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SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS OF POVERTY IN SOUTH CAROLINA: A STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

by



Marguerite Rogers Howie

Funded by Cooperative State Research Service, USDA

SOUTH CAROLINA, STATE COLLEGE Orangeburg, South Carolina

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ABSTRACT

The overall objectives of this study are bi-dimensional in focus: statistical and functional. This interim technical report on the Socio-Economic Indicators of Poverty in South Carolina (1) develops and analyzes measures of socio-economic indicators of poverty in relation to both individuals and community based organizations, (2) develops an instrument and research model that may be replicated by researchers in the ten southeastern states that participated in the Isolation of Factors Related to Levels and Patterns of Living in the Rural South, regional project, (3) explores structural and conditional restraints imposed on limited-resource persons in relation to operationalized social indicators, (4) analyzes and evaluates elements of human capital among residents within six racially varied counties, (5) tests the hypothesis that physiographic factors influence the assessed needs as perceived by individuals and community based organizations, (6) evaluates the role of community based organizations in generating human growth capital, and tests the hypothesis that CBO's are functional change agents in the self-actualization process.

The individual survey instrument was constructed and pre-test and jury validation techniques were used. Univariate analysis, t-tests, analysis of covariance discriminant analysis, path analysis, and logistic regressions were used to examine the aforestated objectives.

The pertinent conclusions are: (1) the physiographic data showed that there are statistically significant differences among the three regions on the human capital variable; (2) the t-tests revealed that education is a key determinant of utilization of CBO's; (3) above poverty persons had a higher level on the future orientation index; (4) race was not statistically significant on any tests; (5) the analysis of covariance showed that persons who received training, value education at a higher level than their counterparts; and, (6) findings indicate that CBO's are viable entities within their respective communities.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS OF POVERTY IN SOUTH CAROLINA: A STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Concepts of Poverty

Poverty may be defined as a household's inability to secure a livelihood, that is, to feed, clothe and shelter itself at a level of well-being considered minimally acceptable by society (Howes and Markusen, 1981). Various reasons are given to account for poverty. However, Nancy Goodman (1985) has categorized reasons for poverty into three types: individualistic, structural, and fatalistic. The individualistic reasons focus on the shortcomings of the poor, alluding to the assumption that the primary barrier to upward mobility is a person's unwillingness or inability to work hard enough to get himself/herself out of poverty. In the second type, it is observed that because of the composition of society, we will always have people in categories ranging from the poor to the affluent. Thus, the structural reasons focus on the inequities in the social system as the cause of poverty. Fatalistic reasons, the third type, are characterized by uncontrollable factors -such as illness, urgent financial assistance or loss of a job -- that coerce individuals into awkward situations/circumstances. This study suggests, then, that the reasons for poverty presented by Goodman may at some point intertwine. Hence, there is no single cause of poverty. In other words, poverty has been found to be associated with occupation, education, income, ethnicity and religious conservatism (Alston and Dean, 1972); Feagin, 1975 and Nilson, 1981). Therefore, the occurrence of a breakdown/interruption in one's life situation inflicts discord that may result in poverty.

The aforementioned definition of poverty refers to the physical aspects of the quality of life, rather than monetary or other characteristics that affect the limited-resource person. It is by further expanding the focus of research concerning poverty that one gets a broader understanding of those circumstances which impact on the well-being of limited-resource families. One effective approach in understanding and evaluating conditions of well-being is to examine poverty from the concept of social indicators. Through the use of social indicators, poverty may

be assessed from the standpoint of dual interacting functions -- economic and non-economic. Such functions were used as descriptives of behavioral units of change, and thereby act as sources of explanation and measurements of social change.

Rationale

While the use of social indicators for purposes of sociological inquiry is hardly new, the approach this study utilized differs from those previously used. Accounts of earlier research on social indicators were based on the need to utilize and develop statistics to measure social conditions within the nation; such measures would further be directed toward non-economic aspects of well-being, and would subsequently contribute useful information to improve public policy (Sheldon and Parke, 1975). However, this goal fell short in accomplishing the initial task, primarily because of inadequate and insufficient data sources. It was realized in the attempt to measure dimensions of well-being that the necessary statistical data were unavailable.

Moreover, the emphasis on the non-economic elements of well-being was promoted by the exclusion of actual economic principles. Economists during the initial conceptualization of research on social indicators chose to identify these elements as non-market measures of well-being, thus, shifting their emphasis on non-economic components of the quality of life. In addition, the use of the term "social" was considered from a residual context, and, therefore, was believed to exist outside the realm of economics (Olson, 1969).

As such, the interest in social indicators for research purposes has been channeled toward two directions: (1) to represent a useful means of guiding social policy, where indicators would contribute to the evaluation of government programs and (2) to act as a means of solving social problems such as poverty, crime, racial prejudice, etc.through the application in goal oriented analysis (Hauser, 1976).

Therefore, with an understanding of social indicators, this study examines both aspects of social indicators, with particular emphasis on the economic perspective. The focus on economic indicators stems from the neglected attention to economic factors as they relate to quality of life in general, as well as their relationship with the rural sector. As such, previous research on well-being within the rural sector has been limited in its scope, thereby leaving voids in obtaining a comprehensive understanding of rural well-being.

CHAPTER II

OBJECTIVES

The primary goal of this study is to address the socio-economic well-being of limited-resource rural families, thereby broadening the ramifications of poverty research by deviating from conventional foci. In order to obtain the desired information of rural well-being, with an emphasis on economic factors, this study proposes to approach the problem from three perspectives: (1) the effects of non-economic activities among racially mixed counties in the rural sector, (2) an evaluation of economic indicators as such relate to economic returns for purposes of consumption, and (3) the interrelated effects of non-economic and economic activities. The investigation of economic indicators was made by viewing such activities in light of the Human Capital Theory. By using this theoretical concept, this study is able to explore rural well-being from several vantage points, while also serving as an excellent means of examining the quality of rural life based on social indicators.

The dual components of this project, then, are reported in two phases. This, interim technical report, is a pragmatic statistical analysis. It is broad in scope in that a theoretical framework (human capital theory) is both applied to and empirically tested with respect to the utilization of community based organizations.

The specific objectives undergirding the first phase of the research, "A Statistical Analysis," are as follows:

- To develop and analyze measures of socio-economic indicators in relation to both individuals and community based organizations.
- 2. To develop an instrument and research model that may be paralleled or replicated by researchers in the states that participated in the "Isolation of Factors Related to Levels and Patterns of Living in the Rural South, RR-I."
- To explore structural and conditional restraints imposed on limited-resource persons in relation to operationalized social indicators.
- 4. To analyze and evaluate elements of human capital of rural residents within six racially varied counties.

- 5. To test the hypothesis that physiographic factors influence the assessed needs as perceived by individuals and community based organizations.
- 6. To evaluate the role of community based organizations within the rural community in generating human growth capital.
- 7. To test the hypothesis that community based organizations are the functional change agents in relation to attitudinal and/or behavioral change and the self-actualization process within the rural limited-resource communities.

The listed objectives are those of concernment to this treatise. And, the research objectives of importunateness to a functional analysis will be the domain of the final report.

CHAPTER III

BACKGROUND LITERATURE

Poverty is a complex social and economic problem. Its existence is widespread and well documented; however, the basic causes are not. It was not until the behavioral scientists had developed sufficient skills and insights to understand at least the broad interrelationships among social position, economic opportunity, self-expectation and social competence, and so forth, that Americans and their leaders could understand that being poor is often a way of life for many limited-resource persons (Irelan and Besner, 1966). In previous years, private citizens were helping the poor to combat the problem of poverty.

However, in recent years, government interventions into poverty programs have been motivated by crisis-oriented outcries from the populace. The political response in each era, beginning with President Franklin D. Roosevelt to the present, pigeonholed these programs into an institutionalized economic bureaucracy. Although FDR's New Deal salvaged his political career and he was acclaimed as a "Savior" by the poor, in general, and the "Great White Father" by millions of blacks, "the system of waste, of inequality, of concern for profit over human need" remained (Zinn, 1980: 394). For example, black workers were discriminated against in getting jobs and retained their conventional economic class status of "the last to be hired and the first to be fired."

To combat such discriminatory practices, the black founder of the Brotherhood of Sleeping-Car Porters, A. Phillip Randolph, threatened a massive march on Washington in 1941 (Zinn, 1980: 195) because FDR refused to sign an executive order establishing a Fair Employment Practices Committee. The "Great White Father: signed the order, but it lacked enforcement power. This, like all of the New Deal programs — including the 1935 Emergency Relief Appropriation Act, the Public Works Project (which faded by 1943), the Works Progress Administration (WPA), and the National Youth Administration (NYA) — provided nothing substantive. They were interim "tranquilizers." When the New Deal was laid to rest, capitalism remainded in tact, and the rich still controlled the nation's wealth (Galbraith, 1976: passim; Norton, et al, 1982: 735-736). Only the Social Security Act, with modifications, has substained itself with the passage of time even though its future is bleak in the 1980's.

Lyndon B. Johnson was the president noted for the War on Poverty beginning in 1964. But, in retrospect, evaluators of his program attribute his motivation to be the philosophy explicated in Michael Harrington's classic, **The Other America** (1962). Johnson never realistically attacked the paramount problem of

the poor which is "the children of the poor become in turn the parents of the poor" (Mead, 1982: 17-32). Thus, because American economic institutions are not addressed in any pragmatic way, the victim is blamed and structural poverty yet remains (The Economist, 1982: 29; Murray, 1982: 9).

Although FDR's programs were instituted by presidential fiats and Lyndon B. Johnson chose the route of governmental decree, the outcomes were basically the same. We cannot ignore the fact that this astute bureaucrat was cognizant of the uses of power when he made civil rights legislation his top priority. Within months after his ascendency to the presidency, Johnson used his powers to get Congress to enact into law the Civil Rights Act of 1964, steered through Congress the Equal Opportunity Act of 1964, and sought to govern by "consensus." Thus, in 1965 and 1966, such federal programs as Medicare, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (the first general program of federal aid to education), the Voting Rights Act of 1965, Teacher Corps, Job Corps and Neighborhood Youth Corps, the Work-Experience Program for unemploymed mothers and fathers, Project Headstart, and Upward Bound were all realities for which Johnson received positive reinforcement by a liberal Supreme Court led by Chief Justice Earl Warren. Further, these legislative triumphs served as approbations to embellish his liberal ascendency.

One cannot predict the glory that may have surfaced from President Johnson's War on Poverty as if black power activists, black separatist splinter groups, and the ''undeclared war'' in Vietnam had not emerged....History began to take a ''flashback'' at JFK's ''New Frontier'' which was untimely slaughtered by his assassination and the shrewd manipulative programs of the ''Great Society.''

Later, the sequential sagas of Nixon, Ford, and Carter fade into the abyss with the presidency of Ronald Reagan who posits that government is not the solution to our problem; government is the problem. President Reagan persists on restoring the American Dream, but the lower classes (i.e., the working nonpoor, the working poor, and the non-working poor) remain in a dilemma as to where they fit into American Dream.

Ergo, an interest in identifying social indices that measure how limited-resource persons mesh into the diverse strata of America's alleged heterogeneous socio-economic structures is postulated. Social indices for measuring quality of life will fill the void that exists in poverty research by using an a posteriori approach in lieu of the traditional a priori one. For instance, over the past decade, the 1890 Program at South Carolina State College has been engaged in action research projects which address problems concerning the quality of life of people in our state. Through research efforts, we have found that attitudes and beliefs affect one's values. The quality of one's life style is inherent in one's personal assessment of his/her condition, not the values imposed by others that blame the victim.

