and Facilities
- Economic Improvement
- Environmental Improvement
- Opinion articles examine critical issues confronting Research and Extension practitioners in rural development, emphasizing implications for program planning and research.
- Research notes are brief summaries of empirical research projects underway or recently completed.
- Program notes are brief summaries of noteworthy rural development educational or assistance programs.
- News and Notes report events and personalities of interest to the region.

SRDC Director: Dr. William W. Linder, Mississippi State University
SRDC Associate Director: Dr. William C. Boykin, Alcorn State University
Editor: Steven D. Hunt
SRDC Staff: Jay Chance, Program Analyst; Mrs. Tina Hudson, Secretary; Mrs. Bonnie Tauler, Secretary; Miss Jewel Crawford, Secretary; David Miles, Publication Clerk

Table of Contents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More Industrial Jobs in Rural Areas</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Eldon D. Smith</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State of the Art in Solid Waste Management</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Michael S. Salkin and Dr. Kenneth C. Clayton</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources in Evaluation</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Arthur G. Cosby and Dr. G. Richard Wetherill</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helping People Through Government Transfers</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nancy V. Hill and Dr. E. Evan Brown</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication and Small Farm Problems</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. W. Arden Colette and Gail Easley</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinion/Comment</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universities and the Users of Research: A Developing Partnership</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Edward O. Moe</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Notes: Individual Versus Public Rights: Implications of Support for Landuse Planning and Control</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. James A. Christenson</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is the South an Industrial Magnet</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program Notes: Citizens Initiate a Road Marking Project</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certification Program Offered for Municipal Officials</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News and Notes</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUMMER’78 VOL.2 NO.2

The Southern Rural Development Center, one of four such centers in the nation, focuses on specific rural development problems of the region. It serves the thirteen southern states and Puerto Rico by developing knowledge essential to rural development and by providing technical consultation where needed.

The SRDC is jointly sponsored by Mississippi State University and Alcorn State University. Its clientele is the Research and Extension staffs of the 27 land-grant institutions with rural development or community resource development responsibilities.

Mississippi State University does not discriminate on grounds of race, color, religion, national origin, sex, age, or handicap.
MORE INDUSTRIAL JOBS IN RURAL AREAS

Dr. Elden D. Smith
Professor of Agricultural Economics
University of Kentucky

Can manufacturing industry save lagging rural areas from chronic low income and further decline? Over 40,000 communities in the United States believe that it could be a help, if not a cure. They have organized community groups designed to promote new industry.

As industry-seeking community organizations are formed, many questions are raised. Will they be successful? What kinds of industry are most likely to succeed? What government programs and policies will help them? What can rural communities do to help themselves? What can research tell us that will aid in answering these questions?

Why Industrialize?

As economic opportunities in rural areas have declined, rural people have traditionally left their homes and moved to cities which offer more jobs and higher incomes. Rural communities have provided much of the manpower that has made modern industry possible. For many areas this has provided a safety valve that has "worked." Rural population has declined with the result that farms and rural businesses have become larger and more economically efficient. More and more advanced technology has been used, and many farmers have become more prosperous. But these events have not occurred in all areas and benefits have not been immediate.

Why hasn't this movement of labor to urban areas happened in other areas? That is, why hasn't migration occurred in all rural areas where people's incomes were low compared with those of urban workers? And why haven't some areas prospered even after very large proportions of their population have moved to other areas? In both cases the reasons are complex, but some of them can be clearly identified.

1. Those who leave rural areas tend to be the better educated, younger adults. This leaves fewer productive workers to support the remaining older people, children, the educationally disadvantaged, the less productive people and others not able to fully care for themselves.

2. When workers move away and population declines, the average cost of supplying schools, roads, police protection and other public services increases. Stores, private recreation facilities, and other private business may also operate at higher average costs when population declines and business volume falls off.

3. Some rural people who have not had the advantages of good schools, good medical care, and good opportunities to develop skills suited to industrial work may not be prepared for urban and urban jobs. Areas with high proportions of such people usually find that adjustments of labor supplies through outmigration work poorly. These regions continue to be surplus labor areas with low incomes per worker.

For these and other reasons, it is often desirable to move jobs to people rather than moving people to jobs!

Potentials for Industry: Can Rural Areas Succeed?

Almost all research indicates that rural industry made little progress before 1960, while growth of large urban areas was at a much faster pace. Industry that did move to rural areas had been based on bulky resources with high transportation costs, and/or cheap, unskilled labor. Other industries were attracted only by heavy financial inducements offered in the community. But things have changed!

During the 1960s the problems of congestion, crime, and pollution in large cities, the development of better highways and perhaps other factors changed the direction of the current. Recent research has indicated that industry has tended to locate disproportionately on the interstate highways and high-speed toll roads. Labor problems in the traditional industrial centers have also been noted as reasons for choosing rural areas. Government programs to support development of better schools, utility services, etc., may have played a role in this shift, but research is not entirely conclusive on these points.

While the reasons for this new trend are not completely clear, it appears to be continuing even after the beginning of the recession period of the mid-1970s. Industry in rural areas, especially in the South, continues to grow. In general, rural areas have a much better chance to succeed than before.

Which Communities Can Succeed?

Although it has been generally accepted that smaller rural communities have little chance to attract industry, research indicates that this is not neces-
sarily true. While many firms prefer metro or suburban areas, nearly half prefer non-metro areas and many believe that this factor is of critical importance.

One study indicated that community size was not important in selecting a location if sites, utility services, and other basic factors were equal. But it would seem obvious that smaller communities would ordinarily have more difficulty in providing good financing, high quality municipal services, industrial parks, etc. These services would have to be competi-
tive with larger rural communities of perhaps 25,000 to 50,000 population if they were to be attractive to industry.

An established industrial base seems to be relatively unimportant. While there are a few areas with clusters of new industry, in most regions new plants have been established about as frequently in communities where other industries have not already established footholds as where they have.

Some research indicates that manu-
facturing industries seek out areas with large supplies of labor. However, it also indicates that merely large numbers of potential workers in the county of location are not, by themselves, an important attraction; the quality of the labor supply is also significant. Further, the quality and the quantity of labor in a broad commuting area may be equally important.

Nearness to urban centers appear not to be important in determining industrial potentials. A possible reason is that good highways make access to urban services relatively simple in most areas.

In summary, it appears that small rural communities have a good chance to capture their share of industrial plants. A location relatively close to urban areas does not seem to be essential, but attract-
ing industries will probably be easier if they are located on or near interstate highways. Yet to capture their share, the smaller communities will have to provide the same quality of supporting services as larger ones.

Governmental Policies to Support Rural Industrial Growth

Policies of loans and grants-in-aid to rural communities to support develop-
ment of industrial sites and services appear to be effective in communities that cannot otherwise finance them. Support of their continuation and exten-
sion seems to be sound strategy for rural communities because, relative to larger communities, rural communities are disadvantaged in acquiring funds through regular financial sources.

General policies of low state rates of taxation appear to be very unimportant relative to other economic factors. While authorization for specific tax concessions to new industry might be more effective than a general low tax policy, existing research suggests that this is a comparativa-

tely minor determinant of locational decisions.

The present use of industrial revenue bond financing is restricted to relatively small plants with no more than $5,000,000 total capital outlay during a six-year period (three years before and three after the bonds are issued). While this limits use of bonds, it may be favorable in its effects on location of industry in rural areas because limitations of service facilities and labor supplies make small sites more attractive to small than to large plants. Whether the limits placed on revenue bond financing are at the best possible levels is not evident from research. However, there is strong support for the view that revenue bonds are extremely cost-effective as locational inducements. Continued legal authorization of industrial revenue bonds as a means for financing industry appears to be in the best interest of rural areas.

In contrast, the option of using general obligation bond financing for support of industry is not usually a desirable or feasible alternative for small rural communities. Its authorization by state and Federal government may be unwise in view of the importance of using bonding capacity to upgrade public service facilities. Rural communities are usually short on bonding capacity.

Present policies of extending loans on favorable terms to small businesses appear justified. These include operations of the Small Business Administration, Farmers Home Administration and several other government agencies. Although paid back by small firms as well as by large-scale business, small businesses have more difficulty in obtaining financing. Thus, governmental credit policies that focus on small firms tend to be favorable to development of the class of industry most likely to locate in rural areas.

