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
- People Building
- 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. Jewel Crawford, Secretary; Mrs. Tina Hudson, Secretary; Mrs. Bonnie Teazer, Secretary; David Miles, Publications Clerk
Publications Planning and Art: Extension Information, Mississippi State University
Artist – Keith Adcock
Printing: Central Duplicating

Mississippi State University does not discriminate on grounds of race, color, religion, national origin, sex, age, or handicap.
Citizen Participation in Rural Development

A Brief Synthesis of Issues

What is Citizen Participation?

Citizen participation means many different things to different people. To some it is an end in itself. To some it is a means to the achievement of worthy goals, such as development. We define it as: "Voluntary activities undertaken by persons in their role as ordinary citizens, or amateurs. These behaviors are undertaken to influence public decisions or the actions of public officials." This distinguishes citizen participation from "social participation," and identifies it as behavior—both of which may seem restrictive to some, but they are necessary to delimit the field of discussion.

There are many types of citizen participation. There is political participation such as voting, running for office, etc. There is administrative participation where citizens serve on advisory committees or in some other way participate in the administrative process. There is voluntary participation where citizens, on their own initiative and using their own resources, attempt to influence public decisions. Some citizen participation focuses upon clearly defined questions or issues, such as the installation of a street light, or a decision about a particular part of a National Forest. Other citizen participation is more ambiguous in its objectives, as in the case of an effort of a Community Resource Development specialist to stimulate a comprehensive process of development through involvement of citizens. Citizen participation also varies as to the initiative taken by agencies or organizations to stimulate participation. Some agencies go to great lengths to obtain citizen involvement; others merely make channels available, but do not stimulate participation.

Why Have Citizen Participation?

This seems like a frivolous question to many. The American political system is democratic; therefore, many people assume that maximum citizen participation is desirable. However, a democratic system does not necessarily require or even allow mass participation, nor were the Founding Fathers of the American Republic particularly committed to it. Then, as now, there were serious debates about the effects of mass involvement, and about the capability of the average citizen to participate intelligently. Then as now many felt that the public interest would be served better by turning decision-making over to an enlightened elite and by limiting the impact that the ordinary citizen could have upon decisionmaking. Thus, the reason for the recent emphasis upon citizen participation must be sought in specific historical developments and in a contemporary belief in what it can accomplish.

The historical development will be discussed in the next section. At this point, it can be pointed out that recent research on citizen participation has shown that it can accomplish a wide range of goals set for it. It can result in innovative solutions to seemingly insoluble problems, partly because citizens are more innovative than bureaucrats. It can reduce apathy on the part of citizens. It can stimulate leadership on the part of persons who would otherwise not exercise their leadership potential. It can improve service delivery programs when used intelligently. Most of all, the research evidence suggests that it can make government officials more accountable to the public, in spite of the fact that the process may not always be comfortable for bureaucrats—or for citizens.

Of course, this is not to deny that citizen participation can also lead to disillusionment, that it can be grossly abused, and that it can lead to absurd decisions. Because of its potential for good, and for abuse, it is important that it be well understood by bureaucrats and citizens.

The Role of Citizens in Decision-Making

Decision-making processes may be visualized as the schematic diagram in Figure 1. This is a simple process, in which the interests and preferences of the public are "aggregated and articulated" through various political processes in the left leg of the triangle. Then, decisions are made, or affirmed in a formal decision-making body such as a city council or state legislature. These decisions are then implemented by the bureaucracy, which is the right leg of the triangle. This could be used to describe local government, a state government, and the Federal government.

The left leg of the triangle is what is normally referred to as politics, the right leg is administration. Traditionally citizens played very limited roles, if any at all, in administration—simply because administration was to be protected from politics. Conversely, bureaucrats played very limited roles, if any at all, in the left leg—since they had vested interests and hence should not be involved in politics.

Even in the left leg which constitutes "politics," as usually conceived, the role of the ordinary citizen is limited, since ours is a representative system. Most of the action here is carried out by elites (representatives, leaders, etc.) and by organized interest groups. As the Federal role in what had previously been local matters grew, particularly in the 1930's and again in the 1960's, for a number of reasons this simple decision-making structure was altered. The most important reasons were the increased centralization of decision-making itself, which took decisions farther and farther from the ordinary citizen, and the peculiar needs of government agencies playing a role in stimulating development. As more and more decisions were made at the Federal
THE BASIC DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

Decision Making

Implementation and Enforcement

Citizenry

Figure 1

level, the need to accommodate implementation to local conditions became acute. Furthermore, as the Federal government became involved in development work, for example, in agencies such as the TVA, the imperatives of development demanded a close partnership between citizens who were to be the beneficiaries and participants in the development process and government.

In order to retain a strong role for the central government and still retain local involvement and initiative, mechanisms of administrative citizen participation were developed in TVA, and also in many of the programs of the USDA. In the 1960's the same pattern was adopted in the new urban development programs of that decade. The new structure of decision-making and administration is illustrated by Figure 2. There is a small decision-making triangle within the “enforcement and administration” leg of the overall administrative process. This “mini-government” has its own political process in interest aggregation and articulation, its own decision-making arena, and its own mechanism of administration. It is frequently, as is illustrated in Figure 2, redundant with some agency or agencies of local government. This is the structure under which most of the activity called citizen participation now occurs. Its major distinguishing characteristic is the fact that the bureaucracy has the responsibility and the authority of engaging in what is essentially a political process, of selecting representatives of the public—or at least supervising the selection of representatives, of obtaining their input, of interpreting their input, etc. While this gives extraordinary authority to the bureaucracy, it also facilitates the development of the partnership between citizens and government that is required for development. It is urban development, rural development, community development, or whatever.

It also allows the bureaucracy the opportunity to seek out and stimulate the participation of selected elements of the public—because of their special skills, because of their uninvolvment and alienation, or for other good reasons. Obviously, very much depends upon the “good faith” of the bureaucracy, since this mode of citizen participation gives it so much authority. It appears, furthermore, that the natural incentives within the bureaucracy are to attempt to coopt citizens rather than always to relate to them in good faith. Remedies for this are greater legislative or administrative specification of how citizen participation efforts are to be carried out and the development of a “citizen participation code of ethics” on the part of bureaucrats charged with its implementation.

Thus the question of citizen participation raises the most basic issue in development work: how can government be involved in development work without becoming oppressive, even to the point of defining citizenship?

Implementation of Citizen Participation

Implementation of citizen participation efforts, whether initiated by private groups or by government, involves two types of questions. The first is strategy questions, the second is questions of methods and techniques. Much has been written about techniques, and a book by the U.S. Department of Transportation covers much of the material (1978).

Strategy is, however, just as important, and far less has been written about it. The decision-making process is divided into four phases:

1. Increasing awareness of the public
2. Increasing support among the public
3. Increasing availability and use of valid information
4. Narrowing the options to the point where decisions are made and actions are carried out

Any one of these does not present a particular challenge; it is the simultaneous movement on all four that creates the challenge for those involved in citizen participation.

Resources

Many excellent resources on citizen participation exist, and have been identified in Donald E. Voth and William S. Bonner (Eds.), Citizen Participation in Rural Development (Southern Rural Development Center, Mississippi State University, Rural Development Bibliography Series No. 8, 1977) and Citizen Participation in Rural Development: A Selected Bibliography (Southern Rural Development Center, Mississippi State University, Supplement I to SRDC Bibliography Series No. 6, 1978).

Thus we identify here only three, one dealing with basic philosophical issues, one dealing at a somewhat more practical level with citizen participation in the United States and one dealing in detail with citizen participation methods and techniques.


Figure II

The decision-making process with administrative citizen participation

Decision Making

Implementation

Sponsored Decision Making

Citizen

Local Gov't Decision Making

Figure II

Citizen participation strategy involves designing a citizen participation program in such a way that the sequence of events (including citizen participation techniques) leads to the most successful and most efficient achievement of the objectives.