Poverty researchers in the 1970's and 1980's use the term quality of life instead of antiquated expressions such as "general welfare" and "social well-being." However, the meaning remains the same as it is distinctly defined as the extent to which pleasure and satisfaction characterized human existence and the extent to which people can avoid the various miseries which are potentially the fate of mankind (Andrews, 1974). Historically, South Carolina's quality of living has been influenced by constant fighting and bickering. For example, the state has had two contrasting societies economically, socially, and politically: the up-country and the low-country. For years, the low-country was characterized politically by wealthy planters and a slave economy, while the up-country was struggling with a farming economy. The upper region continued to fight for its just representation in the legislature, while the lower region's political magnates attempted to retain their political power and influence over the state. Politically, there were many conflicts between the two regions. the most notable may have been the fight in 1780 to abolish a two capital system (Charleston and Columbia) which was reluctantly resolved via a permanent site being established in Columbia, a city located in the midlands.

The development of quality of life programs may date back to the days of President Roosevelt when the entire nation was in turmoil and social programs were implemented to assist the needy. Since the Roosevelt Era, studies have delved into the question of quality of life measurement and/or life satisfaction (Campbell, et al., 1976; Dalkey, et al., 1972; Liu, 1975; Schoggen, 1983; Thompson, 1985; and Wheelock, et al., 1983). The development of measures to assess the quality of life is essential to social progress and social accountability and is useful for national goal setting, project planning, priority ranking, program manipulation, and performance evaluation (Liu, 1976). If effective measures are developed through this research project, the results can be useful to policy makers in evaluating and effectuating policies and programs to enhance the quality of life in accordance with the identifiable needs of the disparate physiographic areas of South Carolina.

Physiographic delimiters will assist the researchers in measuring aspects of the quality of life across South Carolina. Quality of life has been used in social science literature in various capacities. The typology of D. W. Katzner (1979) identifies three different uses of the construct: (1) the quality of life is studied via happiness surveys which are concerned with how happy or satisfied individuals believe themselves to be; (2) the social indicators approach relies on measurements which are taken of attributes such as health, income, education, and housing which have significance for the quality of life of aggregates of persons; and (3) the more direct approaches which are concerned with the effort to focus explicitly on the quality of life concept itself. For example, Dalkey, et al (1972) considers an individual's quality of life to be determined by personal and environmental qualities such as freedom, security, status and affluence. Our approach utilizes social indicators as previously identified by Katzner to study "Socio-economic Indicators of Poverty in South Carolina."

Concepts of Physiographic Delimiters

South Carolina developed from a colony into a state in 1788 becoming the eighth state of the Union. During this transformation, a variety of individuals migrated across South Carolina helping to establish their characteristics as a people. Even geological variations in the terrain exerted a profound influence upon regional cultures (Wright, 1976):17). Therefore, most of their behavioral patterns and regional differences developed during the colonial period.

South Carolina's physical features include mountains, hills, plains, and seacoast. It should be noted that the forests, soils, climate and rivers are some of the state's most important resources. Consequently, as the inhabitants traversed the state, one physical fact influencing South Carolina's history and culture was the existence of two geological and topographical regions that divided the state into up-country and low-country. These two sections of the state are divided by a fall line. The up-country is high land and located above the fall line: whereas the low-country is just the opposite. Between these two regions are located the sand hills or midlands. This middle belt lies on both sides of the fall line and does not fully possess the characteristics of either division (Wallacew, 1951). According to Louis Wright (1976), the midlands serve as a buffer area between the up-country and low-country.

In directing attention to the major divisions of the state, we identify some of the distinctions found within the regions. For instance, in the up-country area, there are many hills, mountains and valleys. These have resulted because the surface of the upper region was formed by the decomposition of some of the earth's oldest rocks, which frequently protrude in great masses or produce low falls and rapids in streams (Wallace, 1951). In contrast, the lower part of the state is a land of alluvials with soft loams, fine sands, heavy clays, bottomless river marshes and deep swamp mucks (Stoney, 1969) and many islands.

Regardless of the differences in landscape between both regions, the land is fertile. Because the cotton boll weevil destroyed crops in earlier days, the upper state residents were coerced into changing their way of living to raising cattle and growing fruits. For example, one of the most productive crops for the area is peaches. It should also be noted that in the past, rice and cotton were prosperous money crops for the lower-state. Today, however, soybeans and tobacco are profitable businesses in the latter area.

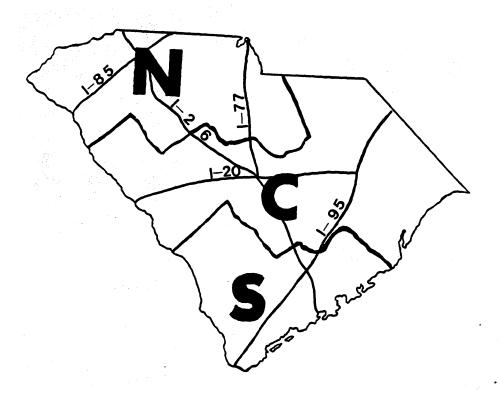
Industrialization has also become a growing enterprise. For example, the up-country is heavily forested with short pines, while the long pines are indigenous to the lower region. Because the up-country's short pines are utilized for pulpwood, there was a necessity for the building of paper mills in this area. These textile mills and chemical plants have contributed to a tremendous growth of industry in the up-country. On the other hand, the lower region of the state is dominated by resorts and tourism.

Previous research indicates that the expansion of industrialization in both geographical divisions may provide additional employment and income for many residents, as well as the county and state (Howie, Phillips and Wade, 1983). A state's strength is in its ability to shift its resources into more efficient technologies and geographical areas (Anderson and Young, 1981:71). Therefore, state and local officials are working to attract new industries and jobs throughout South Carolina. One of the state's biggest assets to attracting new industry has been its interstate transportation system, which is one of the best in the United States. Five interstate highways transverse and interconnect the state (See Figure 1). No one county is more than forty (40) miles away from having access to a major interstate highway. Each region has at least two major arteries of transportation transversing it.

Although South Carolina was historically divided into two regions, this report utilizes the distinction of six climatic districts. The climatic districts of South Carolina are Northwest, West Central, North Central, Central, Northeast and Southern. The Mountain District is so sparsely populated that the researchers collapsed it with the Northwest District. These districts have well-defined and definitely ascertained boundaries. Each has its peculiar climatic features: it must not be inferred that the climatic and physical boundaries are the same. In general, the coast and adjacent districts have the more equable temperatures, while the western portions have the widest range. The difference between the annual mean temperature of Beaufort (the warmest place), located in the southern region, and Greenville (the coldest place), located in the northwest region, is 8 degrees (S. C. Budget and Control Board, 1983). Therefore, the differences in temperature across the state affect the allocation of funds to limited-resource persons in the various climatic districts. For example, the Community Action Programs utilize climatic districts in regard to their Home Energy Assistance Programs, because climatic factors affect energy consumption (HEW, 1980). The southern region has a semi-tropical climate, while the northern zone has a temperate or sub-temperate climate. However, the central region has a blending of the southern and northern climates.

In spite of the various environmental, social and economical differences among the geographical divisions in South Carolina, the goals of the populace appear to be the same -- maintaining the quality of life for its inhabitants. By utilizing the physiographic delimiters, the researchers measured to what degree each region is addressing the well-being of its people.

FIGURE 1. MAJOR INTERSTATE ARTERIES WITHIN SOUTH CAROLINA



CHAPTER IV

THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

Human Capital Theory

Investments in human capital may be defined as "the employment of resources or the development of human capacities from which an improvement of individual welfare in the future occurs" (Bodenhofer and Stuart, 1935). Research for this theory was stimulated by economists, particularly, the works of Schultz (1961) and Becker (1964), with Sjaastad (1962) applying the concept to a migration context.

Schultz, in his landmark study, notes that physical capital explained only a small segment of economic growth and that a major portion of this growth can be explained by investments in human capital. Comprised of "psychic" or consumptive and monetary components, these investments consist of expenditures on health, education, migration, and on-the-job-training. Therefore, each expenditure contributes to the rate of economic growth, to the general well-being of the individual investing and to the overall economic system. Becker, following the work by Schultz, expands the theory in greater detail by revealing its economic implications from an educational perspective.

Becker (1964) suggested that perhaps the most important single determinant of the amount invested in human capital is its profitability or rate of return. Thus, by emphasizing the relationship between cost and returns, investments are perceived as the cost incurred in order to derive returns, and may be expressed in terms of net earnings. Therefore, the magnitude and quality of capital should raise observed earnings. As such, the following statements represent the basic theoretical doctrines of the human capital theory as posited by Becker:

- 1. Earnings typically increase with age at a decreasing rate. Both the rate of increase and the rate of retardation tend to be positively related to the level of skill.
- Unemployment rates tend to be inversely related to the level skill.
- Firms in underdeveloped countries appear to be more "paternalistic" toward employees than those in developed countries because of the political theories which are dominant in the respective countries.

- Younger persons change jobs more frequently and receive more schooling and on-the-job training than older persons do.
- 5. The distribution of earning is positively skewed, especially among professional and other skilled workers.
- Able persons receive more education and other kinds of training than others.
- 7. The division of labor is limited by the extent of the market.
- 8. The typical investor in human capital is more impetuous and thus more likely to err than is the typical investor in tangible capital (pp. 7-8).

Because differentials in economic returns correspond closely to differentials in indicators such as age, education, occupation, race, and sex, there is a strong implication that one element is the consequence of the other.

CBO's as a Human Capital Dimension

Community based organizations provide local level service programs as adjuncts to those agencies mandated or established by law at the state or national level to help alleviate poverty. These organizations are located in communities to provide various helping services to their limited-resource persons focusing on identifiable needs as assessed by grassroot organizations, community leaders, etc. Agencies categorized as CBO's are Community Action Programs, Opportunities Industrialization Centers (OIC), and Urban Leagues. Programs such as these attack the problems attendant to poverty. CBO's provide services such as employment, job training and counseling, health, vocational rehabilitation, housing, home management, welfare, and special remedial and other curricular educational assistance to benefit limited-resource persons.

The major impetus which underlies many programs of community based organizations is embedded in the human capital theory. The human capital dimensions examined in this report are age, education, occupation and income.

AGE: The influx of the baby-boom generation that reached employment age in the 1970's increased the supply of young workers. Younger working persons are treated as positive contributors to the human capital dimension (Bowles, 1978); Sofranko and Williams, 1980). The younger worker is just starting out in the business world and has personal visions of achieving success. On the other hand, older workers have already established themselves and are preparing to retire from the labor force. Thus, many elderly persons live on a fixed income, and, to help supplement their income, utilize community based organizations.

EDUCATION. Without the skills, knowledge and experience required for a good job, a person would not be able to adequately perform on a job. Education serves as a surrogate for training (Garkovich, 1983). It is a strong predictor of one's total household earnings (Deseran, et al, 1984). Therefore, the more education one has obtained the better the returns are in income attainment.

OCCUPATION. The skills of the individual within the labor force represent occupation. There are various categories of workers in which the laborer is classified, such as white collar and blue collar. The white collar laborer is considered a greater human capital asset than any other category of workers (Bowles, 1978; Sofranko and Williams, 1980). This is considered true because the white collar workers consist of professional, technical, managerial and administrative personnel. In contrast to the employed workers, we have a category called the unemployed. The longer the period of unemployment, the greater the economic hardship that is normally associated with it (Urquhart and Hewson, 1983). The major reasons many unemployed individuals have not been absorbed in the economy are their lack of adequate training, education, experience and discrimination.