Policies that provide greater state and Federal support for education in low-
income communities have general logical appeal. However, results of past research are mixed.

While equalizing educational opportu-
nity through more state and Federal support in low-income areas may be meritorious for other reasons, research does not indicate uniformly superior ability to attract manufacturing industry on the part of communities with better financed public schools.

Local Community Action

Community organizations such as industrial foundations or industrial committees of civic organizations are widespread. They seem to have no important effects apart from their role in identifying suitable industrial sites and acquiring, developing and providing information about them. They probably also provide some political support required for development of low-cost financing and serve as a vehicle for soliciting technical assistance and publicity through state and Federal agencies. However, site acquisition and develop-
ment–two of their primary activities–are very effective. This is especially true in areas where highway access and other situational factors are moderately favorable. Sites which offer large land area, high capacity sewer and water service, and rail service tend to be attrac-
tive to industry. However, flood protec-
tion, good soil weight bearing capacity, flat topography and freedom from rock outcroppings are also factors of impor-
tance. Although their relative importance has not been adequately evaluated cost to reduce construction, maintenance and operating costs. Fire protection of high quality reduces insurance costs and increases profitability as well.

As indicated earlier, industrial revenue bond financing by local governments is an effective tool for small-scale industries. It is practicably used by small firms as well as by large-scale business, small businesses have more difficulty in obtaining equal terms. But they must organize themselves in order to provide the high
tax services, utility services, and financing that will be most effective in attracting industry.

Public programs that undergird efforts of rural communities to improve their services and to provide financing to industrial clients are generally effective.

Selected References


Hansen, Niles M. The Future of Non-


Economic Development Administra-
STATE OF THE ART IN SOLID WASTE MANAGEMENT

Solid waste poses a major problem in communities throughout the United States. Each day more than eight pounds of solid waste is generated per person, amounting to over 900 million pounds annually for the country as a whole. These waste materials can be extremely damaging to the environment if not disposed of properly. In 1973, it was estimated that there were more than 25,000 active open dumps in rural America. Waste disposed of in these dumps contributed to air pollution when the dumps were allowed to burn. This waste also contaminated streams, rivers, and ground water, and posed a health hazard because it attracted harmful rodents and insects.

Problems such as these have focused attention on solid waste management and have resulted in the passage of state and Federal laws. At the Federal level, the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act of 1976 promotes the demonstration and application of solid waste management and resource recovery practices. It provides technical and financial assistance to state and local governments in planning and developing resource recovery and solid waste management systems, and promotes a national research and development program for improving solid waste management techniques. Most state solid waste laws, such as the Oklahoma Waste Management Act of 1976, enable elected authorities to provide solid waste management, authorize state planning, and set minimum statewide standards.

Sources and Composition of Solid Waste

Solid waste is generated by households, business, and industry. Agriculture and mining also generate waste materials, typically not included in community solid waste totals. Up to half of collected solid waste comes from households. The importance of commercial and industrial sources varies according to the make-up of the community's economy.

Grass, garbage, glass, and paper are major components by weight in the solid waste stream. Grass and garbage account for 50 percent of all waste, glass about 12 percent, and paper nearly 25 percent. Assorted substances make up the remainder.

Solid Waste Systems

Solid waste systems include three basic activities: storage, collection, and disposal. The manner in which each activity is performed will depend upon the particular needs and characteristics of a community.

Storage: Solid waste must be assembled and stored prior to collection and disposal. In urbanized areas, storage generally occurs at the origin of the waste. Barrels, plastic or paper bags, garbage cans, or small metal containers are used to store the solid waste. Sparsely settled places are less likely to employ on-site storage. More often, "green box" or metal containers of two to six cubic yard capacity meet the storage needs of several households. These containers are strategically dispersed throughout a service area. Individual residents deliver their solid waste to the storage containers.

In some cases, transfer stations are used to accumulate waste prior to shipment for disposal. Large capacity vehicles can then be employed at a lower per ton-mile transport cost. Large cities use such facilities successfully to haul waste to distant disposal sites. This same concept is being applied in rural areas with either a single station or a limited number of large containers strategically placed throughout a collection area. In the latter case, capital investment is often lower than for a green box system and collection is simplified because of the number of points.

Collection: Collection is the most costly of the components of a solid waste management system. It often accounts for up to 80 percent of system costs. Collection costs are high because of large manpower, fuel, and equipment requirements. A community chooses a collection system based on the quality of service required, and costs involved, and the size of the community.

Adequate collection service requires efficient equipment and personnel management. Collection equipment chosen should meet the needs of the community. Several factors including the quantity of waste generated and the population density need to be considered in selecting equipment. Most communities use compactor trucks which are available in sixteen to thirty-four yard capacities. These can be frontloading, rearloading, or side loading. Some are equipped to mechanically lift and empty storage containers.

Because house-to-house collection is often not feasible in rural areas, other collection systems may be used in these areas. A successful and widely used method is a small containerized system often known as a "green box" system. Containers are placed at locations convenient to several rural households, thereby reducing the necessary collection mileage. These containers are usually mechanically emptied into compaction trucks with waste transported either to transfer stations or a disposal site.

The capital cost of countywide house-to-house collection systems ranges from $400,000 to several million dollars, depending on population and the quality of the system. Annual operating costs...
Collection is the most expensive aspect of a solid waste management system. In the system pictured, a collection truck is emptying a green box into a compaction truck. The compaction truck then carries the waste to a landfill operation for disposal.

Organizing and Financing the System
Several management/financing alternatives are available to a community for its solid waste system. Four such combinations include:

a. Public management with public financing;
b. Private management with public contract;
c. Public management with user fee;
d. Private management with user fee.

The applicability of these approaches depends on the local situation and any state regulations governing the financing of public services.

Those systems which employ public financing for capital equipment have several means of financing to consider. Some of the more common methods are leasing arrangements from equipment companies, state or Federal grants for acquisition of equipment, and long term borrowing plans. In the event that the system will generate revenue, general obligation bonds can sometimes be sold to finance the system.

In general, operating costs of the system should be financed out of general revenues or user fees. Sales and property taxes can be increased in communities where state law permits such actions. In many states, however, laws prevent property tax rates from being raised beyond a specific ceiling. User fees are another possibility although they are not easily applied to green box storage and collection systems in rural areas.

A Look to the Future
As resource supplies and energy sources dwindle, increased attention is being focused on solid waste. A great many of the component materials in solid waste can be recovered and reused. The energy value of the organic portion of solid waste is considerable. A number of metropolitan areas are looking seriously at resource recovery as a method of solid waste management. Rural areas, too, may find advantage in participating in such systems.

There are four major considerations underlying the feasibility of resource recovery. First, is the resource content of collected solid waste adequate? Second, do market outlets exist for recovered materials? Third, is the technology available to recover selected resource components? Fourth, are the economic and organization of system organization possible that are necessary to facilitate resource recovery, particularly in rural areas.

Although resource recovery facilities have been designed for places with 200,000 or more population, recent evidence suggests that smaller areas may find this technology applicable. Also, the possibility of combining cities and counties, moreover, may be a useful approach for meeting minimum scale requirements.

At present, many recovery methods are technically feasible, but too costly based on current technology and markets. Resource recovery is not likely to be adopted by private business unless profits from it are equal to other business endeavors. From a public standpoint, resource recovery will not be acceptable unless its cost is comparable with other methods.

Final Comments
The management of solid waste in the United States has become an expensive process. Currently, both Federal and state laws require the proper handling of waste materials. States throughout the South and most of the U. S. have enacted some type of solid waste legislation. Although solid waste systems differ among communities, they are typically comprised of three components: storage, collection, and disposal. Of these, most innovation has come in the area of disposal.

If further innovation in waste systems is to occur, citizens will want to know more about what is best suited to their community. The need and value of workable, economical systems cannot be emphasized enough.

Financing of systems, especially in areas with low population densities, will continue to be a problem. Solution of these finance problems will be necessary to the future of waste system progress and utilization.

Selected References
Hule, J. M. Solid Waste Management: Storage, Collection and Disposal. ED-397, Cooperative Extension Service, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana.
Saltik, M. S. Solid Waste Planning: Components for Costs for Rural Sys-

Where the South and most of the U. S. have enacted some type of solid waste legislation.