Strategy can be viewed from the point of view of timing, or the phases through which the program goes, and from the point of view of general directions toward which the program must move. Phases are frequently determined by the decision to be influenced, and in many government agencies the points at which citizen input can be effective are clearly specified. Ideally, citizen participation is not wholly determined by decision-making phases. Rather, decision-making phases should be determined, at least in part, by the internal dynamics of citizen participation.

The following four directions:

1. Increasing awareness of the public
2. Increasing support among the public
3. Increasing availability and use of valid information
4. Narrowing the options to the point where decisions are made and actions are carried out

Any one of these does not present a particular challenge; it is the simultaneous movement on all four that creates the challenge for those involved in citizen participation.

Resources

Many excellent resources on citizen participation exist, and have been identified in Donald E. Voth and William S. Bonner (Eds.), Citizen Participation in Rural Development (Southern Rural Development Center, Mississippi State University, Rural Development Bibliography Series No. 8, 1977) and Citizen Participation in Rural Development: A Selected Bibliography (Southern Rural Development Center, Mississippi State University, Supplement I to SRDC Bibliography Series No. 6, 1978).

Thus we identify here only three, one dealing with basic philosophical issues, one dealing at a somewhat more practical level with citizen participation in the United States and one dealing in detail with citizen participation methods and techniques.


EDUCATIONAL NEEDS PROJECTION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Dr. Gerald C. Whitlock
Department of Science Education
Alabama A&M University

Why a network on educational needs projection and rural development? Traditionally, rural governments have spent more money on education than on any other function, and education has served rural families well by preparing their children for modern careers. However, until recent years, and particularly since World War II, rural communities have been losing large numbers of their educated young people due to continuous de-population.

If rural communities are to recover some of the human resources they have sent into the larger community and to retain more of those they continue to produce, a concerted effort to match rural educational needs and resources to rural development efforts is required. This network has surveyed educational and rural development literature to document the extent and specific direction of trends in collaboration between educational complexes and rural communities. A summary perspective of the network’s findings is presented here.

Trends in Educational Needs Projection Methodology

Educational research, whether it addresses needs assessment, planning, experimentation, or evaluation, is pervasive. From 1965 to 1975 over 30,000 dissertations which deal with educational topics have been written. However, only 80 of these titles have been identified as methodological applications specialized to predict, project or forecast public educational futures and needs (1). Also, of several hundred dissertations dealing with public school problems of 17 Southern states and Puerto Rico, only six as indicated by their titles, specialized in prediction or forecasting applications for a state or locality within a state (1,8).

Even though forecasting methodologies are seldom used in dissertation research, the project has observed several trends which provide the basis of a forecast as to the future of educational needs projection in the region.

Among the 80 dissertations identified as using forecasting methodologies, opinion surveys prevail over statistical or quantitative methods (demographic or economic) methodologies. Only 15 of these dissertations used statistical models while 65 used some variations of opinion surveys (1,8).

Since 1965, use of opinion survey models has increased rapidly county wide compared with a modest increase in the use of statistical models (1,8).

Southern based dissertations accounted for 73 percent of the 15 statistical models but only 28 percent of the 65 opinion survey models (1,8).

Since 1969 outside the South and since 1972 at Southern universities, the greater use of opinion survey forecasting in educational dissertations has been spurred by the adoption of an interactive survey technique, Delphi (1,9).

Regardless of the region of the country, Delphi tends to first be used to sample opinions of educators. However, after the first four years of experiment in non-Southern universities, 10 of 13 Delphi dissertations have sampled opinions of community respondents. A similar trend may be expected at Southern universities. Through 1975, however, only six similar Southern dissertations used community based samples (1,11).

Southern region authors of dissertations tended to use Delphi more frequently with national or regional samples, whether they be educators or community based, than did non-Southern dissertation writers. The latter used local samples more often (1,11).

Implications of Trends for Educational Needs Forecasting in the Region

The prevalence of statistical forecasting of educational needs in the Southern states is in part due to a more centralized administration of public schools. Properly so, states in the region have been more concerned with quantifiable issues such as enrollment rates including kindergartens, integration, teacher-student ratios, and percent with a high school education (2). Also, the proportion of the nation’s public school enrollment attending Southern schools is growing. All these trends suggest that the South’s proportion of the nation’s total public school expenditure must be growing too. In 1974, however, region wide public educational expenditures per child were about the same as they were in the late 1960’s, 80 percent of the national average (3). This record compares unfavorably with the only study of regional level projections found in the literature. It projected by 1975, an increase to 82.7 percent of the national average (4). In short, the record shows no growth in per child education expenditures relative to the rest of the country.

Though increased efficiency and effectiveness of the region’s schools might be increasing even though relative expenditures aren’t. Traditional state level funding formulas are typically based on number, not the quality of a program. If numbers fall, teaching units are cut. To provide an efficient educational system which is also responsive to changing needs in a no-growth environment, some teachers have to be retaught or replaced, and existing resources have to be reallocated. To determine if increased efficiency as well as increased effectiveness is being accomplished side by side in an apparent no-growth environment, longitudinal trend studies of student performance scores are needed. Such studies are rare. Hopefully, controversy that has inhibited performance studies will turn to informed dialogue grounded in open analysis of the trends.

In summary, to complement the new series of national projections and digests of education statistics (5,6) and to measure relative progress of the region, more regional and local projections compared with actual performance are needed by policy makers and the public. With one-third of the nation’s youth living in the South, and half of these in non-metro districts, there is no doubt that the relative educational well-being of the region’s youth should be a major concern of local problem solving.

The observed trend toward more opinion based research, participatory type decision making, and the use of techniques such as Delphi, (7) suggests a need for a much closer relationship between the researcher and the users of research. If the high level of local participation in decision making observed in non-Southern states is to be observed in the Southern region, it may be due to wider recognition that the fate of centrally determined policies remains at the local level with principals, teachers, students and parents. If a trend toward more local participation in educational planning is to be established, there are several ways it may be facilitated. Useful suggestions documented in the literature and discussed specifically to rural communities are presented next.

Implementing Rural School Linkages for Rural Development

In Rural Schools as a Mechanism for Rural Development, the authors cite four concerns which emerge. Three are essential to rural development strategies: (a) increased problem solving and administration utilities in regional, state and Federal organizations which serve local areas; (b) stronger linkages between the levels so that a two-way exchange can occur; (c) research and development as an on-going process which will continuously enable individual communities and organizations to improve their development capacity; and (d) a revised organizational arrangement that makes use of the capabilities of public and private educational and research institutions (8).

All of these elements imply intensive interaction between problem solving activities on the one hand and knowledge production and utilization activities on the other.

The Micropolitan Development show how rural schools can be financed more equitably and operated more efficiently. They observe that those problems are often best understood and corrected at the local level by able school administrators (9). This conclusion implies that regional, state and Federal levels could be in greatest service to the local level by encouraging local innovation. Because of centralized funding systems in most states of the region, this is easier said than done.

Two working models of how local initiative is encouraged in the face of centralized funding of education, one outside the region and one in the South, are presented here. The four collaborative elements cited above, which combine problem solving with knowledge production activities, are incorporated in these models.

The Rural Futures Development Strategy of the Northwest Regional Education Laboratory, with headquarters in Portland, Oregon, is perhaps the most highly productive rural educational research effort found in the literature. It involves the community directly in implementing research; therefore, the
community benefits directly from the research effort. Key elements of this research strategy (10, 11) are the community process facilitators and the school-community groups (SCG). The process facilitators are trained in community decision-making and problem-solving processes. The SCG is created by the school board and works hand in hand with the facilitators. Since it is commonly selected to represent the diverse "opinion groups" in the community, the SCG may differ with the board and the administration. Through the process facilitator, the SCG acquires new community needs-assessment, decision-making, and problem-solving skills, while providing communication links to the community. With a focus on process, under the eye of the school board, an ever-expanding community participation in school development processes.