INCOME. A general measure of socioeconomic status is income. Earned income is dependent on several elements, the most important of these include: (1) the skills, knowledge and experience of the worker, (2) the mobility of the worker and (3) the nature of labor demand (Seninger and Smeeding, 1981). If an individual is able to synthesize effectively all of the aforementioned elements, he/she can depend on adequate earnings.

Recent findings by the "Isolation of Factors Related to the Levels and Patterns of LIving in the Rural South, RR-I" project indicate that low income areas in South Carolina have several problems concerning educational attainment: 58.3 percent had less than a twelfth grade education, and 24.1 percent had less than eight years of educational training. However, households with male heads had a high degree of educational achievement with 66.7 percent having 12 years or more of formal education. Second, based on the social indicators of race, sex and age, discrimination was high. Sixty-five percent or more of the sample population reported the existence of discrimination when the aforementioned social indicators were applied. Third, the problem of "limited job opportunities" was perceived as the most serious in terms of securing employment (91.8 percent). Also, 72 percent of the South Carolina respondents felt that there were not enough jobs available for young people in their respective communities. In addition, it was noted that many residents lacked adequate job training or skills. The lack of transportation was also reported as a "serious problem" by 34 percent or more of the respondents.

In addition, the 1983 station based research study on Community Development of Coping Skills' reinforced the results of the regional study. The research on community coping skills identified other salient findings such as (1) community fundings plans and activities to compensate for budgetary cuts in the

operation of community based organizations, (2) strategies to circumvent racial issues that impact upon full participation of minorities in the socio-economic arena, (3) activities to effectuate the political socialization of limited-resource persons, and (4) cohesion of aly organizations to combat problems attendant with the resurgence of drugs, juvenile crime, and poor/inadequate housing.

To address the aforementioned findings, policy makers have modified and/or deleted existing programs to placate their constituencies into believing that they are fulfilling campaign promises, reducing expenses, and enabling the poor to help themselves. For example, with reference to education and job training, programs are available to assist the uneducated, unskilled and underskilled employee, such as the Job Training and Partnership Act (JTPA), the Opportunities Industrialization Centers (OIC), and the Urban League. The 1970's was an era of creating job programs. Also, around this same timeframe, there was an influx of women into the labor force. The first nationwide public service employment program since the depression was introduced with the enactment of the Emergency Employment Act (EEA) in 1971, designed to provide transitional jobs and needed public services in times of high unemployment. The success of the Emergency Employment Act led to the Comprehensive Employment Training Act (CETA) late in 1973 (Martin, 1978). The goal of employment and training programs is to improve individual welfare and quality of life. These programs train individuals for specific jobs and/or retrain them to handle new technological means of employment. Adjunct anti-poverty programs provide social and economic assistance to limited-resource persons with the intention of promoting upward mobility.

The unemployment rate, then, affects funding to community based organizations, specifically Community Action Programs. Monetary allocations for the Job Training and Partnership Act (JTPA) programs are channeled from the Department of Labor through the Governor's Office, to the Division of Economic Opportunities and, finally, to the Community Action Program. There is a direct correlation between the amount of allocation for job training programs and the unemployment rate. That is, as the unemployment rate rises, there is a direct increase in the dispersion of funds for these programs. On the other hand, if there is a decrease in the level of unemployment, there is a reduction in monies for operational funding.

One means of reducing poverty is to help limited-resource persons become gainfully employed. However, finding and getting employment to maintain a household sufficiently is easier said than done. More limited-resource persons would probably work, but are held back by the lack of job opportunities, by the lack of work experience, by the lack of education and training resulting in low job skill levels, by the program regulations, and/or a combination of the aforementioned factors (Briggs, Rungeling and Smith, 1978). Furthermore, geographic constraints may also hinder an individual's upward mobility. Hence, community based organizations assist limited-resource persons in finding

employment and/or upgrading their skills. It should be pointed out that an individual can also obtain a graduate equivalency diploma by utilizing CBO services.

Thus, we are acquiring more in-depth information about limited-resource persons and their quality of life than is revealed by the regional project entitled "The Isolation of Factors Related to Levels and Patterns of LIving in the Rural South" which treats human capital on a peripheral level. This project emphasizes the importance of human capital to the economic growth of an area. That is, if the human potential is not developed and utilized in an area, one may not expect the economic growth in the area to expand. Furthermore, physiographic factors or climatic conditions may account for the development of one region of South Carolina over another. The section on the Logit Model in this treatise will elucidate how CBO's enhance the growth of human capital.

CHAPTER V

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Human Service Planning

Human services change as social conditions change in order to insure a minimum standard of living for the nation's poor. Peter Rossi (1978) has defined human services as those services that depend on direct interpersonal contact between the deliverer and the client. These program services are designed to reach a wide range of individuals with different problems and needs that meet specific agency eligibility guidelines. Human service responsibilities are threefold: first, to prevent the development of problems which will handicap people; second, to help people solve their problems; and third to prevent people from succumbing to difficulties which threaten to overwhelm them (Collins, 1973: 128).

Most human services are provided through agencies that alleviate some, if not all, of the aforementioned situations in different settings. To facilitate a minimum standard of living for the poor, human services evolved in the 1930's -- during the New Deal. However, these particular services did not flourish until the advent of President Lyndon Johnson's Great Society in the 1960's. Since then, human services have become an integral part of our economy and culture. Most human services are provided through agencies that alleviate some, if not all of the situations enumerated above, in different settings and with the use of various helping methods. Today, as a result, more limited-resource people are relying on human service agencies when assistance is needed. As more needs are identified by policy makers, the number of programs to address these needs have grown proportionately (Sauber, 1983). For example, over the years, billions of dollars have been provided to operate human services programs.

Ironically, the need for human services tends to multiply, while operating costs continue to rise. Therefore, agencies and administrators find themselves being placed in an awkward position. Agency administrators are forced to compete among themselves for fewer funding dollars, to manage with budgets whose allocated amounts are much less than requested and to make decisions about staffing and service delivery when additional budget cutbacks are likely to occur (Knighton and Heidelman, 1984: 531). As a result of this restraint, studies (Austin, 1984); Radin, 1983; Turem and Born, 1983) have indicated that for the majority of human service agencies, cutbacks have had a profound effect on the agency's clients, thus, negating the effectiveness of the delivery system.

Obviously, the key to efficient, accessible, and effective agency service lies in the service delivery system. The human service delivery operates at all levels: local, state and federal. It encompasses a variety of fields: mental health, social welfare, health, education and criminal justice. These service areas are subsystems of the human service system as a whole. The ability for human service organizations to survive and to function effectively depends on internal and external relationships with various systems. For instance, the interactions between a service program and its clients represents the essence of human service delivery. These two parts of the system are linked together through services that are provided by the program in response to the demand generated by the client (Sauber, 1983). Moreover, there must be some form of linkage or networking within the delivery system in order for it to function properly. In fact, linkage refers to the process whereby a person or family with specific needs is connected with a resource in a manner that enables the development of a helping system (Johnson, 1980: 69). Consequently, this linkage forms a functional service delivery system.

CBO's as a Subsystem of Human Services

Community based organizations (CBO's) are subsystems of human services. These organizations are located in communities to provide various helping service to its limited-resource residents concomitant with their identifiable needs. The individuals that participate in CBO's are critical entities in the human service organizational structure and function. According to S. N. Eisenstadt (1961), the client is perceived as a scarce resource upon whom organizational survival depends.

For our conceptual definition, a client is perceived as anyone who is served by or has utilized a human service agency. There are basically two types of clients: the voluntary one who comes of his or her own accord and the involuntary one for whom someone initiates the contact and sets up the appointment (Lowy, 1979). Sometimes, however, many people have difficulty accepting agency help because they have ambivalent feelings about their dependence on and independence of human services.

Although we are all susceptible to becoming users of human service agencies, some individuals may go through life without ever developing a need for a particular human service. In contrast, there are those who find themselves in crisis situations -- such as a serious illness, urgent financial assistance or loss of a job -- that coerce them to seek agency assistance. Also, some people have a high propensity to use human services. This propensity may be viewed as the outcome of certain background characteristics of the individual, which are associated with variables such as age, race, sex, education, etc. (Mindel and Wright, 1982).

According to Compton and Galaway (1975), people who accept help (1) must have faced the fact that there is something in their life situation that they want to change but cannot change by themselves; (2) must be willing to discuss the problem with another person and (3) must be willing to change themselves, to change their situation or to go along with changes that others make in their situation. The client must recognize the presence of a need for assistance before the use of services actually takes places (Andersen, 1968; Andersen and Newman, 1973).

Accordingly, the need for services is dependent on the client's level and standard of functioning. As noted by Richard Sauber (1983), when the level of functioning is low, the user's need for service tends to increase. However, this increase may not result in a visible demand for service. The demand for service increases only when the user's level of functioning is at a level at which he feels he should be functioning. This viewpoint reflects the client's expectations of self as well as those of relatives, friends and others in his immediate environment. As theorized by Levin and Roberts (1976), the user's demand for service is based on the difference between his actual level of performance behavior and the standard of functioning others have for him.

This report, then, increases one's awareness of the importance of community based organizations and their users. The programs, in most instances, help the users maintain and/or regain an adequate level of functioning. In short, the user's need for services is complied with when human service providers perceive the needs of the user and respond to them.

CHAPTER VI

DATA AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Many community based organizations and social action programs have been established to accommodate citizens across South Carolina. But how effective are these programs in addressing the needs for the people they are designed to serve? In order to answer this question, we focus on the use of climatic districts, physiographic regions and community based organizations as delimiters.

An earlier survey indicates that there are thirty-five community based organizations serving twenty-three of the forty-six counties in South Carolina. The scope of their programs addresses micro-socio-economic needs that are frequently lost in the macro perspective of state and federal designs to eliminate socio-economic ills collaterally connected with poverty. Conceptually, as previously stated, community based organizations refer to agencies located in a particular community to provide various helping services to its limited-resources residents concomitant with their identifiable needs. For example, transportation may be a needed service in a given community to enable persons to get to a given training site. Many environmental influences impact upon the poor in regard to reachable and non-reachable clientele (Chavis, 1983; Howie and Phillips, 1981 and 1983).

Directors of each of the community based organizations were contacted via telephone to secure information pertaining to agency utilization and client services. They responded favorably to participating in a follow-up mail survey to validate changes within the past three years in their service offerings, number of clients served (by age, sex, and race), employee rolls, volunteer assistants logs, and reasons for decrease or increase in each of these categories. The response rate was statistically valid and representative for our quota sample (Stephan and McCarthy, 1974: 245).

In order to obtain the desired data, with an emphasis on economic factors, this treatise proposes to approach the problem from three perspectives: (1) the effects of non-economic activities among racially varied counties within the rural sector, (2) an evaluation of economic indicators as such relate to economic returns and (3) the interrelated effects of non-economic and economic activities. The investigation of economic indicators was made by viewing such activities from the standpoint of Human Capital Theory. By using this theoretical concept, the report is able to explore well-being from several vantage points, while also serving as an excellent means of examining the quality of life based on social indicators.