Although solid waste systems differ among communities, they are typically comprised of three components: storage, collection, and disposal. Of these, most innovation has come in the area of disposal.

If further innovation in waste systems is to occur, citizens will want to know more about what is best suited to their community. The need and value of workable, economical systems cannot be emphasized enough.

Financing of systems, especially in areas with low population densities, will continue to be a problem. Solution of these finance problems will be necessary to the future of waste system progress and utilization.

Selected References
Hule, J. M. Solid Waste Management: Storage, Collection and Disposal. ED-397, Cooperative Extension Service, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana.
Saltik, M. S. Solid Waste Planning: Components for Costs for Rural Sys-

Where the South and most of the U. S. have enacted some type of solid waste legislation.

Although solid waste systems differ among communities, they are typically comprised of three components: storage, collection, and disposal. Of these, most innovation has come in the area of disposal.

If further innovation in waste systems is to occur, citizens will want to know more about what is best suited to their community. The need and value of workable, economical systems cannot be emphasized enough.

Financing of systems, especially in areas with low population densities, will continue to be a problem. Solution of these finance problems will be necessary to the future of waste system progress and utilization.

Selected References
Hule, J. M. Solid Waste Management: Storage, Collection and Disposal. ED-397, Cooperative Extension Service, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana.
Saltik, M. S. Solid Waste Planning: Components for Costs for Rural Sys-

Where the South and most of the U. S. have enacted some type of solid waste legislation.

Although solid waste systems differ among communities, they are typically comprised of three components: storage, collection, and disposal. Of these, most innovation has come in the area of disposal.

If further innovation in waste systems is to occur, citizens will want to know more about what is best suited to their community. The need and value of workable, economical systems cannot be emphasized enough.

Financing of systems, especially in areas with low population densities, will continue to be a problem. Solution of these finance problems will be necessary to the future of waste system progress and utilization.

Selected References
Hule, J. M. Solid Waste Management: Storage, Collection and Disposal. ED-397, Cooperative Extension Service, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana.
Saltik, M. S. Solid Waste Planning: Components for Costs for Rural Sys-

Where the South and most of the U. S. have enacted some type of solid waste legislation.

Although solid waste systems differ among communities, they are typically comprised of three components: storage, collection, and disposal. Of these, most innovation has come in the area of disposal.

If further innovation in waste systems is to occur, citizens will want to know more about what is best suited to their community. The need and value of workable, economical systems cannot be emphasized enough.

Financing of systems, especially in areas with low population densities, will continue to be a problem. Solution of these finance problems will be necessary to the future of waste system progress and utilization.

Selected References
Hule, J. M. Solid Waste Management: Storage, Collection and Disposal. ED-397, Cooperative Extension Service, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana.
Saltik, M. S. Solid Waste Planning: Components for Costs for Rural Sys-
RESOURCES FOR EVALUATING RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Because of increasing national concern for program accountability, rural development staffs are often required to evaluate without the necessary training or experience. For example, guidelines for Title V of the Rural Development Act of 1972 require program evaluations from agencies involved in the conduct of the program. Yet because there have been no systematic attempts to assemble and synthesize materials related to noneconomic evaluation of rural development programs and activities, program evaluators have found serious gaps in the information available to them.

As a new focus of interest, evaluation should not be taken lightly, since it provides information that is useful for improving programs, or, in extreme cases, for deciding whether or not programs should be continued. In fact, our preferred definition of evaluation centers on these two purposes. First, evaluation defines how programs work and what are their successes and failures—an answer best found through hard-nosed, independent research. Second, evaluation produces information from which intelligent discernment of promising and nonpromising programs can be chosen for program improvement and change.

Network Goals

It has been a major goal of our SRDC Functional Network on the evaluation of rural development to systematically assemble and synthesize evaluations related to previously conducted rural development activities. We have been and specifically interested in the noneconomic evaluation of those programs designed to raise the overall quality of life, level of living, life satisfaction, knowledge, and acquisition of leadership and decision-making skills by rural residents.

Since its inception, the goals of the network have stressed the following areas: (1) a synthesis of existing evaluative research literature in the area of rural development, (2) the extraction of those principles and procedures which will have utility for rural development evaluation of already existing programs as well as the planning and evaluation of future programs, and (3) the development of annotated bibliographies.

With the help of computerized and library searches, and the assistance of knowledgeable people in the field, the network has produced a series of publications including manuscripts and bibliographies. The SRDC has published a comprehensive bibliography on evaluative research literature for rural development as the second in its series of 10 network bibliographies.

The concept of the functional network is founded on the contributions made by professionals and educators throughout the Southern region. The members of the Functional Network on Evaluation have our gratitude for their contributions and guidance for the project since its inception in 1975. All members have been involved in actual rural development or other social program evaluations and have brought a considerable wealth of experience to the task of assessing the current state of evaluation.

Evaluation Models in the Literature

Evaluation, like any other developing discipline, has adopted a particular jargon. Because it is such a relatively new discipline, numerous "models" exist for evaluation, each advocated by a particular group and representing its respective goals and biases. Actually, the term "model" is something of a misnomer to start with; however, most evaluators use the terms "models," "frameworks," and "approaches" interchangeably.

Five Phases

The synthetic model below describes the five basic phases of the evaluation process.

Phase I—Program Description: The first phase of the synthetic model is program description. During this phase, the evaluator, assisted by the program staff, describes the program according to its goals and objectives, operation, and environment. More simply, the evaluator attempts to put down on paper what the program is all about. This serves to direct the evaluator, program staff, and appropriate audiences to the program’s primary goals and consequent courses of action.

The result of this effort might be considered the program’s blueprint, although this process is rarely carried to such great detail. Descriptions may be graphic, written, or some combination of both and often might be the program staff’s conception of how the program should exist ideally. A “standard” is then provided by which to evaluate the program’s actual performance. Generally, Phase I consists of a written description of the program at some level of detail; it then serves as a “blueprint” of the goals and operations both to program staff and other relevant parties.

Phase II—Criteria Formulation: The next phase serves to center the evaluation on certain aspects of the program. Most rural development programs are so complex that it is nearly impossible to systematically examine every aspect of such programs. Consequently, critical areas in the program’s operation are identified. These critical areas become the focus of the evaluation. Standards, or acceptable levels of performance, must also be developed for each of these criteria. To illustrate, suppose one of the critical evaluative areas for a rural development program is concerned with the increased use of extension educational services. The program staff would then set for themselves a level of acceptable performance (e.g., use of services would increase 25%). This criterion serves as a standard by which to judge the program’s performance.

Thus, the formulation of evaluation criteria serves two purposes: (1) It focuses the evaluation on critical areas, and (2) it sets standards of acceptable performance so the program can be evaluated.

Phase III—Evidence Gathering: In the third phase of evaluation, evidence is gathered concerning the performance or operation of the program according to the evaluation criteria formulated and established in Phase II. More simply, data are collected for each of the specified evaluative criteria. Statistical analyses may be used during this phase. The evaluation is probably more similar to the traditional research investigation during this phase than during any other phase. The skills and knowledge required of the evaluator are the principles and mechanics of research design, methodology, and analyses.

Phase IV—Judgment Making: The criteria established in Phase II and the evidence (or data) collected during Phase III are used in making decisions regarding the performance of the program in Phase IV. Basically, the data from the program (or actual performance) are compared to the established criteria (or ideal performance) for that program. Obviously, three conditions could exist. The program could fall below a minimum acceptable level of performance, attain expected performance, or exceed projected performance. Decisions regarding the significance or effect of these differences would be made. The many models for evaluation probably differ more during this phase than in any other phase. Some models provide for the evaluator simply feeding such information back to the program staff. Others encourage the evaluator to go beyond this feedback role and assist in the decision-making process.

Phase V—Dissemination: The last phase of evaluation is the dissemination of findings. Although very few models explicitly lay down guidelines or procedures for the reporting of evaluation results, it was apparent that this must always occur. Findings are usually reported back to clients. Special arrangements are sometimes made to include wider audiences. If the program is ending, the evaluation is viewed as a final assessment of performance. Other similar projects might use this information in designing and implementing their own particular programs. If the program is continuing, the evaluation is a source of information for program improvement. Appropriate changes can be made and/or other areas of program operation and performance can be examined.