In the second case, a similar community approach to vocational education planning is emerging in a few "sunbelt" states. The Research and Curriculum Unit for Vocational Technical Education at the University of Mississippi (Ole Miss) has developed a comprehensive research program to evaluate the impact of community decision making and problem-solving methods in community development. The unit's goals are to develop effective methods to: (a) provide decision support to community decision makers, (b) evaluate the impact of community decision making, and (c) develop community training programs.

Related Resources for Educational Needs Projection and Rural Development
First, a vocational director or school board interested in developing an industrial services program should go to its state vocational education and curriculum unit. However, not all states are promoting industrial services programs at the local level. In most states the initiative rests with the local school district. This is where community leadership initiatives should be followed. An educational leadership, the communities, especially those in the rural South with emerging industry, have the most at stake in developing a locally based industrial services program.

A second institutional resource that should be tapped is Title V of the Rural Development Act of 1972. Title V office is located at each state's land grant institution. Helping people improve their communities is the main emphasis of the Title V projects. For example, Alabama and Georgia have established a Model Center on working with local industrial development boards in attracting industry. An aggressive industrial services program performed through the local school would make it possible for any county to offer a more attractive package.

Third, universities interested in training vocational directors are natural resources for communities wishing to establish an industrial services program. For example, an Alabama A&M University Vocational Educational unit, (18) by consulting with vocational directors and advisory councils in rural counties with emerging industrial complexes, is sharing its experience in industrial service and at the same time, gaining more experience. Selected conference and survey techniques are utilized which in turn provide local communities experience with additional problem solving tools. Through helping vocational directors and advisory councils more fully conceive of their jobs as that of producing an industrial service program, universities are helping local educational systems provide an additional service to local communities.

A fourth important resource which vocational directors may look to is local private or quasi-private organizations which are working to promote human resource development and attract industry. An example of such an organization is the Minority Peoples' Council on the Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway (19). The Council's activities have focused on providing mechanisms to link in inexperienced but capable local labor force to a rapidly emerging construction and industrial complex in the region. Local interest has thrived on the belief that a properly organized industrial services program could provide the local labor force with higher paying jobs. By developing new resources, local labor force migrates from other regions.

One local advisory councils and vocational directors have marshaled these several resources, they will have accumulated a diversivied set of experiences and a track record in providing services to industry. In turn, they will be better equipped to make their case through the traditional administrative and legislative channels.

The Universities' Role
Judging by voids in the literature, universities which serve rural training by bringing and supporting much of its local leadership need to be more responsive to the changing needs of that leadership. For example, universities which train teachers often don't get involved in community-school cooperation. But the leaders in training are training will certainly need to know how their cooperation works and how they can help it.

Universities which train teachers can do this by making available more community related curriculum including approaches to school-community research on everything from vocational counseling and job creation efforts in the local community to the study of local sources of revenue and the financing of education. Traditional educational needs projection processes can also be complemented by teaching a variety of techniques, including achievement. These techniques are perhaps particularly suited to rural areas where educational communities are traditionally closely linked.

In short, the universities might better serve the community by emphasizing training of rural leadership in community process skills as basic to their formal role of legitimating and recognizing rural leadership.

BIBLIOGRAPHY
THE DELIVERY OF HEALTH CARE SERVICES IN RURAL AREAS

Dr. R. David Mustian
Department of Sociology and Anthropology
North Carolina State University

One of the basic beliefs of this society is that all Americans, regardless of social status and earning capacity, are entitled to the best health care that is available. Over the past several decades, attitudes toward health have undergone an emphasis on treatment of health prob-
lems to one on prevention. Regardless of their position in life, individuals with physical or mental problems are treated in conjunction with their environment rather than as isolated organisms. In- creasing attention is being paid to the concept of positive health whereby health is a function of both well-being and the absence of disease.

Two problems emerge with respect to the delivery of health care. First, what behavior is encompassed in the concept of health? The goals of health care systems seem to be to promote health, but in reality, health care seems to be concentrated on reaction to a disease rather than prevention (13). Mankind has expressed an interest in health back to antiquity (32). Many people now view health care services as encompassing personal and community factors such as maintenance of health, control of illness, solid waste disposal, immunization pro-
grams, etc., while medical care generally refers to care given specifically for illness, with particular emphasis on patho-
physiological and social problems (24).

Secondly, is health care a right or responsibility? While there is some question as to whether quality health care is available for all individuals, there appears to be a consensus in this country is committed to the concept of health care as a basic right (34). On the other hand, concerted efforts, at least philosophically, are challenging health care as a right and suggesting that responsi-
Gibility on the part of the individual should be emphasized (25).

Thus, the application of the basic belief above has not been received or adopted throughout society. Attitudes toward health, availability and accessibility of facilities, location of medical personnel, and the acceptance or rejection of individuals as patients vary quite markedly from region to region. Historically, even the incidence and prevalence of certain diseases have varied by region.

Obviously, need for health care varies over time; Control and treatment of contagious diseases have been effected in most areas with the resultant action being the need to focus attention on degen-
erative diseases and mental problems. And yet, a significant question remains — what are visible indicators of health and/or lack of health among the popu-
lation of an area? For some time a relationship between number of health personnel and health status has been posited. Now, evidence seems to suggest no relationship between health status and number of personnel (30 and 28). For some time, place of residence and size of place have been identified as major influences on health care. Rural residents usually experience greater difficulty in access to medical personnel and facilities than urban residents. This is especially critical to a medical practitioner to locate in an area or an agency’s decision to provide certain services is influenced by size of place and density of population. Com-
nunities experiencing rapid growth or decline face similar problems with health care services. This calls for community decision-making or a solution to the problem of how to recruit personnel and build facilities in a growth period or how to retain personnel and maintain facilities with a loss of popu-
lation. The major population shift in the 70's has encouraged development and utilization of perceptor programs, Area Health Education Centers, and the National Health Service Corps (75).

One of the most important things for all of us to realize and recognize is that health does not exist in a vacuum. Health, in its true essence, is but one aspect of the quality of life which includes all of the socio-economic, ecological, and edu-
cational factors which make for a satis-
factory living situation. The health care system is but one part of the total com-
"munity system. The overall concern of us all is to effect a change in the quality of life, not only for those needing the care, but also for those who are doing the caring.

To be sure, there is a direct link between the development and delivery of health care services and other community services. The health care delivery system as a part of the total social system of a community must function to meet the needs of people. Health care, like any other service, requires organization, man-
power, financing, and facilities. Organi-
zation involves both structural and process factors. Primary interest from a sociological perspective on the structural factors involves the provider-consumer relationships. The process factor is the means by which health care delivery systems function.

The development, structure, and de-


ability of services. Possible solutions include co-operative ventures by commu-
unities in securing personnel and facilities, acceptance of new health workers, and full utilization of available technology to provide services to all areas.

Accessibility to Services

Accessibility is a problem in both rural and urban areas but not necessarily for the same reasons. In urban areas, problems of access issues, but economic responsibility shifts. Governmental struc-
tures must increasingly question the delivery of services in terms of economic support.

The major question’s answer may reside within the general populace. The question: What health care do I want and am I willing to pay for it? Prather in another way, is health care a must in my perception of quality survival? From a systems perspective, the major question may be: Do we want to deliver health care services to the total population or should we concentrate on special popu-
lations such as the aged, the rural, or the disabled?

Another basic question is whether the system can absorb greater costs or whether the consumer should assume greater financial responsibility. Evidence from the literature is not clear. Results indicate that: 1) consumers are willing to pay higher charges in urban areas than rural areas that they will receive better care (11); 2) consumers are willing to pay more taxes to get better services (13); 3) consumers will exert the necessary effort to obtain services (19); and 4) income, transportation, and ethnic background are not barriers to seeking help (22). There is some evidence, however, that individuals from the lower social structure perceived lack of funds as a major barrier seeking help and in turn created the system of health care services and low esteem of physicians (12).