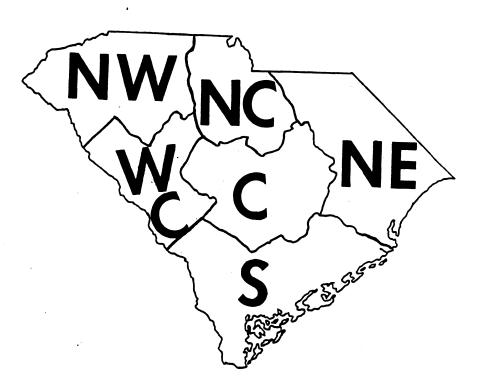
Data for this research, designed to measure social indicators of poverty in relation to the human capital theory, quality of life of limited-resource persons and community based organizations were collected in the summer of 1985. Further, operational definitions of key concepts were formulated and instruments constructed to test the research hypotheses.

Two instruments were developed: (1) individual interviews within a stratified random sample and (2) surveys of community based organizations. The individual instrument encompassed several sections: the first section was composed of demographic items to assess respondents' characteristics (e.g., age, race, sex, marital status, etc.). The remaining sections consisted of both interval and Likert-type formatted items to measure dimensions of the respondents' attitudes and perceptions of their quality of life and their assessment of community based organizations.

To select the target counties, a multistage, disproportionate stratified sample design was used. In the first stage, maps were secured of the climatic districts and physiographic regions of the state to define boundaries already established for the selection of the counties researched. Utilizing this method, it was intended that analytic techniques would allow the researchers to compare similarities and dissimilarities within the state, specifically among the physiographic regions. Moreover, a major factor in the funding formula for direct assistance to individuals as provided through the Community Action Programs and mandated by the Department of Economic Opportunities is dispensed based on climatic zones (See Figures 2-4). The utilization by Community Action Programs is examined by the three climatic regions data set.

To delineate the counties within each region of the state, physiographic maps were superimposed on maps of the six climatic districts. Stratification and the selection of the researched counties within the physiographic regions were accomplished through the technique of arrayment. A random stratified element sample of three urban counties (Charleston, Greenville and Richland) and three rural counties (Aiken, Beaufort/Jasper and Horry/Williamsburg) was obtained. Services were provided in contiguous counties via branch/satellite offices. For the purpose of this investigation, rural was used to designate counties with central cities of less than 25,000 residents, or towns, or villages, open country and farms. Urban residence applied to those counties with a central city whose population exceeded 25,000 persons.

FIGURE 2. CLIMATIC DISTRICTS OF SOUTH CAROLINA



NW = North West

NC = NORTH CENTRAL

WC = WEST CENTRAL

C = CENTRAL

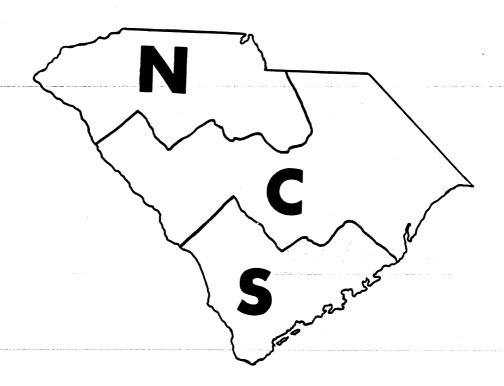
NE = North East

S = SOUTHERN

FIGURE 3. PHYSIOGRAPHIC REGIONS OF SOUTH CAROLINA



FIGURE 4. CLIMATIC ZONES OF COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAMS IN SOUTH CAROLINA



N = NORTHERN

C = CENTRAL

S = SOUTHERN

For the second stage, community based organizations were identified in each of the research counties. A disproportionate sampling technique (Kish, 1965: 92-98) was utilized to achieve optimum allocation in regard to the individual sampling frame. Also, this method is most appropriate where some counties contain only one community based organization, while others may have three or more organizations. In this research design, over sampling in some counties was required to secure a representative sample populace with endogenous variables related to the utilization of community based organizations. Moreover,

in order to represent the state of South Carolina as adequately as possible, the previously mentioned counties were selected based on the following criteria: (1) the number of community based organizations, (2) the climatic districts, and (3) the physiographic boundaries. Counties with CBO's (Community Based Organizations) within each of the physiographic regions were selected for sampling. To be considered racially varied, the populace of the CBO service area had to be thirty percent (30%) or a minimum of 1,000 black inhabitants in 1983 (U. S. Department of Commerce, 1983: 480). Utilization of the above parameters resulted in one county randomly selected from each of the six regions. The second phase of the sampling frame produced interviews from Community Action Programs, Urban Leagues, and Opportunities Industrialization Centers, in conjunction with case-study technques utilizing audio-tape recordings of agency directors and/or their designees for analyses. Agency directors provided names of all clients and up-dated former clients (service users within the past 5 years) for the random selection of respondents from these listings. A minimum of 51 clients from each of the target county agencies was secured. The researchers, through the direct interview method, surveyed 575 respondents from three urban and three rural target areas randomly selected with 573 usable instruments retrieved for analysis.

Instrument Validation

The use of questionnaires to obtain data is widespread among sociologists. Perhaps, it is the most frequently used data-gathering procedure in sociological research. An individual survey instrument/questionnaire may be used as a framework to assess human performance of behaviors, values and attitudes of a population. Therefore, the researchers on the "Socio-Economic Indicators of Poverty in South Carolina" project, which is an outgrowth of a regional project, "Isolation of Factors Related to Levels and Patterns of Living in the Rural South, RR-I," elected to construct and to utilize an individual survey instrument as their method of data collection. But, one might ask, how are survey instruments constructed. Kahn and Cannell (1976) have suggested that the survey instrument must serve two purposes: (1) it must translate research objectives into specific questions whereby the answers will provide necessary data for hypothesis testing; and (2) it must also aid the interviewer in motivating the respondent so that the necessary information is obtained. The major part of the questionnaire is its design (Cronbach, 1983 and Moore, 1983), an outline of content for the instrument that is to be constructed. Once the researchers have formulated questions around the typology of Kahn and Cannell, the survey instrument was completed.

In addition, Forcese and Richer (1973) suggest two ways to formulate questions before administering the questionnaire to a targeted population: use previous research and conduct a pilot study. In utilizing previous research, the researcher can expand his knowledge on the research topic, while also concurrently getting some idea of what factors are relevant in constructing the questions. The suggestion of using a pilot study/pre-test affords the researcher the opportunity

to field test these questions on a small selected group of persons similar in characteristics to the sample, thus, allowing one to revise ambiguous questions.

Another strategy postulated by J. C. Nunnally (1978) is to use reviewers, henceforth referred to as jurors, including subject-matter experts, teachers and area specialists. The use of jurors can provide firsthand knowledge and insight into instrument construction from some of the most informed people in the area of study. These jurors substantiate evidence presented by a pre-test, because it is feasible to utilize more than one approach to validate test construction. Agreement between the different approaches would be an indication of validity, while a marked disparity would require the researchers to question and to reexamine their instruments. To help minimize errors, this external feedback needs to be incorporated to further validate the process of questionnaire construction.

The validity of an instrument's construction is perhaps the most important indicator of its measurement quality. The use of the term validity is documented to refer to the degree to which a measurement technique actually measures what it purports to measure (Herzog, 1959; Mehrens, 1976; Nunnally, 1978; Rossi and Freeman, 1982; and Vockell, 1983). In other words, if an instrument does not provide the researchers with a consistency among the variables with which they are concerned, then they are not adequately tapping that which they wish to measure.

The argument presented in this chapter, which constitutes a general caret in literature on jurors in instrument validation, is of importance because it underscores the need for a study which will focus upon the use of jurors as information sources in constructing instruments. This evaluative process is observed by different professionals and the suggestions are incorporated into finalizing the questionnaire. If agreement among the jurors is sufficiently high and consistent, the instrument will be considered valid (Wade, 1985: passim).

Procedure

The final survey instrument for this study was constructed based on prior research, a pre-test and a plea to jurors. This chapter was designed to focus on the use of jurors in validating instruments. The instrument encompassed several sections. The first section consisted of demographic information such as age, race, sex, marital status, etc. (See Appendix A, Section I). The remaining sections consisted of both interval and Likert-type formatted items to measure dimensions of the respondent's attitudes and perceptions of his/her quality of life and his/her assessment of community based organizations and/or community action programs (Howie, 1985: 6).

Then, a pre-test was administered in the control county, Orangeburg. A total of thirty (30) respondents participated in the survey, constituting an adequate pilot sample. Of the participating respondents, ten were male and twenty female; twenty-three were black and seven white.

However, once the pre-test was conducted, the researchers agreed that external evaluation would ascertain construct validity. This form of validity involves relating a measuring instrument to an overall theoretical framework in order to determine whether the instrument is tied to the concepts and theoretical assumptions that are employed (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1976: 62).

Therefore, to assess the relation of the method to the problem and projected hypotheses and to obtain content validity, five jurors (three rural sociologists, one agricultural economist, and an evaluation specialist in agricultural economics) were used to peruse the instrument. Telephone contact was made with each potential juror to explain the purpose of the study and to secure his/her consent. Upon agreement to serve as a juror, a cover letter, a copy of the individual survey instrument, research proposal objectives and comment sheets were mailed certified to the jurors.

Results of Pre-Test

Our research findings from the pre-test indicated that the respondents had minor problems with semantics in answering various items on the questionnaire. With this information available, the researchers modified the survey instrument and submitted it to the selected jury panel.

The results supported the hypothesis that utilizing jurors in test construction is valid and yielded content validity. According to the jurors, the instrument had a high degree of content validity. The content was consistent with the hypotheses to be tested. In addition to the pre-test respondents, the jurors responded favorably to the construction of the instrument with minor modifications in semantics. They were also in agreement in regard to the recommended revisions on style and format. These additional findings, evoked from the external evaluation, illustrate the importance of utilizing jurors in constructing a valid instrument. Consequently, the final draft of the survey instrument was ready for transfer to desired printing form.

The Sample

The perpetual increase in the number of individuals befallen or succumbed by poverty has revived a new consciousness of their plight among the more fortunate persons in today's society. According to 1985 census data, more than 45 million Americans, including 16.6 percent or one half million in South Carolina, are besieged by poverty.

In order to investigate one of the many vehicles designed to ease the suffering inflicted by poverty, the researchers examined the effectiveness of community based organizations via the survey technique. The analyses of the data set consisted of a sample which was limited to individuals who are currently utilizing the service(s) of or were former receivers of such services from community based organizations as delineated previously.

A descriptive summary of the socio-economic characteristics of the sample is presented in Table 1. An examination of the table reveals that mean (x) age of persons who used community based organizations is 33.4 years, the average level of educational attainment of 11.1 years of formal schooling with approximately three-fourths of the respondents being black. This skewness of the sample with respect to race may be due to perceptions held by whites, as one director stated, whites tend to perceive the agencies as "where black folks go." These perceptions may be a contributing factor to the under utilization of such agencies by the white clientele. As Table 1 clearly shows, the majority of the respondents were female (56.9 percent), married (57.3 percent), are employed in the service worker occupational category (43.4 percent) and the mean (X) of 3.9 children which is approximately double that of the national average of 2.2 children (S. C. Budget and Control Board, 1983). Our findings, in regard to the occupation catgegories, parallel those of John Moland which reflect that blacks are overrepresented in menial service jobs. Black employment in low-paying service positions is more pronounced in the nonmetro South" (1981: 479). One important feature of Table 1, income, reveals the mean (X) level for per capita income of the sample (\$9,100) is below that of the poverty level based on the poverty index (\$10,609 in 1984 for a family of 4 persons).

About sixty-eight percent of the sample were identified as being below the poverty level. However, this is a sampling constraint inasmuch as the nature of the clientele served by community based organizations (job training and placement, energy assistance programs, etc.) entail a large majority of our sample that would indeed be below the poverty level.