The dotted arrows in the illustration below indicate that feedback within the model to an earlier phase is possible, and in some cases, desirable, when changes in the design are necessary.

Information on Evaluation

One of the many problems facing the beginning evaluator is locating information about the how’s and why’s of the evaluation enterprise. Lacking specific formal (or easily identifiable) ways to get and find evaluative information, the basic works on evaluative research appear in the literature of numerous disciplines.

Writers from education, public health, sociology, public administration, and economics have contributed knowledge about the fundamentals of evaluation. This diversity of sources implies that the evaluator must be familiar with literature being produced in disciplines other than his own.

We have found the use of computerized retrieval systems very helpful—especially in searching for unpublished reports. Many agencies and institutions have this resource available, such as land grant university libraries. One benefit from computerized searches is that sometimes within the agency or institution is supposed to know how to use the systems, that is not available.

The available retrieval systems are the Education Resources Information Centers (ERIC) scattered about the country. For
personnel in rural development, the ERIC/CRESS Center at New Mexico State University is probably the most useful one. Other systems available are: Smithsonian Science Information Exchange (SSIE); Current Research Information System of the U.S. Department of Agriculture (CRIS); Cataloging and Indexing System of the National Agricultural Library (CAINS); and the Automated Information Retrieval Service (AIRS) available through most major university libraries.

Evaluation Training

Presently, the primary educational activity for rural development evaluation comes from sporadic workshops and short courses. We fear that the impetus for such short-training courses results, more often than not, from eighteen-hour needs for evaluation rather than from an intent to build in evaluation as an integral, long-run component of rural development. The consequences of this shortsightedness are low-quality, patchwork research.

First, there is an obvious need for development of graduate programs and courses for "laymen" which emphasize both rural development and program evaluation. It would seem appropriate that our land-grant universities (which have an explicit emphasis on the hitherto undisciplined) should initiate such graduate training. However, we are not calling for a proliferation of educational programs in evaluation. It is our guess that three or four strategically located centers would meet the long-run needs of rural development evaluation.

A Concluding Comment

Although forecasting the future is at best a hazardous enterprise, we feel that there are some indications that the demand for quality evaluation will dramatically increase in the near future. Our "guess estimation" relies heavily on the new emphasis on zero-based budget systems of program financing. If zero-based budgeting becomes the model method of financing governmental programs, there should be a tremendous increase in requests for good, high credibility research that tells which programs are working and how programs can be changed to improve their effectiveness.

Further Information

For those personnel in rural development needing information relating to the evaluation of rural development, several resources have been made available as a result of this functional network. We are glad to supply further information or assistance to those interested in evaluation. One network has published an annotated bibliography and synthesis paper containing major findings. These are available from the SRDC. Also, the Evaluation Network has sponsored a regional workshop. For most of the materials listed here there is no charge. Some, however, may have a nominal fee to cover reproduction and mailing costs. To obtain copies of specific publications, direct a request to the appropriate authors.

PUBLICATIONS


HELPING PEOPLE THROUGH GOVERNMENT TRANSFERS

Governmental transfer payments are direct or indirect payments for goods or services to people in need by the government. The amount of money redistributed by such transfers has grown geometrically. For example, the Medicare program alone makes up over 15 percent of all direct benefit payments, amounting to some $22 billion. For many people Social Security benefits are the only retirement income they receive. Hundreds of these programs have become an expected means of obtaining economic assistance and helping those who cannot help themselves.

As a result of these programs, a vast amount of research has been done on the design, financing, changes, administration and impact of these programs. Because of the important role transfer payments play in our society, many educators, government officials, and persons in private industry find it necessary to keep informed.

The Southern Rural Development Center in April 1976 funded a functional network of 10 professional research investigators, headed by Dr. E. Evan Brown at the University of Georgia, to compile and annotate a bibliography of recent research on the impacts of transfer payments. The resulting bibliography, available from the SRDC, contains information useful to anyone interested in transfer payment programs.

Government Transfer Payments Are About . . . . . People in Need
Transfer payments are a way of smoothing out the irregularities in the lives of our citizens when they occur. They can be a helping hand to those who are temporarily out of work, to those who do not possess the skills to obtain employment, to those who become physically disabled, to those who must remain home to care for their children and have no other means of support, or to those who have worked during their "productive years" and are now retired. There are thousands of reasons for transfer payments and consequently thousands of transfer payments are available for people in need. Transfer payments can take many forms. They can be direct payments to individuals or they can be various forms of indirect payments to individuals or families, such as subsidies to interest payments for skill training. Whatever form they take, the most important function of these payments is to help people with a specific need they have.

Who Needs to Know About Transfer Payments? . . . . . Just About Everyone
Because of the wide scope of transfer payments, they affect almost everyone.

Taxes we pay are used to supply services and payments. The payments we make to government are a kind of insurance against social and economic misadventures that can occur to any of us at almost any time.

Transfer payments have a history in this country back to colonial times, and legislative changes are constantly being made to accommodate changes in the economy or social requirements. Although it is generally the cost of transfer programs that attracts the most attention by the media and public, the imputed to change most programs rests with the question of how effective the programs are in delivering needed services to the citizenry. If the programs are not responsive to the expressed needs, either by inadequacy or misdirection to target groups, then what is needed is welfare reform. The changes considered may often be based only on subjective evaluation or faulty information. Many believe that transfer payments are merely handouts to those too lazy to work [1]. A vast amount of research has been done to test these attitudes about the recipients of transfer payments. The results of some studies may surprise you.

Did You Know That . . . . . . .

- A survey of food stamps recipients showed that people in their households: (1) are mostly working poor, [2] have a substantial income deficit, and [3] have a family head usually older than 55 years [2].
- An econometric analysis of cross-sectional data from 50 states and the District of Columbia on the effect Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) payments may have on the birthrate revealed that getting such payments does not necessarily mean that recipients will have more children [3].
- Housing studies show that: the rent per square foot paid by the poor is consistently higher than that paid by the non-poor [4]; of the seven major housing subsidy programs listed, those which apply to home owners' and renters' assistance are predominately serving the lower-middle-income groups [5]; and those persons who receive subsidies on their mortgages do pay their fair share for services received—many times a tax revenue increase results [6].
- The Workmen's Compensation Program is criticized by many different groups concerned with a particular aspect of the program. However, a survey of its administra-
tors revealed that they felt the program to be beneficial to society. The study also looked at the income maintenance aspect of the program and found that for disabled workers relying totally on worker's compensation the program would leave them in poverty [7]. Perhaps this suggests that although payments received may extend the employment search period [8], the program is not a permanent income support system.

• In fact, there has been so much research on attitudes of the poor and attitudes toward the poor that a 182-page annotated bibliography has been assembled on that very subject [9].

Many studies show that most recipients are hardworking, diligent people who for one reason or another find themselves in need of help economically.

What About the Other Side of the Coin ... Abuses, Misallocation, and Waste

It is not a new proposition that the need for welfare (or transfer payment program) reform exists. Programs are constantly being reviewed and regulations on the administration of the programs are often revised.

During the past 10 years, a great deal of research has been done on the changes for replacing transfer programs with a single income maintenance or negative income tax program. Ideally, this program would eliminate poverty, maximize equity, have little effect on work incentives, reduce administrative costs and increase accountability, eliminate social abuse, and integrate effectively with existing programs [10].

What's Wrong Now? . . . . . . . . .

Although there have been geometric increases in income transfer programs, a less proportionate amount is actually reaching the poor [11].

In 1970, it is estimated, some 1/2 million eligible families did not receive any AFDC payments. This tends to indicate the inequity of poverty statistics as a measure of poverty [12]. Parvin noted that:

• Sixty percent of the AFDC and AFDC-UP recipients could not earn more than their welfare receipts by going to work given their education and skill level [13].

• After three years since the National Health Service Corps became funded, only a small fraction of underserved areas received any benefit from the program [14].

Some of the Prospects For . . . . . Income Maintenance

• A study concluded that income maintenance would not necessarily lead to massive decreases in the work effort of the recipients of a negative income tax program [15].