Major Models of Delivery Systems

Various models have been proposed for the delivery of health care services. The first model which I will describe is a model no longer in existence. It is based on the free enterprise model whereby local private practitioners operate in the market to provide services that will be

health care services and in turn on the quality of survival. In our industrial society, economic activity revolves around the production and distribution of goods. Primary emphasis in an indus-

Dr. R. David Mustian
Department of Sociology and Anthropology
North Carolina State University

One of the basic beliefs of this society is that all Americans, regardless of social status and earning capacity, are entitled to the best health care that is available. Over the past several decades, attitudes toward health have undergone an emphasis on treatment of health prob-
lems to one on prevention. Regardless of their position in life, individuals with physical or mental problems are treated in conjunction with their environment rather than as isolated organisms. In- creasing attention is being paid to the concept of positive health whereby health is a function of both well-being and the absence of disease.

Two problems emerge with respect to the delivery of health care. First, what behavior is encompassed in the concept of health? The goals of health care systems seem to be to promote health, but in reality, health care seems to be concentrated on reaction to a disease rather than prevention (13). Mankind has expressed an interest in health back to antiquity (32). Many people now view health care services as encompassing personal and community factors such as maintenance of health, control of illness, solid waste disposal, immunization pro-
grams, etc., while medical care generally refers to care given specifically for illness, with particular emphasis on patho-
physiological and social problems (24).

Secondly, is health care a right or responsibility? While there is some question as to whether quality health care is available for all individuals, there appears to be a consensus in this country is committed to the concept of health care as a basic right (34). On the other hand, concerted efforts, at least philosophically, are challenging health care as a right and suggesting that responsi-
Gibility on the part of the individual should be emphasized (25).

Thus, the application of the basic belief above has not been received or adopted throughout society. Attitudes toward health, availability and accessibility of facilities, location of medical personnel, and the acceptance or rejection of individuals as patients vary quite markedly from region to region. Historically, even the incidence and prevalence of certain diseases have varied by region.

Obviously, need for health care varies over time; Control and treatment of contagious diseases have been effected in most areas with the resultant action being the need to focus attention on degen-
erative diseases and mental problems. And yet, a significant question remains — what are visible indicators of health and/or lack of health among the popu-
lation of an area? For some time a relationship between number of health personnel and health status has been posited. Now, evidence seems to suggest no relationship between health status and number of personnel (30 and 28). For some time, place of residence and size of place have been identified as major influences on health care. Rural residents usually experience greater difficulty in access to medical personnel and facilities than urban residents. This is especially critical to a medical practitioner to locate in an area or an agency’s decision to provide certain services is influenced by size of place and density of population. Com-
nunities experiencing rapid growth or decline face similar problems with health care services. This calls for community decision-making or a solution to the problem of how to recruit personnel and build facilities in a growth period or how to retain personnel and maintain facilities with a loss of popu-
lation. The major population shift in the 70's has encouraged development and utilization of perceptor programs, Area Health Education Centers, and the National Health Service Corps (75).

One of the most important things for all of us to realize and recognize is that health does not exist in a vacuum. Health, in its true essence, is but one aspect of the quality of life which includes all of the socio-economic, ecological, and edu-
cational factors which make for a satis-
factory living situation. The health care system is but one part of the total com-
"munity system. The overall concern of us all is to effect a change in the quality of life, not only for those needing the care, but also for those who are doing the caring.

To be sure, there is a direct link between the development and delivery of health care services and other community services. The health care delivery system as a part of the total social system of a community must function to meet the needs of people. Health care, like any other service, requires organization, man-
power, financing, and facilities. Organi-
zation involves both structural and process factors. Primary interest from a sociological perspective on the structural factors involves the provider-consumer relationships. The process factor is the means by which health care delivery systems function.

The development, structure, and de-


ability of services. Possible solutions include co-operative ventures by commu-
unities in securing personnel and facilities, acceptance of new health workers, and full utilization of available technology to provide services to all areas.

Accessibility to Services

Accessibility is a problem in both rural and urban areas but not necessarily for the same reasons. In urban areas, problems of access issues, but economic responsibility shifts. Governmental struc-
tures must increasingly question the delivery of services in terms of economic support.

The major question’s answer may reside within the general populace. The question: What health care do I want and am I willing to pay for it? Prather in another way, is health care a must in my perception of quality survival? From a systems perspective, the major question may be: Do we want to deliver health care services to the total population or should we concentrate on special popu-
lations such as the aged, the rural, or the disabled?

Another basic question is whether the system can absorb greater costs or whether the consumer should assume greater financial responsibility. Evidence from the literature is not clear. Results indicate that: 1) consumers are willing to pay higher charges in urban areas than rural areas that they will receive better care (11); 2) consumers are willing to pay more taxes to get better services (13); 3) consumers will exert the necessary effort to obtain services (19); and 4) income, transportation, and ethnic background are not barriers to seeking help (22). There is some evidence, however, that individuals from the lower social structure perceived lack of funds as a major barrier seeking help and in turn created the system of health care services and low esteem of physicians (12).

Major Models of Delivery Systems

Various models have been proposed for the delivery of health care services. The first model which I will describe is a model no longer in existence. It is based on the free enterprise model whereby local private practitioners operate in the market to provide services that will be

health care services and in turn on the quality of survival. In our industrial society, economic activity revolves around the production and distribution of goods. Primary emphasis in an indus-

health care services and in turn on the quality of survival. In our industrial society, economic activity revolves around the production and distribution of goods. Primary emphasis in an indus-

obtained and purchased by a group of private consumers. Regulation is minimal from the societal level, and internal control is affected through professional affiliation. Minimal control over economic factors (i.e., fees and charges) is exerted from systems external to the medical one.

A second model is based on the idea that organization of services with a regional or area focus can best affect the delivery of health care services. This model requires considerable bureaucratic organization. A major setback seems to be in the administration of the program due to the need for cooperation and coordination between administrative, service, and consumer systems (7 and 11).

A third model, perhaps still in the testing phase, is the development of competitive health care systems. The fundamental issue is whether areas with the population and economic bases that would support several health systems. In rural areas, economic support may be difficult. Joint or co-operative ventures may be the needed form of organization.

Organization of Health Care Systems

The major point to be made here is that health care in the future is most likely to be organized on a regional and systems basis. Major assets of the regional emphasis are: 1) coverage of areas of sparse populations-the concept of availability; 2) the concentration of facilities, personnel, and services to provide comprehensive services; 3) provision of specialties, 4) sharing of economic ventures, and 5) professional support systems.

The physician as an isolated medical system presents many problems. He cannot be all things to all people. Cover- age cannot possibly be complete. Professional- colleague is missing. Group or joint practices provide a minimal professional setting.

In rural communities need to consider alternative solutions in terms of facilities and equipment. Providing basic care with the support of facilities in the development of nearby urban areas may be the most viable alternative for sparsely populated areas.

Health Personnel

There seems to be a general consensus in many circles that a critical issue in the quality of health care is the need to have more physicians. Various programs have been implemented to augment the existing physicians in the community. In addition, major efforts have been implemented to aid the personnel issue through the development and training of new medical professionals such as physician's assistants and nurse practitioners (10).

Early evidence suggests that consumers have accepted these medical extenders. Emphasis should be turned to coordinate these roles with traditional roles. Of equal importance is the need for legislative bodies to carefully examine these roles and to enact the necessary legislation so that these extenders can perform their functions as members of the total health care team.

Communication, Transportation, and Technology

Communication systems and technological innovations will play increasingly important roles in the delivery of health services, and in some instances they may be the basis for the survival of many individuals. A communication network, particularly in rural areas, permits professional exchange, specialty consultation, and health team cooperation. Some of the feeling of isolation from colleagues is removed with communication and, in the interprofessional communication, the physician has the means of interacting with specialists when the need arises.