Families and unrelated individuals are classified as being above or below the poverty level using the index originated by the Social Security Administration in 1964 and revised by the Federal Interagency Committees in 1969 and 1980. The poverty index is based solely on money income and does not reflect the fact that many low-income persons receive noncash benefits such as food stamps, medicaid, and public housing. The index is based on the Department of Agriculture's economy food plan and reflects the different consumption requirements of families based on their size and composition.

Statistical Procedures

Univariate analysis, t-test, analysis of covariance, discriminant analysis, path analysis and logistic regressions were used to examine the aforestated objectives. The researchers employed a set of theoretically-based exogenous and endogenous variables that are included to determine the degree or extent to which these variables may predict utilization of community based organizations and well-being. In the first stage, frequency and percentage distributions are presented to provide an overview of the general socio-economic characteristics of the sample. Also, the distributions offer the reader the scope of the response pattern to items related to education, future orientation, training and life situation changes as perceived by the respondents who utilize community based organizations.

 $\label{eq:Table I} \textbf{Table I}$ Demographic Characteristics of Community Based Organizations Agency Users. (N=573)

Variable	Characteristic	Frequency	Percent
Age	17-24 years	249	46.5
	25-44 years	116	20.2
	45-64 years	101	17.2
	65+	81	16.1
	$\overline{X} = 33.4$		
Sex	Male	247	43.1
	Female	326	56.9
Race	Black	425	74.2
	White	147	25.6
	Other	1	.2
Educational	1-6 years	100	17.5
Attainment	7-11 years	196	34.2
	12 and beyond	277	48.3
	$\overline{X} = 11.1$		
Marital Status	Married	328	57.3
	Single	128	22.4
	Divorced	33	5.7
	Separated	21	3.7
	Widowed	63	10.9
Occupation	Professional/Technical	70	12.2
	Blue Collar (Manufacturing)	95	16.6
	Service Worker	249	43.5
	Unemployed	51	9.0
	Retired	108	18.8
**Poverty Status	Above Poverty	181	31.6
•	Below Poverty	392	68.4
Income	Under - \$4,999	198	34.6
	5,000-9,999	189	32.9
	10,000-14,999	89	15.5
	15,000-19,999	38	6.6
	20,000+	59	10.4
	$\overline{X} = 9,100$		
Number of Children	1-2	997	44.4
	3-4	662	29.5
	5-7	359	15.9
	8-9	176	7.8
	10+	53	2.4
	$\overline{X} = 3.9$		

^{**}Based on the 1985 Poverty Index

Next, the t-tests were used to examine the extent to which four exogenous variables (age, education, occupation and income) differ in terms of mean scores on these items. Unequal group variances are taken into consideration. A two-tailed test was used to detect a difference in means between the two sub-population.

Third, analysis of covariance was used to determine whether education and future orientation are functions of age, education, occupation, and income. This technique is an extension of the multiple regression model for analysis of variance and is applicable when one of the dependent variables is quantitative or metric and another nonimal or non-metric. This method provides a direct means of adjusting for differences in the concomitant variables associated with a dependent variable.

Fourth, discriminant analysis is used to determine those characteristics which distinguish between community based organization users "in" and "out" of poverty. The function of this analysis is to weigh and linearly combine the discriminating variables --age, race, sex, education, employment status, health status, poverty status, training, nometropolitan status and physiographic dimension -- in a manner that renders the groups as distinct on these measures as possible. Linear combinations of the independent, sometimes called predictors, variables are formed and serve as the basis for classifying cases into one of the groups. Discriminant analysis provides two outputs that are particularly ueful for this investigation. First, it extracts a discriminant function that represents the dimension along which the two groups differ. These discriminant function coefficients, in a standardized form, indicate the relative importance of each predictor variable in the same manner as the Beta (B) weights in the regression analysis. Second, the classification of respondents is a direct measure of the predictive accuracy of the procedure and confirms the degree of group separation. That is, once the discriminant function has been extracted, it reveals how well the function correctly classifies the respondents relative to chance prediction.

Fifth, path analysis is a method of decomposing and interpreting linear relationships among a set of variables by assuming that (1) a casual order among these variables is known and (2) the relationships among these variables are casually closed. Although this method can be and has been used for testing a limited set of casual hypothesis and for interpreting and evaluating linear relationships, it is primarily, a method of working out logical consequences.

Finally, the sixth statistical analysis employed (in this chapter) is log-linear analysis. The log-linear analysis is a statistical technique that allows the researchers to fit models, test hypotheses, and estimate parameters for categorical, nominal or qualitative data. These procedures produce maximum likelihood estimates of parameters.

A log-linear analysis is used for uncovering the potentially complex relationships among the variables in a multiway crosstabulation. Log-linear models are similar to multiple regression models. However, in log-linear models, all variables used for classification are independent variables, and the dependent variables is the number of cases in a cell of the crosstabulation.

A log-linear model with a dichotomous dependent variable can be treated analogously to multiple regression, with the essential difference being that the independent variables affect not the probability but the odds on the dependent variable (the ratio of non-poor to poor). Contrariwise, the unit of analysis is not the individual scores but rather cell probabilities or the function thereof.

In log-linear analysis, the dependent variable is a cell probability, P, the probability that a randomly selected member of a population has a combination of characteristics. For and I \times J \times K population cross-classification, PIJX is the probability that a person has the Ith attribute of the first variable, the Jth attribute of the second variable and the Kth attribute of the third variable (Thompson, 1984). The long-linear analysis is very similar to other model building procedures. The goal is a model or equation that accounts for variation in cell probabilities.

CHAPTER VII

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Physiographic Analysis

The use of physiographic delimiters as a technique for research and analytic study is unique in the sociological arena. The researchers corroborated to design sampling frames employing regionally defined parameters based on the climatic districts and physiographic regions.

Traditionally, South Carolina has been referred to as having three distinct divisions: (1) The Piedmont, (2) The Midlands and (3) The Low-Country or Coastal areas. However, these divisions were primarily subjective and passed down from generation to generation by word of mouth. However, upon examining them, one finds a broader range based on physiographic, climatic, economic, social, and cultural categories. But, the treatment of this research is within the first three domains.

In order to operationalize the regions for statistical analyses, the researchers used maps of climatic districts and physiographic regions of the state to determine documented boundaries for the selection of counties within the research design. Finally, the map of climatic zones incorporated by the Community Action Programs, and utilized in their funding formula for the disbursement of monies for the energy assistance programs was used for the empirical analyses. A cursory inspection of Table 2 provides a frequency distribution of the sample by regions and community based organization. Regionally, 57.4 percent or 330 respondents reside in the central section, while 27.6 percent are living in the northern region and 15 percent or 86 in the southern region. The frequencies show that more than half of the respondents utilizing the Community Action Programs (63.1 percent) were located in metropolitan areas of the northern and central regions, only.

In general, education is an antecedent to job training, that is, there is a direct relationship between educational levels and the sophistication in the level of training. Occupation represents the skills of the individuals within the labor force and income derived from occupation is utilized as a general measure of socioeconomic status. An analysis of the human capital variables, including age, education, occupation and income by physiographic regions, was conducted with t-tests and Chi-square analyses.

Table 2. Number and Percentage Distribution of Respondents by CBO's Utilization and Region

	Northern		Cen	tral	Sout	hern	Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Community Action	52	32.7 (9.0)	225	68.2 (39.1)	86	100 (15.0)	363	63.1
Urban League	56	35.2 (9.7)	54	16.3 (9.4)	<u>.</u>	•	110	19.1
Opportunities Industrialization Centers	51	32.1 (8.9)	51	15.5 (8.9)	-	-	102	17.8
	159	100 (27.6)	330	100 (57.4)	86	100 (15.0)	575	100

^{() =} Percent of total sample.

Concomitant with other studies, younger working aged individuals (especially women) are treated as a positive contribution to the human capital resources. And, educational attainment serves as a surrogate for training.

The results of t-tests measuring the differences on the human capital dimensions mean scores by physiographic regions are presented in Table 3. The statewide results of the t-tests indicate that differences exist statistically on four of the dimensions. The differences in the levels of educational attainment are likely to be in the service worker occupational category, and a wide disparity is found in levels of income.

Regional Differences

Viewing the mean scores for the physiographic regions revealed the southern region is more homonymous to the state than those of the northern or center. However, in the northern region no statistically significant differences were found between the two sub-groups on the age or the occupation dimensions. Both income and education showed differences with income being greater.

Of the physiographic regions, the southern region displayed the greatest disparity among the four human capital dimensions between the poor and non-poor. In the central region, significant differences were revealed on education, occupation and income with respect to the regions. Age was not significant and was very similar to that of the northern region with mean scores of 3.25 and 3.52, respectively. Regardless of the physiographic regions or the above and below poverty status, race was not statistically significant.

Job training and placement is a major function of community based organizations. To assess the respondent's attitude(s) toward job training, the researchers employed Chi-square and t-tests analyses. The following items were utilized to evaluate training: (1) Are you presently in a training program?, (2) Would you be willing to train for a new or better job?, (3) If you had to pay to be trained?, (4) If you were paid to be trained? and (5) How much would you like to be paid?

The t-tests results of the aforementioned items revealed that differences were found between the poor and non-poor when a fee was charged for the training (t value=-5.46,P \leq .01) and if the respondent was paid to be trained (t value =-5.36,P \leq .001). As expected, the below poverty respondents tended to be more reluctant to receive training when a fee was charged. Additionally, the non-poor respondents tended to reject training if they were paid. The average amount that the respondent would like to receive as payment was \$3.35 per hour (minimum wage). No significant differences were revealed on willingness to be trained or presently in training programs at the community based organizations. In regard to regional differences, none were found to be statistically significant.

Table 3. Results of T-test for Poverty Status by Physiographic Regions in South Carolina

(N=573)

Mean Scores (Standard Deviation)

	Sta	ite		Norti	hern		Cent	ral		Sout	hern	
	Below Poverty	Above Poverty	T Value	Below Poverty	Above Poverty	T Value	Below Poverty		T Value	Below Poverty	Above Poverty	T Value
Age	4.115	3.009	-4.59*	3.739	3.250	62	4.219	3.525	-1.88	5.400	2.530	-6.25*
	(2.137)	(2.086)		(2.091)	(2.375)		(2.107)	(2.148)		(1.414)	(2.102)	
Education	2.118	2.803	10.94*	2.357	2.875	2.25*	2.060	2.775	8.09*	1.571	2.730	6.70**
	(.777)	(.468)		(.638)	(.354)		(.776)	(.423)		(.736)	(.667)	
Occupation	5.247	1,450	-8.98**	3.702	3.142	30	5.210	1.551	-5.57**	8.545	1.045	-7.66*
	(5.454)	(1.895)		(4.596)	(4.375)		(5.439)	(2.229)		(5.619)	(.213)	
Income	1.826 (2.077)	6.222 (4.469)	9.48**	2.147 (2.558)	5.000 (4.721)	2.69**		5.325 (4.299)	5.44**		7.560 (4.445)	6.38**

 $p \leq .05$ $p \leq .01$

Finally, the respondents were asked to compare their life situation to what it was before utilizing the services of community based organizations to what their situation was after utilization. The Chi-square analysis showed no significant differences on the three CBO's studied in regard to poverty status. However, only the Community Action Program was significant ($X^2 = 17.715$, $P \le .01$) for the region in the use of community based organizations. Respondents in the northern and central regions reported greater changes in their life situation after using CBO's than their counterparts in the southern or Low-country areas. Moreover, a vast majority of respondents (91.8 percent) felt their lives changed for the better after utilizing the services of the community based organizations.