• The Nixon Family Assistance Plan (FAP) focused on guaranteed income for the working poor. However, existing wage subsidy programs do at least provide some negative income tax payments in closing the poverty gap. This happens while the work advantage remains intact, an important social goal [16].

• The Universal Income System (UIS), one income maintenance proposal, includes all persons and allows for a 50 percent greater basic allowance than the Nixon proposal. The net cost of each program is estimated to be between the Nixon program and $7 billion for UIS. The programs would help relieve the 9.9 million families who remain poor after transfers under the present system [17].

• Preliminary analysis of the New Jersey and Pennsylvania Income Maintenance Experiments indicates that the programs do not induce immediate or widespread withdrawal from the labor force [18].

Some of the Income Maintenance Problems

• A study concerned with the effects of income maintenance on fertility concluded that: (1) increased income enables families to afford more children; (2) the additional cash subsistence with each child cost of raising that child; and (3) work disincentives of cash transfers may reduce the supply of labor which otherwise would not occur [19].

• It is shown that work disincentives are strong in the presence of income maintenance programs because income and leisure are both "normal goods" whose consumption is inverse to their price [20].

• Administrative and design problems include defining the social or economic unit with a negative income tax system. Emphasis is placed on the family unit, whether it consists of a two-parent, one-parent, single or child alone in the family [21].

These are a few of the research results on transfer payment programs. More studies are annotated in the bibliography.

What Information Did the Functional Network Assemble? . . . . .

The work completed by the SRDC Functional Network on Governmental Transfer Payments is composed of three segments. All the results are designed for use by extension, research, and government personnel.

The main focus of the project was to assemble an annotated bibliography of research results from 1969 to 1974. The bibliography is entitled Synthesis of Research Results Relevant to the Impact of Governmental Transfer Payments on Human Resource Development. It contains six sections. In the first section, references on eight major transfer programs were assembled by programs. These programs were included as a result of filtering the literature to find those about which most research has already been done. Section II contains references on four major areas. The research cited here concentrates on the problems involved in education, employment, health, and income. Research results on policy, program development, delivery and finance are included in Section III. The remaining three sections concentrate on household demographic, income related and related bibliographies. This bibliography is one in a series of 10 which cover major priority areas of research published by the SRDC.

Complementing the bibliography is a synthesis designed as a state-of-the-art paper to tell what is currently known about transfer payment programs. Extension personnel will find this publication particularly helpful in gaining a hold on what is happening in this area.

The third phase of the project includes a dissemination process to users. Each functional network will make presentations of its work either at a separate workshop or in conjunction with appropriate professional meetings.

REFERENCES


6.wiseen, Patricia and James T. Lindley. "Characteristics of Farmers Home Administration, Informal and Related Bibliographies. This bibliography is one in a series of 10 which cover major priority areas of research published by the SRDC.


20. Green, Christopher. "Negative Taxes and Monetary Incentives to Work: The Static Theory." Journal of Money, Credit and Banking, 3 (Summer 1968), 280-88.

COMMUNICATION AND SMALL FARM PROBLEMS

Major changes have taken place in American agriculture in the last 30 years. Between 1945 and 1974 the number of farms dropped by more than one-half, from almost six million farms in 1945 to less than three million farms in 1974. The importance of the farm population also declined as the ratio of farms to the total population decreased from one farm for each 24 persons in 1945 to one farm for each 75 persons in 1974.

One of the main reasons for these dramatic changes is the great increase in information and technology that has occurred since 1945. During this 30-year period the Cooperative Extension Service has tried to spread this information to all farmers. However, the new technology has been used more by some farmers than by others. This difference in use has caused a gap in productivity and income between those farmers adopting the new technology and those farmers who have not adopted it.

There are two reasons for the existence and size of this gap. One reason is that it is easier for some farmers to get the information than for others. Another reason is that some farmers decide not to adopt the new technology. Understanding the forces which cause this gap to occur can be very helpful in developing programs and procedures which will help remove the gap or reduce its size. Researchers during the past 20 years have identified many of the characteristics of the groups which adopted the new technology and those which failed to adopt. Their findings show that there are real differences between these two groups. They also form very different audiences for programs. Each group has special characteristics, attitudes, beliefs, and patterns of behavior. Each group holds different values. Different means of communication will be needed for each group.

Educational programs for small farm operators must be planned to use effective change processes, communication, and sources of information in order to be successful. It is important to think about the attitudes of the audience the program is planned for. Factors which affect the rate of adoption of new ideas and practices are of concern and factors which affect the success of change agents in bringing about social change in the client group are also important. Successful programs cannot ignore the influence and importance of all of these factors on the outcome of the program.

CHARACTERISTICS AND ATTITUDES

It may be helpful to use general terms to identify problems and select courses of action and communication strategies. In general, small farmers are seen as being individualistic, conservative, resistant to change, and strong supporters of traditional rural values. In the small farm population, important social systems are not necessarily formal. They are often based on kinship or friendship. Since these contacts are definitely limited, the small farmers are somewhat isolated socially. They have fewer and different information sources than society in general. They are also different in basic attitudes and values. Small farmers tend to be reserved, resist change and have sentimental values concerning the community. Members of the small farm population have lower incomes and generally lower education levels. They have a lower degree of social mobility than members of society in general.

The decision to adopt a new practice is less likely among farmers with traditional attitudes, such as trying to avoid debt and focusing on the present. Farmers tend to see the family as being more important than either the individual or society. The farmers with traditional values are not likely to try to master their surroundings. Making the most profit possible is assumed to be the primary goal of a rational producer. However, other goals and values may be more important to an individual than maximizing profit. Many traditional values, such as debt-free ownership of land, are not consistent with the objective of profit maximization.

Farmers who are conservative and place a high value on security or delay fail to adopt new ideas or practices. They see new practices as a possible risk. The traditional farmer may prefer practices with a low but consistent return, instead of practices which have a higher, but less predictable return. Resistance to change may keep him poor or make him even poorer.

One important strategy in the communication of information about new practices and ideas is to attempt to develop a positive attitude toward change. Conservation or traditional values are generally associated with an unfavorable attitude toward change. Therefore, it may be very difficult to change the attitudes without altering the basic values.

Of course, it is much easier to accept new ideas which make small changes than it is to accept those new ideas which require large changes in attitudes or values.

RATE OF ADOPTION

Naturally, new ideas are more rapidly adopted when seen as being better than practices which they replace. The advantage may be seen in terms of greater profit, reduced labor requirements, lower risk, more immediate reward, or improvement in other characteristics that are considered desirable.

Also, the rate of adoption of a practice is influenced by whether a trial of the practice can be made. If a new idea can be experimented with on a limited basis or tried in installments, it will generally be adopted more rapidly. A new idea which can be experimented with on a trial basis represents less risk to the individual considering adoption. As more people have had a chance to see the new practice under farm conditions, the trial stage is less important. Those who are later to adopt are more likely to skip over the trial stage in acceptance of a new idea or practice.

Complexity of a new practice slows adoption of that practice. When individuals see a new idea or practice as difficult to understand and use, they will be slower to adopt it.

What others in the community think and do may also present a barrier to
change. A highly traditional social system will be very resistant to change, but where the social climate is favorable to the adoption of new ideas, the spread of information will be easier.

Traditional farm families see the farm as the focal point of their lives. As a result they tend to have limited social contacts. They do not participate in non-farm-oriented organizations. The farm occupies most of their waking hours. In surveys, many farms families have indicated that they are satisfied with their present income levels. However, this may not be a true indication of their satisfaction. They may just be resigned to existing conditions or feel that the individual has no real power over his economic situation.

Individuals who are relatively quick to adopt new practices show more upward change in social status. The early adopters usually start from relatively high social status and move to an even higher level. On the other hand, those individuals who一组 also relative slow to adopt new practices show little or no upward social mobility.

COMMUNICATION

Communication is the process of transferring information from a source to a receiver. Communication channels are the methods by which this information is transferred. Communication is more effective when the information source and the receiver share common backgrounds, beliefs and attitudes and have the same understanding of the meaning of words.

There are two basic channels of communication: mass media and interpersonal contact. Mass media include radio, television, magazines, newspapers, bulletins and books. Interpersonal channels include family, friends, neighbors, co-workers, and personal interviews. The value of a channel of communication is determined by how available it is to the receiver, whether the information is credible, and how much it is used by the receivers.