Rapid transportation, when coupled with communication, provides a complementary degree of availability and accessibility to our smallest communities (9). The availability and impact of emergency services are viable means of providing help in rural areas. Communication and transportation innovations make facilities available to a large percentage of the population.

We let consider the impact that computer technology can have on our society. Our technology, especially our computer systems enable us to store massive amounts of material, synthesize data bits, create data profiles, and produce output that is rapid and more efficient. A computerized filing system gives the physician the capacity to compile symptom profiles and identify patients who may be high risks for given health conditions. Such use has tremendous potential for preventive health care.

The People's View

With an increase in the quality of life, individuals generally focus greater attention on their health care needs. To increase the quality of our survival, each individual will have to turn his attention to a perspective of prevention and maintenance. With an expanding population, we must direct our energies at prevention programs rather than responding to crises situations. While we can do much through education programs, ultimately the individual must assume increased awareness and responsibility. Each individual needs to be informed (7), and each must be willing to be an active participant, e.g., community board member (21 and 4). With increased awareness, each consumer will monitor his health state and seek care. Getting consumers to seek care from a health care team rather than from folk healers (20) may be a result of informing consumers of services and of what to expect when treated by an agency (22).

In the future, the quality of health care can be enhanced by the consumer's acceptance of para-professionals and cooperation in the best place of available and accessible facilities. The recognition that health and health care systems are but parts of total living and total community living produces results in terms of quality of health care and quality of survival.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY


8. Bible, Bond L. Health Care in Rural Areas. Atlanta, Georgia: Paper presented at the Association of Southern Agricultural Workers Annual Meeting, February 5-7,


An old adage states that “Everyone talks about the weather, but nobody does anything about it.” Well, to a certain extent the same thing might be said about the situation of America’s small farmers.

While there are programs and agencies which offer various types of aid to small farmers, the sharp decline in the number of small farmers and the fact that many of these farmers have incomes well below the poverty level indicate that not enough is being done.

State and Federal agencies and private foundations have convened a number of conferences and workshops to determine exactly what the problems of small farmers are and to offer solutions to those problems. Unfortunately, all too often small farmers were not included among those attending the conferences and workshops, and their firsthand perspectives were missed.

In an effort to bring those important perspectives into the discussion of small farmers’ problems and viable solutions for them, the United States Department of Agriculture and the Community Services Administration sponsored a series of five regional small farm conferences around the country this summer. More than 400 small farmers from all over the United States met to discuss their problems and their role in agriculture and rural living at the five conferences, the first of which was held in Montgomery, AL, July 25-26.

According to a statement issued at the first conference by USDA and CSA officials, “The purpose of this conference is to examine the current status of small farmers in the Southeastern region and to make concrete recommendations for action to USDA and CSA. The goal is protecting and strengthening existing small landholders and attempting to provide opportunities for new farmers to enter agriculture.”

Representatives from several different Federal and state agencies in the South-east region also attended the two-day conference. William H. Harrison, Southern Rural Policy Congress president, and Elizabeth Wright, Alabama state director of the Farmers Home Administration, served as co-chairpersons for the first session. Featured speakers were Joan Wallace, assistant secretary of agriculture for administration, and Dr. Graciela Olivarez, director of the Community Services Administration.

Wallace told the small farmer delegates that the conferences were being held because “We believe that people who are in need of assistance also have knowledge of how that assistance might be structured to give the most benefit for the least dollars invested. In other words, we believe your suggestions and counsel in conferences and workshops such as this can be highly beneficial in the decision and legislative process where USDA represents your concerns and needs.

"Basically, we are having these conferences because Secretary of Agriculture Bob Bergland is committed to listening to your concerns and recommendations. I assure you there will be followup action to these conferences.”

Olivarez noted that “over the years, Washington has periodically become very interested in the conditions of rural living. There have been numerous studies, commissions, and all manner of recommendations. Then, for some reason, the interest would lag. But the problems remain.” However, the CSA director promised, “We don’t intend to let that happen this time.”

Pruning the farmer delegates for taking time away from their farming operations to participate in the conference, Olivarez said, “It is a real measure of your interest and dedication that you are spending these two days with us.”

Olivarez described the regional small farm conferences as the beginning of a “new era of partnership” between government agencies and small farmers and asked the delegates to “take careful note of everything that’s said, so that in the months to come you can remind us and hold us to our words.”

Delegates spent the majority of their time at the conference in a series of seminars devoted to a discussion of several problems confronting small farmers. Five problem areas were identified prior to the conference, including:


Non-delegates (the various agency personnel) met in a session separate from the delegate groups. This was done in an effort to keep the professionals from influencing the direction of the discussions among the delegates.

The delegates discussed several specific issues in each of the five problem areas. In addition, they added to the list several other problems they thought were affecting them. After the discussion, delegates ranked the problems according to their importance to them. The ratings were then compiled by a computer, and the delegates’ ranking of the problems was published and distributed.

The chart on the following page shows the delegates ranking of problems in each of the five problem areas and a sixth area, Second Round Problems, which includes additional problems named by the delegates. Although as many as 20 specific problems were identified and ranked in each area, only the top 10 are included here. Problems were rated on a scale from five to one with five indicating problems of utmost importance.
RURAL DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH NEEDS

Dr. Kenneth E. Pigg
Extension Sociologist
University of Kentucky

The news from Capitol Hill about the future of rural development research funding has not been very good recently. In spite of, or perhaps because of, continuing reluctance on the part of the White House to provide support for rural development activities, the U.S. Congress has held several recent hearings on the subject. At issue seem to be the problem of past irrelevance or low levels of utilization of rural development research, the appropriate locus of funding within the USDA budget, and the lack of an organized constituency which benefits from such research and which may apply pressure on legislators for funds. In this discussion, I plan to concentrate on the questions involving the linkages between research in rural development and activities, and the locus of funding issue, particularly as they relate to Extension programs.

Rural development as a research focus, a concept for empirical study, is extraordinarily complex. As a policy to guide public decision-making, it may be even more difficult to comprehend and utilize effectively. This is exemplified in the present dissatisfaction over the Rural Development Act of 1972 which has emphasized rural industrialization. This is especially significant since many people now moving to nonmetropolitan homes are not particularly motivated by improving job opportunities in rural areas. Most people who are moving to more rural communities seem to be finding employment in service industries—an extremely “footloose” set of occupations. Rural Development research which separates “farm” from “non-farm” problems only compounds the problem. The development and selection of rural development strategies are, by necessity and preference, agricultural strategies. I believe this to be the real intent of RDA-72, but at present, this is not an accessible strategy because we have devoted little research effort to either means or effects, and so, have effectively ruled it out.

State Extension specialists supporting rural development programs are often called upon for assistance in local communities. One form of that assistance is technical; the specialist is asked to serve as a resource person to local efforts in identi-
alternative forms of accountability is also needed. One means is the continued emphasis on projects with specific rural development responsibilities in rather small geographic areas. Another is to develop more sensitive evaluation techniques for program support which will satisfy the accountability requirements. Program procedures should permit the negotiation of criteria for determining accountability and would approach rural development in holistic fashion.

Giving serious considerations to these suggestions could serve as a starting point for addressing the issue of research availability to rural people. However, there is a growing and growing need for more research in a wide variety of subject areas. For example, we are seeing a rather large volume of research now assembled on rural industrialization and its impacts on rural communities. Similarly, the number of studies of energy plant sitings is growing. However, we know little of real significance regarding the impacts of tourist industries on local areas. In Kentucky, where tourism is annually a one billion dollar industry, we need to know more about community planning ways to deal with the related impacts, but we do not know very much, and the planning is haphazard and risky at present.

The national demand for energy has increased the scale of coal mining operations dramatically. Since coal is a non-renewable resource, the future economic and social health of the rural areas is open to serious questions. What is likely to happen when coal is depleted? How long can we move from coal? How can we mitigate the effects of the demise of coal? How can we better use present benefits from coal exploitation to assure a solid future for families and communities?