The Composite Indices

Two major sections of the survey instrument focused on the perceived utility of education and future orientation. Education is viewed as a determinant in the utilization of community based organizations as education and training are integral functions within the framework of all such organizations (specifically the Opportunities Industrialization Centers). Thus, it was essential to evaluate the effect of respondents' attitudes and values on the utility of education. Also, the respondents' perspectives in regard to future orientation were evaluated in that one should be goal oriented to become self-actualized. Therefore, both the education and future orientation indices, composite measures of items pertaining to (1) the utility of education and (2) the expectations for the future, were analyzed via t-tests and analysis of covariance.

The education index consisted of 10 Likert-type items, while the future orientation index entailed 5 Likert-type items that were coded on a five-point scale ranging from "5" (strongly agree) to "1" (strongly disagree). Positively and negatively worded items were transformed in such manner that a low score would indicate a low degree of satisfaction. Empirically, the scale for education varied between 10 and 50 with a mean of 38.9 and a standard deviation of 4.4. This substantial variation on the dependent variable allows one to avoid the problem of skewness; the skewness coefficient was 0.135.

The data for the t-tests results revealed in Table 4 show how the poor and non-poor respondents differ on the ten educational items. As depicted in Table 4, data on attitudes held by below and above poverty respondents on education show that differences exist. Statistically significant differences are apparent in only two of the ten items. The size of the means reflects the level of one's attitude towards education based on a scale ranging from one to five. In this case, the lower the mean, the higher the value placed on education. Of the two scale items that were statistically significant, the poor respondents were more likely to feel that children are "getting too much education" than the non-poor cohorts. Additionally poor respondents were less likely to feel that "education is no help in getting a job today." Of the remaining items on the educational index, no statistically significant differences were found. Moreover, for the most part, the mean scores varied slightly between poor and non-poor indicating that both groups place a high value on education.

Table 4. Results of T-tests Between Poverty Status and the Utility Education Index (N=573)

	Mean Scores	(Standard Devia	tions)
•	Below	Above	
Iten	Poverty	Poverty	T-Value
Parents should not be compelled to	1.988	2.179	-1.04
send their children to school.	(1.025)	(1.121)	
High school courses are not very	2.223	2.051	-1.05
useful.	(.945)	(.887)	
Money spent on education could be	2.368	2.307	31
better used for other purposes.	(1.064	(1.239)	
Educated persons can advance more	2.016	1.948	48
rapidly than less educated persons.	(.794)	.826)	
Youngsters are getting too much	1.888	1.794	-2.62*
education today.	(.871)	(.767)	
School is of no help in getting	1.910	1.856	-2.41*
a job today.	(.878)	(.844)	
School should offer more evening	1.927	1.615	-1.45
and trade school courses.	(.733)	(.673	
Adult Education should be in all	1.681	1.538	-1.40
part of all school districts.	(.585)	(.555)	
Young people can learn more by	2.088	2.076	07
working than by going to high school for 4 years.	(.999)	(.957)	
Education is a way of solving	2.810	2.692	61
community racial problems.	(1.080)	(1.173)	

p ≤ .05

The results of the t-tests between the future orientation index and poverty status as revealed on Table 4 had a mean score of 15.75, standard deviation of 3.71 and the skewness coefficient of 0.0006 which approached normality. That is, the distribution curve for the future orientation index is almost identical to a normal curve.

The results of t-tests for the future orientation index (Table 5) suggest that group differences are minimal. As anticipated, the below poverty group revealed a slight degree of powerlessness associated with alienation. These items are considered blockage to goal setting and projection of defeat. However, of the remaining items, both groups (above and below poverty threshold) had minute differences.

Table 6 contains the results of the t-tests for the education and future orientation indices by selected socio-economic variables, indicated statistically significant differences on one of the six variables. On both indices, difference emerged on the sex variable. Females tend to value education slightly more than their male counterparts (\overline{x} = 38.07 for male versus \overline{x} = 39.07 for females). With reference to future orientations, males tend to possess a more positive outlook toward future expectations ($\bar{x} = 16.96$ for males and $\bar{x} = 15.53$ for females). On the remaining items (race, poverty status, residence, training at community based organizations, and migration for a better job), the mean scores showed only slight variations with the exception of being trained at community based organizations. A comparison of the mean scores for both indices indicated that persons who received training at a community based organization had a greater propensity to value education ($\overline{x} = 40.1$ for received training to $\overline{x} = 38.05$ for respondents with no training) and held a more positive attitude toward the future ($\bar{x} = 16.9$ for received training versus 14.9 for no training). In addition, for a more panoramic view of the response patterns concerning the utility of education, see Table 7 for the frequency distributions and percentages.

Analysis of Covariance Models

The respondents in all three regions indicated a positive attitude toward education and future orientation indices. Designs in which metric independent variables are used in conjunction with nonmetric factors are referred to as analysis of covariance research designs. In such designs, the term covariate is used to designate a metric independent variable and the term factor is used to designate a nonmetric categorical independent variable. Metric covariates are inserted into the design to remove extraneous variation from the dependent variable, thereby increasing measurement precision (Norusis, 1985).

An analysis of covariance is utilized to investigate the effects of the indices on nine variables. The equations for the additive models are as follows:

Table 5. Results of T-tests Between Poverty Status and the Future Orientation Index (N=573)

	Hean Scores	Standard Deviatio	ne)
Item	Poverty	Poverty	T-Value
Have you felt pretty sure your life would work out the way you wanted it to, or have there been more times when you haven't been very sure about it?	3.328 (1.013)	2.970 (1.138)	-1.04
Are you the kind of person that plans your life ahead all the time, or do you live more from day to day?	3.612 (1.470)	2.803 (1.400)	93
When planning ahead, do you usually get to carry them out the way you expected to or do things usually come up to make you change your plans?	3.167 (1.062)	2.725 (1.016)	72
Some people feel that other people push them around a good bit. Others feel that they run their lives pretty much the way they want to. How is it with you?	2.331 (1.152)	2.168 (.970)	-1.42*
Would you say you nearly always finish things once you start them, or do you sometimes have to give up before they are finished?	2.530 (1.139	2.505 (1.018)	59

x = 15.75

S.D. - 3.71

Skewness = 0.006

^{*}p ≤ .05

Table 6. Results of T-tests for the Utility of Education and Future Orientation Indices by Selected Socio-Economic Variables (N=573)

Item/		Education			Future	
Variables	Mean	s.D.	T-Value	Mean	S.D.	T-Value
Sex						
Male	38.072	4.542	-1.90*	16.964	4.061	1.26*
Female	39.072	4.378		15.530	3.617	
Race						
Black	38.813	4.485	-1.31	15.781	3.667	.44
White	39.473	4.015		15.595	3.979	
Poverty Status						
Below Poverty	38.751	4.367	1.13*	15.166	3.519	.22*
Above Poverty	39.702	4.499		17.425	3.925	
Residence						
Rural	38.637	4.495	.187	15.983	3.817	. 186
Urban	39.141	4.330		15.565	3.625	

Table 6. Continued

Th		Education		Future			
Item/ Variables	Mean	S.D.	T-Value	Mean	S.D.	T-Value	
Training at CBO's	·						
Received training	40.100	4.386	.36*	16.901	3.609	1.08*	
No training	38.053	4.225		14.975	3.618		
Will migrate for better jo	ь						
Migrate	38.686	4.379	45	15.907	3.877	.35	
Will not migrate	38.977	4.407		15.720	3.745		

^{*}P ≤ .05

Table 7. Percentage Distribution of Respondents' Feelings on Items Related to Utility of Education Index (N=573)

	Community Based Organization	Strongly Disagree Z	Disagree %	Uncertain %	Agree 1	Strongly Agree Z	Total
) Parents should not be compelled	UL	34.5	52.9	2.3	6.9	3.4	100
to send their child- ren to school	CAP	34.0	45.4	4.6	14.3	1.7	100
rea to school	OIC	42.9	41.6	2.6	10.4	2.6	100
) Bigh school courses are not very useful.	UL	2.3	50.7	14.9	8.0	24.1	100
	CAP	1.8	51.9	14.6	11.0	20.7	100
	OIC	26.6	49.4	12.7	11.4	-	100
B) Honey spent on education could	UL	20.7	26.0	16.1	14.9	2.3	100
be used for other	CAP	20.7	45.6	10.5	21.1	2.1	100
purposes.	oic	30.8	37.2	6.4	25.6	-	100
b) Educated persons can advance more	UL	3.5	8.0	9.2	56.3	23.5	100
rapidly than less	CAP	1.7	5.9	8.0	62.8	21.6	100
educated persons.	oic	3.9	3.9	7.8	58.4	26.0	100
5) Youngsters are get-	UL	25.3	58.7	6.9	5.7	3.4	100
ting too much education today.	CAP	27.7	47.9	12.6	10.1	1.7	100
	oic	43.7	43.7	8.0	2.3	2.3	100

Table 7. Continued

	Community Based Organization	Strongly Disagree Z	Disagree 1	Uncertain %	Agree %	Strongly Agree 7	Total
6) School is of no help in getting a	UL	37.2	53.5	2.3	7.0	-	100
job today.	CAP	33.7	54.2	4.2	7.9	-	100
	OIC	42.9	37.7	5.2	10.4	3.9	100
') Schools should offer more evening and trade school courses.	UL	-	1.1	6.8	65.5	26.6	100
	CAP	. 4	4.2	4.2	64.3	26.9	100
	OIC	-	1.3	2.6	54.5	41.6	100
) Adult education	UL	1.1	2.4	6.9	58.6	31.0	100
should be a part of all school	CAP	-	.5	2.5	58.0	38.0	100
districts.	oic	-	5.2	5.2	53.2	36.4	100
9) Young people can	UL	25.3	58.6	6.9	5.7	3.5	100
learn more by work- ing than by going	CAP	34.5	51.9	5.1	8.5	-	100
to high school for 4 years.	oic	39.0	41.6	13.0	6.4	-	100
10) Education is a	UL	9.3	33.7	11.6	37.3	8.1	100
way of solving a community racial	CAP	9.7	37.1	26.2	20.3	6.7	100
problem.	oic	7.8	45.5	18.2	24.6	3.9	100

An analysis of covariance is utilized to investigate the effects of the indices on nine variables. The equations for the additive models are as follows:

(A)
$$Y_1 = B_0 + B_1 X_1 + B_2 X_2 + B_3 X_3 \dots B_n B_n + e_1$$

(B)
$$Y_1 = B_0 + B_1 X_1 + B_2 X_2 + B_3 X_3 \cdots B_n X_n + e_2$$

Where Y = Education Index (social indicator - value of education)

Y = Future Orientation Index

 $X_1 = Sex$

 $X_2 = Race$

X₃ = Region (northern, central and southern)

X_A = Residence (rural - urban)

 X_5 = Use of Community Based Organizations

X₆ = Employment Status

X, = Poverty Status

 $X_{\Omega} = Training$

 $X_{o} = Migration$

 $X_{10} = Age (covariate)$

 $X_{11} = Education (covariate)$

B₁ = Parameter Estimates

e₁ = Random Error

An examination of Table 8 shows that when the effects of the other variables are held constant on the education index—sex, training and residence — were found to be statistically significant ($P \leq .05$). Consistent with the trends found in our previous analysis, female respondents have significantly higher levels on the education index, however, sex was not significant on the future orientation index. Also, on the education index, training and residence were significant, that is, persons who received training and respondents in urban areas valued education at a higher level than those in the rural areas who did not receive training.