The most frequently used information source among farmers is mass media. Mass media are more effective for person-to-person communication. They are more likely to interact with others on a one-to-one basis. An especially important source of information is the network of family, friends, and neighbors. Family members are more likely to seek information from other family members, or from personal friends and neighbors. This face-to-face contact is important for an effective exchange of information. Interpersonal channels of communication are not limited to friends, neighbors, and family. They may include direct contact with change agents (county extension agents, home economics agents, nut specialists, teachers, representatives of government agencies, etc.), representatives of fertilizer, equipment and feed dealers, religious leaders and elected officials.

Farmers view change agents as the most credible or believable information source in interpersonal channels of communication. Compared to all other interpersonal sources of information, these agents are seen as the most competent and trustworthy by both farmers and homemakers.

As a source of home and farm information, publications such as bulletins, pamphlets, magazines and books are rated low in availability and credibility. They are not used as a major source of information. Depending on publications for obtaining information to improve low-income farm families would thus be a mistake.

An important mark of success, though, for any written materials designed to reach low-income farm families is readable the materials are. The style of writing and choice of vocabulary in publications presently in use are often directed at an audience with more education than the low-income farm family.

In the communication process a message is transferred from source to receiver. The message intended for a particular group of receivers may not be in words which hold the same meaning for the sender and receiver. When this happens, the message may be understood only by the sender and not by the intended receiver. Often communication intended for the poor is not understood by that audience because of poor choices in wording it.

Once a pattern of misunderstanding has been established communication barriers develop. Differences may exist between one group and society as a whole in values, beliefs, education, economic circumstances and understandings of the language. Communication is less effective when the sender and the receiver do not share similar characteristics.

COMMUNICATIONS AND THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

There is a decision-making process related to the adoption of a new idea or practice. This process consists of four stages: knowledge, persuasion, decision and adoption. The first stage is the individual learns of the new practice. He forms attitudes about the practice during the persuasion stage. This is accepted or rejected during the decision stage. In the confirmation stage the individual seeks confirmation that he made the right decision.

The two basic communication channels—mass media and interpersonal—can be more or less effective in the different stages in the decision-making process. Mass media are most important in the knowledge stage, spreading the news about a new idea or practice. Mass media are more effective in communicating ideas to the early adopters than in communicating with those who are relatively slow to adopt. Interpersonal communications are relatively more important for the persuasion stage in the decision-making process. Face-to-face contact, or interpersonal communication, is often a transfer of personal experience, and given a high degree of credibility. Face-to-face contact can make the individual in the decision to adopt a new practice.

Although the county agent may not communicate personally with the low-income farm family, he still communicates to them. In looking for information through interpersonal channels, farmers usually look to other farmers who have had direct contact with the county extension agent. This is an example of the step flow characteristic of the communication of information through a community.

CHANGE AGENTS

Change agents, such as extension workers, are most likely to communicate well when they share similar language and meanings, and common attitudes, values, beliefs, and personal interests with their audiences. For this reason, many extension services select para-professionals or (assistants) from the target group to work with low-income and small farm audiences.

The success of a change agent is directly related to how well he can identify with his audience. The para-professional must learn as well as give advice and information. As he listens to feedback—what his audience tells him about his work and how his work is or is not helping—he learns how well his programs fit or meet the needs of the audience.

During programs the attitudes, beliefs, and social standards of the members of the group helps communication. The needs of the audience can be voiced when members participate in program planning, increasing the audience's commitment to the program. When programs are designed to respond to the felt needs of the audience, greater success will be achieved.

How believable is the change agent? If a farmer feels that the change agent is more credible than other information sources, then he will be more willing to receive messages from the change agent. This is true in great part for consumers. (Unfortunately, the change agent is sometimes pressured to produce results which can be measured, so often he gives more attention to more responsive farmers. Generally they already have an attitude in favor of change, and the change agent fails to help the remaining farmers in need of his information.)

Another good way to reach farmers is through opinion leaders. Opinion leaders are individuals who influence the attitudes or behavior of others. When the change agent successfully communicates with opinion leaders, the information gets out and is received by the rest of the community. Change occurs more sporo-
taneously, and new ideas and practices gain approval from local leaders.

On the other hand, farmers may get more contact with change agents than do their followers, and so they are seen as more competent. Followers thus tend to seek what works in change from those who serve as a means of introducing new ideas into the social system.

Farmers, machinery salesmen and dealers often serve as opinion leaders in the communication process. They are often consulted by farmers in making needed purchases and in making decisions. In many communities these dealers are thought of as friends by farmers. In some areas, though, the dealer may lose credibility if he can't push new ideas in order to get more sales. Usually, however, farmers often respect the local farm store dealer. His ideas and actions may shape the opinions of the farmers.

SUMMARY

The ever-widening gap in farm income between large and small producers has resulted from differences in access not only to resources such as land and credit but also to information. Some farmers make better decisions than others.

Programs and policies can be easily developed to help farmers acquire land and credit, and even information, but the third cause is much more difficult to correct. The decision not to adopt new practices is based on attitudes, values and goals. Thus there may need to change before a different decision is reached.

Adopters and non-adopters show distinct characteristics. They have different attitudes, values and behavior patterns. Different methods of communication are required to reach these different audiences. In designing programs to reach the low-income farm population, several factors are important. For instance, the use of mass media in communication information is of limited effectiveness. Mass media are somewhat more important in the knowledge stage of the decision-making process, but are not as important in later stages.

Face-to-face contacts, although the most effective means of increasing adoption of new ideas or practices are not very effective for the change agent. The change agent will not be able to make large numbers of personal contacts. However, using adoption of ideas in audiences which are resistant to change will be slow and will require a great deal of effort and additional costs. The change agent may not be able to change rapidly; in fact, it is likely that changes will occur slowly. Those farming groups most resistant to social change are those groups which most resist change. They have attitudes which are traditional and conservative. These attitudes may deter, or delay, farmers in making necessary changes for the change agent to bring about a positive attitude toward change. In this way the audience will be more willing to receive new information. Attitudes probably cannot change, however, without first changing the basic values of the audience.

Selected References


The demand for new ideas to help solve major national and community problems is a significant challenge to institutions of higher education. Problems today are even more complex and harder to solve. At the same time there is a growing feeling that the colleges and universities which should be able to help solve problems are not helping, and frequently seem afraid to try.

Under such conditions it is useful to re-examine the functions of our colleges and universities, and to project ways in which they might strengthen their partnership with users of new ideas. Colleges and universities are the primary entities rooted in the functions of knowledge itself—the discovery of new ideas and new knowledge in research, the transmission of knowledge and new ideas in teaching, and the utilization of knowledge and ideas in helping solve problems through extension and public service.

The intimate interrelation among these functions is critical. It is in these interrelations that the functions of knowledge are tested as former President Perkins of Cornell (1965) observed: "Knowledge acquired must be transmitted or it dies. Knowledge acquired and transmitted must be used or it becomes sterile and inert. Even more, the chemistry of knowledge is such that the very process of transmission together with the discipline of application, stimulates and guides those who work at the frontiers of knowledge."

"Knowledge is in many respects a living thing—it grows and changes, and various of its parts are replaced as they become obsolete, but the dynamic nature of knowledge is traceable to this interplay and tension with its acquisition, transmission, and application. It is this interaction that creates the needs for new knowledge, that brings inaccurate teaching to account, that shows what could be rather than what is. Taken separately, the three aspects of knowledge lead nowhere; together they can and have produced an explosion which has changed the world."

Such pretensions of higher education are more than rhetoric, although there is never any shortage of rhetoric. There is a deep and continuing concern with colleges and universities about the interplay among research, teaching, and extension/public service programs. Even when there seems to be an evident lack of concern, there is, at the same time, substantial uneasiness and uncertainty about what new knowledge and new ideas are needed and how to put ideas and the results of research to work to help solve problems and improve the well-being of people.

Some Factors Which Limit the Communication of New Ideas

With the great array of problems agencies and communities confront, there are many potential users of new ideas from the social sciences. Important among them are policy makers at all levels from the local neighborhood and community to the nation, administrators of public and private community service programs, community leaders, consumers—those who use the programs and services, and citizens interested in understanding what is happening and trying to improve the quality and effectiveness of services.