Many other questions might be, and are being posed for research activities. Even when this research is completed, there will remain a tremendous number of needs, because this is research completed at a high level of generality, not often accepted as valid in particular rural communities. As noted earlier, two kinds of knowledge are needed: generalizable and locality specific. Research which is acceptable within a professional discipline due to its prospects for generalization will continue to be done by university faculty members, but the locality specific information needs will mostly be ignored. Extension staff members have been sensitive to these needs and have developed techniques which will provide for the development of the necessary information. However, due to personnel shortages and the lack of firm continuing administrative support at all levels for rural development activities, the need cannot be adequately served.

The lack of emphasis on rural development research is not difficult to understand. As noted earlier, this is often considered "high risk" research; its "payoff" is often questionable; the research itself is often costly, and often requires a great deal of time. Another reason is that rural development in the land-grant system does not have the organized constituency other programs enjoy.

How can these problems be effectively addressed? The funding for section 603 of the RDA-72, provided for the first time this year, is perhaps one way of encouraging research which is applicable and useful in rural development. However, the funding is insufficient to have much impact, and the criteria for gaining access to these funds will not allow many crucial needs to be met. Greater accountability for existing funding can be demanded by Federal agencies in a manner that will raise the priority ranking of rural development. Present Title V funding could be arranged to support locality specific research needs identified by local rural communities rather than university researchers. Other similar procedures could be established to increase the emphasis placed on rural development research and to insure relevance and utility.

Additionally, many rural development strategies presently go unexplored in any single area or category which might be labeled "alternatives" or "nontraditional approaches." Such approaches would include worker self-managed enterprises, alternative housing, centrally managed individual or cluster water supplies or waste water treatment facilities, and health maintenance organizations among others. Such innovative approaches are regarded skeptically by rural communities. If it is difficult to secure individual adoption of innovative approaches, it is even more difficult to secure community acceptance for social innovations!

Here too, the only viable approach is locality specific research. Such research could explore community attributes and knowledge about potential social changes, determine probable acceptance, and monitor adoption factors during the early years of the innovation. However, the constraints mentioned above still apply, and the least costly manner of support is general program funding rather than individual project funding.

I fully support the intentions of Congress and the Executive department to improve accountability in programs involving the expenditure of public funds. This is not impossible in rural development activities or research. The land-grant universities and the Cooperative Extension Service have begun to be more responsive to rural development needs, primarily in response to public criticism and the opportunities presented by the Rural Development Act and Title V thereof. It would be a shame if support for both locality-specific activities and the more generalizable were withdrawn or reduced at the time when accountability was just being developed.


3Don F. Hatchberger, "Rural Researcher's Record Has Not Been Encouraging," Rural America, 3, 8(July 1978).

Dr. Richard L. Floyd Economist-Rural Estate Dr. Lorrie Jones TAEK and Associate Professor Texas A&M University

Expansion of employment opportunities has long been a goal of rural Texas communities. At the same time, concern is escalating over the economic impact of industrial growth. The Texas Agricultural Experiment Station and the Texas Agricultural Extension Service have utilized Title V support to develop two computerized, analytical models to assist local decision-makers.

In striving to expand employment opportunities, the abundant Texas employment data provide an information base useful for tracing changes in employment and for planning a variety of economic development activities. A computerized shift-share analysis model was developed to compare changes in a county's or group of counties' (within Texas) employment growth to state employment growth. This technique of analysis is essentially descriptive, but yields more information than normal trend analysis by identifying the contribution to the local growth made by the region's specific mix and competitive position of industry. Hence, the analysis provides estimates of the region's growth relative to other regions and the state as a whole, and indicates those industries for which the region may have competitive growth advantages.

Since broad economic trends are of interest, an analysis of the structure of the selected region's economy is conducted at the Standard Industrial Classification Division level. However, the model is capable of presenting results at the two-digit sector level to enable the exploration of the region's employment shifts in greater depth. Texas data currently available from the Department of Labor allows analysis of shifts between 1967, 1970 and 1974. Plans have been made to update analysis as data is made available by the Department of Labor. It should be noted that the analysis of any group of counties provides flexibility to meet needs of varied planning units. Location of industry in rural communities generally results in increased employment and income of rural residents. Nevertheless, rapidly rising public service costs, increased traffic congestion, water shortages, and a host of other problems are causing rural communities throughout Texas to carefully evaluate industrial growth in terms of costs as well as benefits. The computerized, cost-benefit evaluation model developed by the Texas Agricultural Experiment Station and Texas Agricultural Extension Service provides insights into the net economic impact of industrial development and expansion on a community's (1) private sector, (2) municipal government sector, (3) county government sector, and (4) school district sector. The model has applicability for rural towns, counties and regions throughout Texas. It provides a relatively inexpensive way to analyze the benefits and costs of industrial growth.

Industrial growth gives rise to changes in employment and resident population. Its economic impact reaches both the private and public sectors of the rural communities within which it is located. The private sector is impacted in terms of business sales, industrial and employee income. Public sector impacts pertain to tax revenues and expenditure of local government and school districts.

The industrial impact model is a general representation of the economic structure of a community. The model is a predictive device that estimates community economic impacts that may be expected during the first year of full employment operation of the newly located or expanded industrial plant. Default, user-provided data are entered into the model, giving rise to the estimated impacts of growth on the private and public sectors. The industrial impact estimates are presented in an easy-to-read data summary of results, costs, and net gain or loss to each sector of the local economy.
YOUTH ARE INVOLVED IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Dr. R. Gordon Holloman
Associate Professor, Resource Development
Agricultural Extension Service
University of Tennessee

Frequently we lose sight of the fact that many of our youth and young adults are extremely interested in the development and improvement of their communities. From observing many of their activities and interests, we have learned that the line of demarcation between concerns of youth and adults is vague, if it really exists at all. The 4-H/Community Development Program in Tennessee provided us with a concern we had not previously noticed: young people who are ready to assume responsible roles as citizens due, in part, to their activities as 4-H’ers.

Soon after the 4-H/CD Program was inaugurated, Cheyron Oil Company invited Tennessee to participate in the 4-H Community Pride program which it sponsored. Funds were to be used for a 4-H/CD program and the name 4-H Community Pride would be used. No other restrictions were placed on funds provided.

Now in its fourth year, the 4-H Community Pride program has provided many groups of 4-H’ers an opportunity to carry out worthwhile projects in their home communities and counties and, incidentally, to become more aware of the workings of local, county, and state governments and the community power structure. The objectives of the program stated generally are to improve the environmental situation in communities, to create community mindedness, and to carry out programs developed by 4-H’ers and involving other citizens in a unified community effort.

Close cooperation between the 4-H and resource development departments of the Extension Service has been maintained throughout the program with a member of the resource development staff acting as subject matter specialist. Keeping in mind the keen competitive spirit of 4-H’ers and the need for identifiable projects as part of the continuing program, Community Pride is based on the calendar year. Project proposals, including the need, schedule, and budget, are submitted for evaluation prior to January 1 of the project year. Proposals are evaluated and the entire funding provided by Cheyron Oil Company is used as “seed” money and distributed to the individual project groups. The addition of locally secured resources is suggested. These project groups are encouraged to include in their organization both teen and adult volunteer leaders. The calendar year program permits a wide variety of projects to be carried out whatever school related, holiday oriented, or seasonal.

A few ground rules have been established regarding the funding of projects. A maximum limit of $100 per project has been set; however, due to budgetary limitations and the large number of projects submitted, this has seldom been reached. Basic rules for awarding funds do not permit the use of Community Pride funds to purchase finished products for use in the community. Neither can Community Pride funds be used as a monetary contribution to a larger fund raising campaign. The intent of funding is to provide enough money to get the project started by purchase of raw materials. Participants are encouraged to seek additional funds, materials, contribution of labor, and technical assistance at the local level. A regional sponsor, the East Tennessee Community Improvement Committee, provides additional financial support for the 21 counties of upper East Tennessee. This sponsor takes the form of additional funds for “seed” money and for awards upon completion of projects.