Table 8. Analysis of Covariance for the Utility of Education Index and Future Orientation Index (N=573)

		Utility	of Educat	ion Index			Fu ture (Orientation	Index	
Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	<u></u>	Significance Level	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square		Significance Level
Potal	7938.12	418	18.991			6161.203	418	14.740		
Covariates:										
Age	44.57	1	44.57	2.571	0.110	15.488	1	15.488	1.226	0.269
Education	36.37	1	36.37	2.098	0.148	35.407	1	35.407	2.804	0.095
Main Effects:	916.37	13	70.49	4.066	0.000*	1046.535	13	80.503	6.375	0.000*
Sex	140.93	1	140.93	8.129	0.005*	16.496	1	16.496	1.306	0.254
Race	35.18	1	35.18	2.029	0.155	8.941	1	8.941	0.708	0.401
Utilization of CBO's	73.27	1	73.27	4.229	0.065	0.157	1	0.157	0.012	0.911
Employment Status	16.06	2	8.03	0.463	0.630	227.869	2	113.934	9.022	0.000*
Poverty Status	6.24	1	6.24	0.360	0.549	135.666	1	135.666	10.743	0.001*
Training	239.84	1	239.84	13.834	0.000*	161.349	1	161.349	12.776	0.000*
Migration	15.12	1	15.12	0.873	0.351	12.927	1	12.927	1.024	0.312
Region	0.67	2	0.33	0.019	0.981	19.918	2	9.959	0.789	0.455
Residence	100.94	1	100.94	5.822	0.016*	18.894	1	18.894	1.496	0.222
Error	7021.75	405	17.338			5114.668	405	12.629		

Significant differentials were found on poverty status, training and employment status. As expected, persons above poverty, individuals that received training and respondents who are employed have a brighter outlook towards the future. These results, except employment status, are parallel to those found on the t-tests analysis.

The data on Table 9 and 10, Multiple Classification Analysis, show the pattern of factor effects for the education and future orientation indices. The unadjusted deviation is simply the mean of each variable expressed as a deviation from the grand mean; where eta ² indicates the proportion of the variation in the index explained by each of the factors. The value of eta, which reflects the simple correlation between the education, future orientation and training indices is moderate at .25 on both the indices for training.

As we adjust for the variation in the indices due to the effects of the other factors, the adjusted etas are reduced only slightly, .21 and .20 for education and future orientation, respectively. In scanning the multiple classification scores, it is important to note the pattern of change in the effects of the variables. Viewing the scores on the education table on the region variable, for example, there is initially a 50 unit difference between the northern and central, while a 26-unit difference exists between the northern and southern regions. When these effects are controlled, there is a 13-unit difference between the northern and central regions, while the difference between northern and southern is reduced to 9-units.

Finally, the multiple R of .34 for education and .41 for future orientation indicate a moderate overall relationship between the indices and the factors. Only 11 percent (for education) and 17 percent (for future orientation) of the variance are explained by the additive effects of the variables in the models.

Table 9. Multiple Classification Analysis of Education by Poverty Status, Sex, Race, CBO's, Training, Employment Status, Region and Residence

(N=573)

<u>Variables</u>	Unadjusted Deviation	Eta	Adjusted Deviation ²	Eta
Poverty Status:				
Poor	.76	.10	.25	.03
Non-poor	26		09	
Sex:				
Male	- 1.02	.10	.46	.11
Female	.19		.49	
Race:				
Black	09	.04	14	.07
White	.42		.65	
Employment Status:				
Full-time	.73	.15	.04	.06
Part-time	.02		43	
Unemployed	73		. 24	
Residence:				
Rural	32	.07	63	.14
Urban	. 28		.56	
Migrate for Job:				
Will move	04	.00	56	.05
Will not move	.00		. 07	
Region:				
North	. 38	.04	10	.01
Central	12		.03	
South	.12		01	

Table 9. Multiple Classification Education (Cont.)

Variables	Unad justed Deviation	Eta	Adjusted <u>Deviation</u> ²	Eta
Use of CBO's				
Training	.00	.00	.46	.11
Other services	.00		.49	
Other Training				
Yes	1.38	. 25	1.19	. 21
No	83		72	

 $^{^{1}}$ Deviation from grand mean (38.93).

Multiple R = .340

 $R^2 = .115$

 $^{^{2}\}mathrm{Deviation}$ adjusted for factors and covariates.

Table 10. Multiple Classification Analysis of Future Index by Poverty Status, Sex, Race, CBO's, Training, Employment Status, Region and Residence

(N=573)

Variables	Unadjusted Deviation	Eta	Adjusted Deviation ²	Eta
overty Status:				
Poor	1.84	.28	1.15	.18
Non-poor	64		40	
ex:				
Male	1.03	.12	. 49	.06
Female	19		09	
ace:				
Black	.07	.04	.07	.04
White	33		33	
mployment Status:				
Full-time	.85	. 24	44	.30
Part-time	-1.48		-1.48	
Unemployed	.12		1.39	
esidence:				
Rural	.35	.09	.27	.07
Urban .	31		24	
ligrate for Job:				
Will move	.18	.02	.52	.09
Will not move	02		07	
egion:				
North	-0.63	.11	.21	.00
Central	-0.05		17	
South	0.81		.45	

Table 10. Multiple Classification Future (Cont.)

Variables	Unadjusted <u>Deviation</u> l	Eta	Adjusted Deviation ²	Eta
Use of CBO's:	٠			
Training	15	.04	.02	.01
Other services	. 16		02	
Other Training:				
Yes	1.25	. 25	. 98	.20
No	76		59	

¹Deviation from the grand mean (15.72).

Multiple R = .412

 $R^2 = .170$

The Logit Model (Logistic Regression)

In light of the literature reviewed pertaining to poverty differentials, a logit analysis is performed to test the extent to which selected economic and demographic variables are predictors of poverty status, an indicator of well-being. Because the number of exdogenous variables exceeded the maximum allowed by SPSS-X statistical package and because of the distribution of zero cells for the covariances (age and education), two separate models were examined and the covariances were recoded.

²Deviation adjusted for the factors and covariates.

Model I (linear in logarithms) is of the form:

$$L_{N} (F_{JK} \dots P_{1}/F_{JK} \dots P_{2}) = \lambda + \lambda_{J}S + \lambda_{K}RA + \lambda_{L}ED + \lambda_{M}AT + \lambda_{O}EM + \lambda_{P}RE \text{ where,}$$

F = an expected frequency

= effect coefficient

S = Sex

RA = Race

ED = Education

AT = Additional Training

A = Age

EM = Employment Status

RE = Region

To evaluate this model in terms of odds rather than log odds, the analogous multiplicative model is of the form:

$$(F_{JK} \cdots P_1/F_{JK} \cdots P_2) = \lambda * \lambda_J s * \lambda_K RA * \lambda_L ED * \lambda_M AT * \lambda_N A * \lambda_D EM * \lambda_D RE$$

The above model is tested using logit analysis and the results of maximum likelihood estimates are given in Table 11.

Five of the logit coefficients are statistically significant in the expected direction, while five of the coefficients fail to achieve significance. Anti-logs are used to convert these coefficients to the odds of being in poverty. In terms of importance, employment status with a coefficient of 3.64 is found to be the most influential, followed by additional training, central versus southern region effect, sex, age, race, and education.

Table 11. Estimate Coefficients for Logit-Model

Powerty Status

(N=573)

Term	Coefficient	S.E.	Betai
Sex	.14	.078	1.32
Race	02	.084	.98
Ed.	44*	.077	.42
Additional Training	.30*	. 066	1.84
Age	12 .14	.097	.79 1.32
Emplo yme nt	.65* 33*	.089	3.64
Region	72* .17	.160 .102	.23 1.41
Mean (X)	78	.127	.21
el II:			
Health Status	52*	. 141	.35
Use of CBO's	21*	.093	.66
Metro	.10	_	1.21
Hean (X)	25	1.149	.61

^{*}Statistically significant at the 0.05 level.

The coefficient of 0.42 indicates the net effect of a high school education. Other things equal, a person with a high school education is slightly less than one-half times as likely to be poor as a person with a high school education. In addition, the effect of additional training beyond high school is 1.84. That is, persons who did not receive additional training are almost twice as likely to be below the poverty threshold as persons who receive additional training. Again, these coefficients are statistically significant.

⁺Regression analogous to coefficient (odds).

Other findings generated from Model I include: (1) the odds of a female respondent being poor are 1.32 to 1; (2) the odds of a black respondent being poor versus a white respondent being poor are about even; (3) persons 65 years or older are more likely to be poor than 35-64, but less likely to be poor than persons less than 35 years of age; and (4) respondents in the southern region are 1.41 times more likely to be poor than respondents in the central, but are only one-fourth as likely to be poor as persons in the northern region. The latter finding is somewhat surprising. However, upon examining the distribution of persons above and below the poverty threshold by region, this finding is an artifact of the sample. That is, in the aggregate, the northern region has a higher economic development level. Because of the nature of the study and sample-frame, moreover, 89 percent of the respondents in the northern region were poor compared to 65 percent in the southern region.

The estimated logit coefficients for Model II analogous in mathematical form to Model I, are also presented in Table 11. In terms of importance, health status appears to be the most influential, followed by utilization of community based organizations. Other things equal, persons who do not have health problems are one-third less likely to be below the poverty threshold, whereas persons who utilized community based organizations are two-thirds less likely to be in poverty. The effect of metropolitan residence (rural versus urban) was unstable due to the large number of empty cells.

Finally, likelihood-ratio statistics were calculated to assess the overall fit of the model. These statistics follow a Chi-square (x^2) distribution with degrees of freedom = (number of cells - number of coefficients estimated). The resulting coefficients for Model I and Model II were 41.07 (P \leq 0.98) and 4.01 (P \leq 1.0), respectively, which suggests that both models adequately account for the poverty status or levels of well-being of the sample.

Path Analysis

To assess the nature and magnitude of the coefficients generated by the analysis of covariance and the findings from the previous analysis on five of the exogenous variables (age, education, sex, occupation and income), path analysis was incorporated. In addition, for comparative purposes, the researchers incorporated the data collected in an earlier work (See Howie, 1986). The data for this analysis were extrapolated from the traditional agency users data set, that is, persons who were recipients of goods and/or services provided by those agencies either mandated or legislated by federal and/or state law. Such agencies include the following: (1) Employment Security (Job Service), (2) Food Stamps, (3) Farmers Home Administration, (4) Social Security, (5) Commission on Aging, (6) Public Health Service, (7) Mental Health and (8) Veterans Administration.

Table 12 presents zero-order correlation coefficients for traditional agency usage with age, sex, educatin, occupation and income. Education (r = .236, P \leq .05), occupation (r = .277, P \leq .05), and income (r = .352, P \leq .05 are significantly related to traditional agency usage. The remaining exogenous variables (age and sex) lack significant coefficients and are related inversely.

The correlation matrix in Table 13 for non-traditional users mirror the analysis revealed for traditional users. Moreover, increases in the magnitude of the coefficients exist in relation to their traditional counterparts with significant correlations for education (r = .453, $P \le .05$), occupation (r = .396, $P \le .05$), and income (r = .604, $P \le .05$).

Table 14 shows the standardized regression coefficients or path coefficients. Regression coefficients among the independent variables and the endogenous variable, agency users, range from a - .176 for age to .473 for income. All five of the explanatory variables of the standardized regression analysis obtained levels of significance of .05 or less, and account for 37 percent of variance for traditional users, while 58 percent of the variance is explained for non-traditional users.

These data reflect differences between traditional and non-traditional usage (denoted as Model I and Model II; respectively,) for the path analytic technique.