Despite the good intentions of researchers, educators, and users of ideas, one can readily identify a number of factors which make communication among them ineffective:

- Lack of a system which effectively links users and researchers, including a clear identification of who the users are;
- Mutual suspicion and distrust between researchers and decision makers on policy and programs;
- Researchers designing research projects without direct contacts with potential users, and frequently with little information on their views of what the problems are;
- Users not aware of what research is available, and not having had a voice in the formulation of the problems researched;
- Difficulties researchers face in accepting the fact that from a user point of view partial information available at the time of action or decision is better than complete information after that time;
- Lack of appropriate, periodic research information releases and publications for users;
- Failure of researchers and research units in universities to follow up significant relationships and exchanges that are initiated with users;
- Failure to provide technical and educational assistance to users for interpretation of findings and for adapting them for use;
- Research which has not been made a built-in, continuing part of the program development and evaluation processes; and
- Lack of a broad-based public education program which builds public literacy about social policy issues, policy alternatives, and improvement of programs and services.

Towards a New User-Researcher Partnership

What we are confronted with then is a major dilemma. On one hand there is the great need of users—such as those defined above—for new ideas about problems and about what might be done. On the other hand there is the high promise of university research, education, and public service to produce and help put to use new ideas and alternative ways of dealing with problems. Both groups are frustrated and searching for a better relationship.

What is needed is a new partnership between users and researchers—a partnership defined by two essential conditions:

1. Involvement of users and potential users of new ideas with researchers in exploring difficulties in the functioning of social institutions and community services, in identifying specific issues and problems, and in defining problems to be researched.

2. Continuing user-research contact throughout the research process, including feeding back of research findings and interpretations on problems the users helped identify.

User-researcher involvement would be an essential feature of the partnership, but it would be something more. It would be a basic strategy to improve communication and facilitate improvements in programs and services. When users and researchers are jointly involved in the formulation of problems, and where there is continuing contact throughout the research process, interest in research findings is increased.

The feedback and interpretation of findings can be more effective. It follows also that the utilization of findings is more likely to occur.

Some Steps in Strengthening a User-Researcher Partnership

If we are to strengthen a user-knowledge research partnership some important relationships need to be strengthened and/or established. Among them are these:

- Building on and strengthening established department, research unit, user contacts. This would obviously include an analysis of what contacts already exist, and what new ones are needed to enable social scientists to be more effective in putting knowledge to work;
- Interpreting to users and the public the university's research role and functions.
- Interpreting the existing body of knowledge as it relates to issues, problems, and alternatives of major interest to users.
- Helping identify development and policy issues from the user point of view involving researchers, research administrators, department heads, and other college or university administrators.
- Bringing user groups of all types to the campus: to meet with researchers and administrators; to help clarify issues which need to be researched; and to make possible direct researcher-user exchanges on the meaning and limitation of findings; implications of findings, and on the possible/probable impact of alternatives.
- Helping define user needs for continuing communication and how various media might be used to get findings to users.
- Helping utilize the instrumentality of social science research centers and bureaus of applied research as mechanisms through which the university could contribute both to an understanding of and solution to social problems.
- Helping arrange new types of liaison between universities, departments, and research units, and a variety of significant user groups. Some consideration might be given to setting up new types of joint university-user advisory and technical groups, and having persons from user groups in liaison capacity on campus for extended periods of time.

Some Possible Payoffs

While it is not possible at the beginning of such an effort to know what the payoffs would be, there are some intriguing possibilities. Researchers and users could be linked more effectively. Such research findings as presently exist could be put to use in social programs. Research could come to grips with some of the more basic issues in contemporary society and particularly with aspects of the problems important to significant users. It is very likely that a wider support base could be built both in understanding and public support. Departments and universities could gain in that they might be seen as a more effective partner with communities, counties, the state, and the nation in improving the well-being of people. This phrase, the well-being of people, is a significant end, and the hallmark of what we are about.

*Reprinted from *The Decorder, 23 (April 1978), 1-3, Center for Community Development and Research, Florida A&M University at Tallahassee.
Concern for public rights is clearly not limited to property-use issues. Most of the concern reflected by the environmental movement focuses on control of individual rights in order to protect or insure the public good. The concept of private property is impossible to study independent of the environment.

Little empirical information is available on the structure of support for individual or public property rights. In an effort to assess this structure, data were gathered in a statewide survey of concerns among North Carolinians.

Questionnaires were sent to 5,082 heads of households drawn proportionally from telephone listings according to county populations, and 3,064 returned the questionnaires. Those questioned were asked two questions selected to assess support for land use planning (a public rights perspective) and two questions to assess opposition to zoning (an individual rights perspective).

The findings of the survey show that the sampled population was quite divided on support for land use planning, particularly on the issue of zoning. Support for these two issues is found among the educated, the more well-to-do, the urban, the politically liberal, and the small or non-land owners. Such support from those of higher socio-economic status and from more urban areas is consistent with past research on support for environmentalism. Opposition comes from large landowners, especially farmers, the rural, and those with lower levels of income and education.

As the population becomes more urban and fewer people own property, we may see a shift in emphasis from individual property rights to public property rights. But to say that the general public is supportive of public rights would be misleading. Numerically, the support comes from a well-educated, affluent, and, for the most part, property-less population.

While a wide range of relationships between various demographic, political, and situational variables was explored in this analysis, the effect of knowledge per se and participation per se on property rights issues was given special consideration. Environmental educators will be encouraged with the findings that knowledge per se has an effect on these issues. While this finding is not unexpected, the knowledge variable is so closely tied to education that one often questions whether knowledge has an independent effect. However, participation does not provide the same encouragement. When other variables are taken into account, participation has little impact on the issues under investigation. Perhaps by the time individuals get to land use meetings, opinions are formed and sides are drawn. Meetings may serve not as a learning exercise but as a confrontation on such emotionally charged issues as zoning.

These findings suggest that knowledge, participation, and education are independent elements which need further investigation.


---

**IS THE SOUTH AN INDUSTRIAL MAGNET?**

Three recent studies present conflicting findings concerning the fiscal attraction of the sunbelt states for companies located in the Northwestern and Midwestern states, according to a copyrighted article in the June 1978 issue of Nation's Cities.

Two of the studies, "Revitalizing the Northern Economic" and "The Migration of Firms and Workers in Ohio, 1970-1975," contradict the widely held belief that companies have left established industrial areas of the country to relocate in the sunbelt states. These federally funded studies claim that the number of business failures in the Northeast, Midwest and South is approximately the same, but the South is ahead of the other two areas in establishing new companies.

"Revitalizing the Northern Economic" attributes economic decline in the Northeast mainly to improvements in communication and transportation and to conflicts between business, labor, and government. Carol L. Jasenius and Larry Ledebur, in "The Migration of Firms and Workers in Ohio, 1970-1975," claim that Ohio's economic decline is also primarily attributable to the fact that more businesses fail than are started.

However, in "Industrial Exodus," Edward Kelly says that "low-cost, non-union labor" does influence companies to relocate in the South. The percentage of Southern workers who belong to unions is far less than the national average, and salaries for Southern industrial workers are almost $50 a week lower than those of their Northeastern counterparts. But Kelly warns that industries which relocate in the South because of these factors may not stay there. He comments that those firms which are part of U. S. multinational corporations may finally decide to relocate in "Third World" nations where the cost of a day's labor is below the minimum hourly wage in the United States.

"Revitalizing the Northern Economic" and "The Migration of Firms and Workers in Ohio, 1970-1975" may be obtained from the Academy for Contemporary Problems, 1501 Neil Avenue, Columbus, Ohio 43201. "Industrial Exodus" may be obtained from Conference/Alternative State and Local Public Policies, 1901 G St., N. W., Washington, D.C. 20009.

---

**CITIZEN'S INITIATE A ROAD MARKING PROJECT**

Inadequately marked roads in Morgan County, Alabama, have confused drivers, firemen, and visitors for years. Homes in rural areas could burn while the volunteer fire fighters were looking for the right road. Citizens and officials of Morgan County recently implemented a road marking project to help correct this situation. They felt that the county's road system needed proper marking for quick and easy directions.