In evaluation of both project proposals and reports, emphasis is placed on people involvement. The concept of individuality in most traditional 4-H project areas must be modified in favor of dependence on new 4-H members as legitimizers, resource persons and others vital to successful planning, progress, and completion of projects.

At the end of the contest year, project reports are submitted and judged at the district and state levels. Reports are judged on a total county basis, and district and state winning counties are selected. Award plaques are presented to the district winners and the state winner at Tennessee State 4-H Congress in April following the year of completion.

As in any relatively new area of 4-H activity, training of 4-H’ers, leaders, and agents is essential. This is done in a number of ways. Agents primarily engaged in 4-H and youth work receive training in conjunction with ongoing 4-H In-service Training. Basic concepts of community resource development are explained and related to the more traditional 4-H activities. Especially significant is the interest shown when the relationship of citizenship and leadership to 4-H/CD activities is explained.

State and district level 4-H conferences for senior 4-H’ers include training sessions on 4-H Community Pride. These training sessions serve as nuclei of trained teen leaders in their home counties.

Group meetings are held from time to time in counties requesting a state specialist to present programs to countywide groups of 4-H’ers, parents, leaders, and agents.

Specific projects are never suggested but rather are developed from the needs of communities without further guidance; however, they fit extremely well into the areas of the four major concerns of rural development outlined by USDA (community services and facilities, people building, economic improvement, and environmental improvement). Without exception, all projects can be related to these four areas. In training sessions, examples can be chosen from all program thrusts recognized by the Tennessee Agricultural Extension Service. Thus the relationship of 4-H Community Pride to both resource development and 4-H activities can be clearly explained. Although 4-H/CD is not recognized as an individual project for a 4-H’er, its relationship to citizenship and leadership has great appeal to the record book conscious, competitive, 4-H’er in any project area.

Participation in the competitive aspect of Community Pride includes 40 to 50 of the 65 counties in Tennessee, although many other counties have groups carrying out projects meeting the criteria for Community Pride.

Examples of projects are difficult to select. Generally speaking, younger 4-H’ers are more interested in action type projects and have been quite involved in improving equipment and facilities and in beautification of their school communities. Naturally, recreational facilities and environmental improvement are popular areas of interest to Community Pride groups of all ages. Older 4-H’ers, while interested in larger scale or countywide versions of similar projects, have also been inclined toward the general area of people development and the development of educational programs which are presented to 4-H clubs throughout their counties. For example, older groups have devoted a great deal of time to well planned projects to assist senior citizens in various ways. They have also become aware of the needs of economically, physically, and mentally disadvantaged children and have spent many hours in group and individual attention to these needs. During the bicentennial and succeeding years, groups of all ages made concerted efforts to beautify and draw attention to historic sites in Tennessee. One countywide group recorded, transcribed, and published a book consisting of reminiscences of older residents in their county. Others have been spectactors and active participants in public meetings considering matters of importance to their home communities.

Benefits to the overall 4-H program are sometimes easier to enumerate than to verify. Working in well-organized groups does develop teamwork. The use of many 4-H skills in practical application is undoubtedly encouraging to those involved. Contact and involvement with elected officials, resource persons, and others develops confidence and poise. Participation to organized groups of adults permit public speaking practice to be put into use. Citizenship and leadership training have become stronger, but possibly comments of agents involved have provided the most encouragement. It has been stated that involvement in 4-H Community Pride has kept seniors interested in 4-H after they felt that they had outgrown much of the program and that Community Pride participation gives them an opportunity to meet the "real world." Agents have also stated that 4-H Community Pride is a good rallying point where 4-H’ers of all ages can not only benefit their communities but can also show themselves to citizens of the community in a very favorable light.
PLANNING FOR GROWTH BENEFITS COMMUNITY

During the past few years, more and more rural areas have been faced with rapidly increasing urbanization. While there are some definite benefits in this trend, there are also definite problems associated with uncontrolled growth. In order to maximize the latter, rural communities have to engage in effective planning for these developments.

One such area, Maury County, TN, is taking positive steps to insure that it receives the greatest benefits possible from its growth. Located along the I-65 corridor which runs from Bowling Green, KY, through middle Tennessee to Huntsville, AL, this area is considered one of the five most rapidly urbanizing areas in the United States.

The Columbia-Maury County Development Corporation Delphi Project was created to identify, through the use of Delphi, the growth-related areas which the community needed to concern itself with. Delphi is a statistical method, in survey form, of obtaining a group of opinions on a given question, avoiding many of the problems normally associated with group discussions. Results of surveys are recirculated among participants and constantly clarified until a consensus is obtained. In addition to the consensus, dissenting attitudes and opinions are also gathered.

The project is a cooperative venture of numerous groups and individuals including the Nashville Urban Observatory city and county governments of Maury County; the Policy Analysis Division, Office of the Mayor of Metropolitan Nashville and Davidson County; the Mid-Cumberland Council of Governments; the State of Tennessee; the South Central Development District; the Federal Regional Council; the Tennessee Valley Authority; the Atlanta Regional Admin- istrator’s Staff of HUD; and various other participants from the public and private sectors.

After the Delphi survey results were compiled and analyzed, representatives of the groups met to determine a course of action based on the survey results. Project participants established seven task force groups to deal with those issues which they had identified as most important. The task force groups and their purposes are listed below.

1. Organizing a Rural Observatory: Established to deal with the possibilities of instituting a rural observatory to serve as a coordinating body between the public and private sectors in administering growth. This organization would be modeled after the Nashville Urban Observatory, and if instituted, would be the only such consortium in the nation dealing specifically with those problems unique to rural areas.

2. Agricultural Preservation: Formed to deal with the problem of maintaining existing agricultural land use and institutions in the face of residential and industrial growth.

3. Broad Health Care: Addresses the issue of development and maintenance of broad and comprehensive health care services effective throughout the entire rural area.

4. Education and Jobs: To study the growth of educational services and facilities as well as employment. These are placed together due to their intricate involvement with each other. This group will consider all levels of traditional education, as well as continuing education and employee education programs. One of the goals of this task force is to study the use of education and employment in an effort to provide opportunities that will be attractive to youth and consequently reduce outmigration of young people.

5. Tourism: To examine the tourist industry in Columbia-Maury County and make recommendations for dealing with the expansion of that industry as a direct result of completion of the Columbia Dam, the Natchez Trace Parkway, and the Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway.

6. How to Get the County to Accept Planning: To deal with the public relations aspects of long-range planning and development. Many people have unnecessarily bad preconceptions of what a group will seek to recommend ways in which the public may be made more aware of the benefits to be gained from cooperation by the public and private sectors in planning for the future.

7. Historic Preservation: Addresses the problems associated with preserving those locations and institutions that constitute a vital part of the area’s heritage throughout the growth process. It is important that the past remain an integral part of growth and progress. It is the goal of this committee that growth and progress be considered an addition to the past rather than a departure from it.

An effort such as the Columbia-Maury County Policy Delphi Project requires the enthusiasm and cooperation of many people in all walks of life. By working in cooperation with government and industry, citizens can insure that the growth which occurs in their area will be in the best interests of all concerned.

RESEARCH NOTES

SOUTHERN MIGRATION PATTERNS DEFY NATIONAL TRENDS

Metropolitan areas in the South are experiencing more rapid population growth than nonmetropolitan areas, according to a paper prepared by Vera J. Banks of the Economics, Statistics, and Cooperatives Service, USDA. While this fact might not seem particularly notable to anyone familiar with nationwide population trends of the 1960’s and 60’s-a-period during which there was large scale outmigration from nonmetropolitan areas—it is of definite note in light of a new phenomenon which has become evident in the first half of this decade.