The County's CRD Committee and County Commission devoted more than a year to studying the problem, analyzing alternative solutions, and developing a plan of action. Several groups and individuals were involved in getting them concerned about the problem. The commission agreed to make the road signs for all county roads and to furnish specifications and materials for their erection. The CRD Committee agreed to assume the responsibility for getting the signs erected as specified by the commission.

The reflectorized metal signs are made in the commission's shop. The CRD Committee distributes the signs to selected members and leaders in each of the county's 12 school districts. Community leaders, with the help of civic, 4-H, and FFA clubs, erect the signs in their respective communities.

The road marking project was recently kicked off in Commission District III in the communities of Folkville and Eva. All roads will be marked in District III within a few weeks. Efforts in other districts will start as funds become available. Everyone involved in the project has been pleased with the results. They are confident that lives and time will be saved as a result of their efforts.

Attending the Spring Session—Phase IIA of the Certification Training Program for clerks, assessors and collectors held in Jackson were, from left, Dr. Larry Gravez, governmental training specialist, Mississippi Cooperative Extension Service (MCES); Sue Comery, clerk-tax collector, Tyler; Mary Hart, deputy Clark, Natchez; and Diane Clowston, clerk-tax collector, Wesson. Successful completion of the three-year course will result in 50 points of credit toward the Certified Municipal Clerk designation awarded by the International Institute of Municipal Clerks. (Extension Service Photo)

CERTIFICATION PROGRAM OFFERED FOR MUNICIPAL OFFICIALS

Efficient, effective local government is one of the most important factors in promoting rural development. Properly trained municipal officials are essential to this type of local government, but in the past, these elected or appointed officials often knew little about how to carry out their duties when they came into office.

Until a few years ago, this was a problem facing many of Mississippi's newly-elected city clerks, tax assessors and collectors. But as a result of a program implemented in 1973, these municipal officials no longer have to rely strictly on on-the-job training and trial-and-error methods to gain expertise in carrying out their duties, according to Dr. Larry H. Graves, governmental training specialist for the Mississippi Cooperative Extension Service.

In an effort to increase the skills, abilities and knowledge of these municipal officials, the Cooperative Extension Service, in conjunction with the Mississippi City Clerks, Assessors and Tax Collectors Association and the International Institute of Municipal Clerks, established the Certification Training Program for Municipal Clerks-Assessors-Collectors.

The Mississippi certification training program was conceived by Dr. William W. Linder, coordinator for the Center for Governmental Technology, Mississippi Cooperative Extension Service, and patterned after a program at Syracuse University in New York.

Graves developed a curriculum consisting of 104 hours of instruction spread over a three-year period for the certification program. The curriculum is broken down into 50 percent public administration, 30 percent human relations and motivation, and 20 percent current problems and strategies. Experts in various fields are brought in to teach the courses.

There are now 25 certification training programs nationwide, Graves said, and most of them meet once a year for a week-long session at one location. The Mississippi program differs in this respect, offering four 1 1/2-day sessions each year at two different locations.

"We felt that more people would be able to take advantage of the program if we held it in two locations around the state," Graves commented. This belief is supported by the fact that during its first three-year cycle, the Mississippi program led all the similar programs in the nation in attendance.

Graves also said offering four short sessions instead of one long one each year is a plus for the Mississippi program. "People tend to retain more information when material is presented in units of shorter duration," he said. "Also, the sessions are held all day Fridays and half a day Saturdays so these officials do not have to be away from their offices for a whole weekend."

The program started with 98 people, and so far 57 people have graduated from it. There are 35-40 people currently involved in the program.

But after graduating from the program, many officials realized they had gained not only from the course offerings, but also from their association with other members of their profession. Therefore, an annual Certification Update Program was developed to keep municipal officials abreast of new issues and concerns and to provide for continued interchange of ideas among them.

Announcing

THE RURAL DEVELOPMENT BIBLIOGRAPHY AND SYNTHESIS PAPER SERIES

Twenty valuable books bringing together hundreds of source materials. A bibliography and synthesis paper published in each of 10 areas.

Order From
SOUTHERN RURAL DEVELOPMENT CENTER
Box 5406
Mississippi State, MS 39762

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Check Desired Bibliographies</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Check Desired Synthesis Papers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$5.00</td>
<td>Rural Industrialization</td>
<td>$1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$3.00</td>
<td>Evaluative Literature</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>Citizen Participation</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$3.00</td>
<td>Solid Waste Disposal</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$5.00</td>
<td>Governmental Transfer Payments</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$3.00</td>
<td>Small Farms</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$3.00</td>
<td>Land Use Issues</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$3.00</td>
<td>Health Care</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$5.00</td>
<td>Educational Needs Projection</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$3.00</td>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$25 Enclosed _ Bill Me
$7 Enclosed _ Bill Me

Send To

Name ____________________________
Institution/Agency ________________
Address __________________________
City ____________________________ State ______ Zip ______

$ ____________________________ Enclosed
COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT MANUAL READY FOR IN-SERVICE TRAINING

"Community Development: An Intensive Training Manual" has been published by the North Central Regional Center for Rural Development and is now available. Single copies are free. Large orders for group use will necessitate a charge, depending on quantity.

The publication was the work of Paul Gesaman, University of Nebraska; William Kimball, Michigan State University; Manfred Thullen, Michigan State University, and Lois Mann, University of Minnesota. Many others also were involved in terms of reviewing the content and contributing resource papers.


The publication is intended as a resource document for comprehensive and intensive community development in-service training. Each instructional unit contains detailed teaching outlines, visual originals, resource papers, and a list of appropriate references.

The first publication, "Suggested Procedures for In-Service Training," provides background information and suggests methods for conducting in-service training based on the manual. It is primarily an instructors manual for those who will be conducting training based on the materials.

The second publication, "Training for Agency Personnel," contains four instructional units and is intended to be used with agency personnel who provide assistance to local community development efforts. The instructional units are:
- Unit I: What is the Rationale for Community Development Training?
- Unit II: What is Community Development?
- Unit III: Why Be Involved in Community Development?
- Unit IV: What Does One Need to Know About Community Development?

Several resource papers that provide a major portion of the literature base for the instructional units are also included in this section.

The third publication, "Extension Programming in Community Development," contains the fifth instructional unit, suggested training procedures for this unit, and supporting resource papers. The primary audience for this unit is extension service personnel whose responsibilities include the planning, implementation, and evaluation of extension community development programs.

For more information about purchase or content of the publication, please write Dr. Ronald C. Powers, Director, North Central Regional Center for Rural Development, 106 Curtiss Hall, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa 50011.

SSIE RESEARCH INFORMATION PACKAGES ON HEALTH CARE ADMINISTRATION AVAILABLE

There are pressing current and emerging health service issues of concern to decision-makers and the public. Cost containment in health care, health insurance, health manpower, health care for the disadvantaged, and quality of care are among these issues.

The research project you are currently investigating or have just recently completed in these important areas is part of the Smithsonian Science Information Exchange data base. SSIE scientists regularly conduct file searches on topics of high current interest and compile the results into Research Information Packages which are composed of one-page descriptions of research projects active during the present and past two years in the area indicated by the package title. Each Notice of Research Project (NRP) includes the following information, when that information has been furnished to SSIE:

- Project title:
- Supporting organization name, address, and grant or contract number:
- Principal and co-investigator names:
- Performing organization name and address:
- Period of performance covered by the description:
- Level of funding; and
- A 200-word technical summary of the work to be performed:

The contents of the packages enable you to keep in touch with other researchers working on studies similar to your own. For more information on the SSIE Research Information Packages write:

Mrs. Ann Riordan
Chief, Social Sciences Branch
SSIE, Room 300, 1730 M Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

NEW SRDC PUBLICATIONS

The Southern Rural Development Center recently added two new titles to its publicaations series on community resource development, rural development, and program and research strategies. The new publications are:

Housing Project Ideas—developed by the SRDC Functional Network on Rural Housing to provide ideas and suggestions for housing professionals throughout the region, and

Agricultural Economics Perspectives: Issues and Applica-tions—a collection of four papers delivered at the Southern Association of Agricultural Scientists meeting in Houston, TX, earlier this year.