Of the four major regions of the country, the South is the only one in which the population growth of metropolitan areas has continued to outpace that of nonmetropolitan areas from 1970 to 1975. This does not mean that nonmetropolitan areas in the South are not also growing. In fact, these areas experienced a 6.9 percent growth rate during the same period.

But it is in metropolitan growth that the South stands apart from the other regions of the country. The South leads the nation in this category with a 9.3 percent growth rate—almost two percentage points ahead of the West, with a 7.4 percent metropcte growth rate, and far outdistancing the North Central region (1.2 percent) and the Northeast (0.1 percent). Since the end of World War II, the South has become increasingly urbanized as rural employment opportunities dropped off sharply and large numbers of young people left rural areas to seek the higher standard of living and increased opportunities available in metro areas.

From 1950 to 1955, the South had a net population loss of 1.6 million people due to outmigration. From 1955 to 1970, the region had a net immigration of only about one million persons. However, from 1970-75, this trend took a sharp upturn, with a net immigration of 2.6 million persons occurring.

The change in migration patterns in the South can be attributed for the most part to the region’s nonmetropolitan counties. Rural towns and communities lost an average of 187,000 yearly due to outmigration during the 1960’s, but in the first half of this decade, that changed to an annual population gain of 150,000 people for these areas. In addition, the percentage of Southern nonmetropolitan counties suffering a decline in popu- lation has been cut in half, from almost 50 percent in the 1960’s to approximately 25 percent at present. Most of the nonmetropolitan counties still experiencing net population loss are located in the Mississippi Delta and Alabama Black Prairie, areas which built up large Black populations at the time the cotton plantation system was strongest.

Population statistics indicate that areas which have high concentrations of blacks continue to experience population decline, but the rate of decline has reduced significantly since the 1960’s. In addition, although the South’s nonmetropolitan areas are showing markedly improved population retention, this is not true for those areas with large numbers of farm residents. While retention has improved slightly in these areas, their population decline continues.

Metropolitan growth in the South has brought that region into line with the rest of the country in that more than half of the South’s population are now metro residents. But the Southern metro areas are considerably smaller than those in the other regions, a factor which helps to account for the South’s continued strong metro growth rate. Only a fifth of the region’s people live in metro areas of 1.5 million or greater population, while three-fifths of the rest of the country’s people live in such areas.

No one knows for certain how long these present popula- tion trends will go on, but it appears likely that they will continue for some time. And these changes in population patterns will have important effects on both areas losing population and those gaining it.

Areas losing population will probably experience problems of underused or vacant public schools, housing, and other facilities. In addition, these areas can expect greater concen- trations of elderly and more dependent people as the younger, more mobile members of the population move away.

On the other hand, areas experiencing increased immigration will have burgeoning demand for housing, health and social services, and other essential services. And in areas which attract large numbers of retirees, there will be a greater demand for recreational facilities and other services which cater to the needs and desires of the elderly.

It is clear that rapid population growth can cause just as many problems for an area as can population decline. There is a definite need for informed leadership to help guide affected areas through periods of adjustment to migration flow.
WHITE HOUSE EXPLORES NATIONAL RURAL POLICY

A White House task force has been established to look into the development of a National Rural Development Policy. The group is headed by Jack Watson, Assistant to the President for Intergovernmental Affairs, who is closely coordinating the task force's efforts with Alex Mercure, Agriculture's Assistant Secretary for Rural Development.

The task force is looking into ways to better coordinate and streamline existing rural programs so that they may better serve rural needs. The group is focusing on four areas—housing, health, transportation, and water and sewer. At present, no new legislation is being developed; however, the White House predicts that the rural initiative will eventually be as far-reaching as the Administration's recent urban initiatives.

Reprinted from Community Development Communications, 7 (August 1978), 1. Delaware Cooperative Extension Service.

FAMILY FARM DEVELOPMENT ACT TAKES FIRST STEP

Legislation intended to relieve the credit crunch many farmers are experiencing due to low farm prices and high operating costs is now in effect after President Carter signed the Agricultural Credit Act of 1978 August 4.

But most importantly, TITLE 4 of the Family Farm Development Act (H.R. 10376) was attached to this bill and is now law. This title contained an innovative, urgently needed Farm Family ownership loan program for small farmers and farm production cooperatives, at low-interest, low-payment levels.

Representative George Brown (D, Ca), sponsor of the Family Farm Development Act, was elated over this turn of events. "Small farmers have been ignored in recent years. Their credit needs have gone unaddressed due to a lack of interest and recognition of their contribution to our agricultural system," Brown said. "There are 1.6 million farmers with less than $20,000 in gross sales. Until now these farmers were turned away by private and public lending institutions alike. They now have somewhere to go."

The small farm loan program will provide:

1) Farm ownership loans at low, 5 percent interest levels;
2) a system of balloon payments whereby a farmer can pay less principal and interest at first, with the difference amortized in later years;
3) funds for farm production cooperatives and small farmers, otherwise unable to obtain credit through other private and public sources.

The National Family Farm Coalition, an organization of groups and individuals established to move the Family Farm Development Act through Congress, applauded this happening.

"The future of our agricultural system and our rural communities may be in the hands of our small farmers," a spokesperson for the Coalition said. Brown agreed strongly. "Costs of large-scale, energy-intensive farming will continue to go up as our soil-condition erodes in the coming decade. The small family farmer, who is closer to the land and his community, represents an alternative to this highly mechanized form of farming which should be scrutinized closely," Brown said.

This small farm loan program is one of nine titles in the Family Farm Development Act. The Act attempts to support the maintenance of a strong family farm system of agriculture through amendments of the tax structure, price support systems, conservation practices, marketing programs, and research and education programs. Brown hopes to move the remaining eight titles of the bill through Congress next year.

HEALTH SERVICES GUIDE AIDS DECISION MAKING

Increasing the availability of health service facilities to this country's rural population is an important goal, and one which requires effective long-range planning and decision making. A new guide published by the Economics, Statistics, and Cooperative Service, USDA, Utilization of Health Services in the Great Plains, seeks to facilitate this sort of effective planning.

The booklet, written by Alan May, research associate, Oklahoma State University, and Gerald A. Doeksen, economist, and Bernal L. Green, agricultural economist, ESCLS, serves as an aid to local government officials and other rural health planners in the Great Plains area. The authors claim that "By following the guide, rural planners can estimate the number of doctors their area can support; the number of cases by age group, sex, and disease that a local hospital could expect each year, and the average bed days required for treatment; the annual use an emergency room might receive; and the number of expected annual calls for ambulance service."

When using the guide with appropriate population projections, planners can anticipate future health service requirements of their areas and plan accordingly. However, the authors warn that "Cautions must be used when applying these incidence rates if a local area has important, unique characteristics as these characteristics must be incorporated. In addition, utilization rates may change if technology changes, or if the medical delivery system changes."

A demonstration of how to use the proper data for rural health services planning is included in the guide. Also included are blank forms for local use. Copies of the guide are available from Gerald A. Doeksen, Department of Agricultural Economics, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74074.

DIRECTORY OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AGENCIES AVAILABLE

Helping South Carolina Extension staff members keep abreast of the numerous state agencies which offer assistance to individuals and organizations working for community improvement is the purpose of a new directory published by the Clemson University Cooperative Extension Service.

The directory, South Carolina State Government Resource Agencies for Community Development, was compiled by Stephen Lilley and Eddie D. Wynn, with assistance from Ismail Bin-Yahya and David Myers, and was supported in part by South Carolina Title V funds.

Each state agency listed in the publication was asked to list its objectives, services provided, and service areas, especially if those services were not offered statewide. The information received from each agency was put in the following format:

A. Profile of agency
B. Objectives
C. Service Area
D. Contact

Copies of the directory may be obtained by writing Extension CRD, 211 Barre Hall, Clemson University, Clemson, SC 29631.