To evaluate some of the interrelations among the exogenous variables, path analysis is used to formulate a causal structure or model (See Figure 5). The findings of the path analysis support the theoretical perspective of the study. That is, differences exist between traditional and non-traditional agency users. An examination of Figure 5, of the traditional user or Model I, shows that occupation and income had the greater direct effect upon agency users through the indicated arrows and path coefficients of .277 and .312 respectively.

Similarly, the model for non-traditional users is identical in relationship to the direct effect of the two exogenous variables. However, the model is considerably different from the traditional sample. The interpretation of these direct effects, particular on Model II is, as income increase (.54), agency usage increases. Also, as the direct effect of educational attainment (.35) increases, so does utilization of agencies.

Content Analysis of Agency Directors' Interviews

A content analysis of the data collected through direct structured interviews of community based organizations directors and/or their designees was analyzed. These data were collected in conjunction with the individual surveys (See Appendix B).

Table 12. Zero-Order Correlations Matrix for Traditional Users (N=312)

Variable	Age	Sex	Education	Occupation	Income	Agency Users
Age	1.000					
Sex	607*	1.000				
Education	.619*	729*	1.000			
Occupation	331*	.644*	.469*	1.000		
Income	.204*	.509*	377*	.803*	1.000	
Agency Usage	034	150	.236*	.277*	.352*	1.000

^{*}P ≤ .05

Table 13. Zero-Order Correlations Matrix for Non-Traditional Users (N=573)

Variable	Age	Sex	Education	Occupation	Income	Agency Users
Age	1.000					
Sex	059	1.000				
Education	254*	142*	1.000			
Occupation	448*	597*	.206*	1.000		
Income	.202	.683	.437*	.917*	1.000	
Agency Usage	047	. 198	.453*	.396*	.604*	1.000

^{*}P ≤ .05

Table 14. Standardized Regression Coefficients for Models of Traditional and Non-Traditional Samples

(N=312)

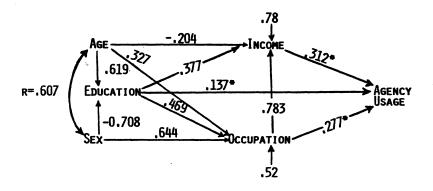
(N=573)**

Independent Variables	Standardized Regro Model I	Model II**	
Age	186*	176*	
Sex	.188*	145*	
Educational Attainment	.337*	.261*	
Occupation	.302*	.313*	
Income	.473*	.301*	
R ²	.368	.581	

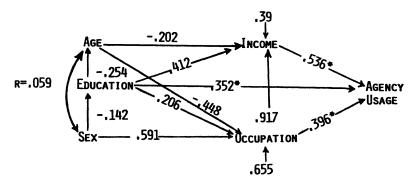
^{*}P ≤ .05

FIGURE 5. PATH MODELS FOR TRADITIONAL AND NON-TRADITIONAL AGENCY USERS

TRADITIONAL



Non-Traditional



*-Significantly greater for sample, (P \leq .05)

The empirical analysis began with some brief observations about the relationship between clients served and funding of programs/services provided by Community Action Programs within the target counties. In making this analysis, it must be noted that factors beyond the control of the researchers resulted in funds for Charleston being incorporated in the midst of the fiscal year into the Beaufort/Jasper 1984 allocation and dispersed from that central office. Therefore, Beaufort/Charleston/Jasper were treated as a single entity. For analyses of funding and the number of clients, Charleston must be treated as rural.

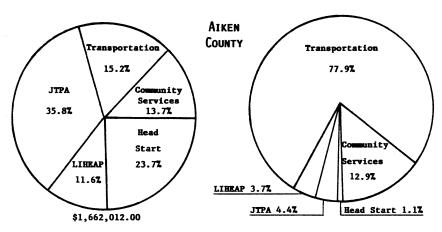
The descriptive statistical analysis revealed clearly that differences exist among the Community Action Programs investigated. On Figures 6-8, one may observe that no significant patterns or relationships between the rural-urban dichotomy were sustained. In terms of funds allocated, one urban county—Richland with 64.8 percent—and a rural area—Horry/Williamsburg at 40 percent were parallel with the greater proportion of their budgets allocated to Low-Income Home Energy Assistance Programs. By contrast, the Job Training and Partnership Act programs appropriations were highest in rural Aiken county at 35.8 percent and urban Greenville county with 34.1 percent. The Head Start programs allotted fundings produced the largest dispersion among the target counties with a range of 12.2 percent in Richland county to 39 percent in Horry/Williamsburg.

Among the major fiscal functions of the Community Action Programs, funds for transportation varied widely, ranging from zero percent in Beaufort/Charleston/Jasper counties (transportation is provided for Head Start participants only, with funding for such incorporated within its budget) to 20.8 percent in Richland county. In Aiken, allocation for transportation was 15.2 percent, followed by Greenville county with 6.5 percent and Horry/Williamsburg with one percent. In the Horry/Williamsburg target area, limited transportation was provided to the clientele. The director stated that the buses and vans had deteriorated to the point where they were deemed unsafe and/or inoperative.

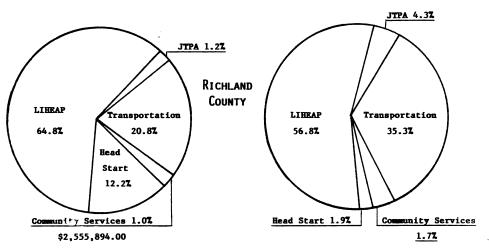
Finally, Figures 6-8 further revealed that the distribution of funds within Community Services Programs varied among the target counties. The extent of the percentage differential for Community Services was 26.6 percent in Greenville county to one percent in Richland county. When taken as an aggregate, the distribution of funds within the target counties manifested no specific trend or relationship.

As illustrated by the graphs in Figures 6-8, on the number of clients served, again no significant patterns exist among the target counties. The Low-Income Home Energy Assistance Program had the greater percentage of service users in Horry/Williamsburg with 80.1 percent, followed closely by transportation in Aiken county with 77.9 percent. It is interesting to note that there is a marked difference between the two rural target counties where transportation is provided. Transportation is utilized most by four-fifths of the clientele in Aiken county, while less than one percent of the clients in Horry/Williamsburg used transportation.

FIGURE 6. PERCENT OF CLIENTS SERVED AND FUNDS ALLOCATED BY COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAMS, 1984

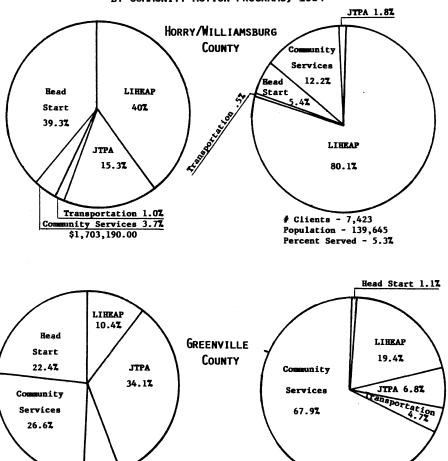


#Clients - 17,023
Population - 105,625
Percent Served - 16.1%



LIHRAP = Low-Income Home Energy Assistance Programs JTPA = Job Training and Partnership Act #Clients - 12,333
Population - 267,823
Percent Served - 4.6%

FIGURE 7. PERCENT OF CLIENTS SERVED AND FUNDS ALLOCATED BY COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAMS, 1984



LIHEAP = Low-Income Home Energy Assistance Programs
JTPA = Job Training and Partnership Act

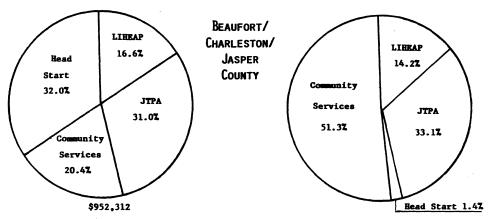
\$1,640,133.00

Transportation 6.5%

Clients - 30,914

Population - 287,913 Percent Served - 10.7%

FIGURE 8. PERCENT OF CLIENTS SERVED AND FUNDS ALLOCATED BY COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAMS, 1984



Clients - 10,201 Population - 357,176 Percent Served - 2.85%

LIHRAP = Low-Income Home Energy Assistance Programs
JTPA = Job Training and Partnership Act

Another dimension of client usage of services show differences of significant proportions in Community Services Programs in the urban counties with percent variations of 67.9 percent in Greenville county to 1.7 percent in Richland county. Only two of the four rural counties were parallel in percent of usage, with 12.2 percent and 12.9 percent for Horry/Williamsburg and Aiken counties, respectively. The Beaufort/Charleston/Jasper area ranked exceptionally high with 51.3 percent client usage. Such may imply that the inclusion of Charleston in this entity skewed the findings.

An investigation into the proportion of clients served to the target population revealed a range of 16.1 percent to 2.85 percent. Among the target counties, Aiken county was highest followed by Greenville county with 10.7 percent. The Beaufort/Charleston/Jasper target area was the lowest (See Figures 6-8).

Significant differences pertaining to the remaining services were as follows: The range for the Job Training and Partnership Act participants was 33.1 percent to less than 10 percent. Moreover, the analysis on the Head Start Programs indicated that a positive correlation was found between the number of clients served and allocation of funds. Also, there was a direct proportional relationship-the greater the distribution of funds the greater the program participation.

Therefore, Pearsonian correlation coefficients were were utilized to assess the degree of association between clientele served and appropriation to the diverse services of the Community Action Programs. An examination of the correlation coefficients revealed that only one target area (Beaufort/Charleston/Jasper) achieved an acceptable level where a high positive correlation of .877 between the variables was obtained. The remaining counties, with the exception of Aiken, also achieved a positive correlation. However, these relationships were moderately positive to negligible with coefficients of .608 in Richalnd and .203 in Greenville county. The coefficient in Aiken had an inverse or negative relationship of -.241 with some suggestion of nonlinearity or parabolism. The interpretation being, that the number of clients served and the funding for the services provided to the clients are in an inverse relationship. That is, for the most part, services which received greater funding served a smaller number of clients. However, if Beaufort/Charleston/Jasper were extracted, the correlation coefficient returns to a positive direction in relationship to clients served and funds allocated.

Agency directors and/or their designees (program directors and assistant directors) were asked to rank each service on most usage by their clients. Utilizing a continuum with one being highest, the services were prioritized. Of all services provided, the directors ranked the top four programs/services as follows: (1)Energy Assistance, (2) Crisis Relief, (3) Community Services and (4) Transportation.

An analysis of the rankings were obtained using Spearman's Coefficient of Rank Order Correlations. A correlation coefficient of .879 (P \(\leq .001 \)) was achieved between the rural and urban directors and/or their designees. The strong positive correlation indicates that the directors' assessment of service usage was quite similar in both urban and rural areas.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

As indicated in previous studies, it is imperative to provide knowledge of service/program seekers and/or users in the planning and implementing of such programs. The community based organizations are prime examples of service providers to the limited-resource populace.

One of the primary objectives of this research was to examine the perceptions of community based organizations users. Specific attention was focused on the relationship of these agencies and the development of human capital resources among their clientele. The researchers constructed and empirically tested a composite measure on individual user's (current and past) perceptions relative to the effectiveness of the community based organizations within South Carolina.

In addition to the individual survey instrument that assessed the respondent's values, attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions, the researchers conducted structured audio-taped interviews of the directors and/or their designees. Each of the sessions was designed with a minimum timeframe of one hour to assess "the other side of the coin." Also, the researchers are recommending that replicated or paralleled studies utilizing the developed instrument be conducted in other states, specifically, those that participated in the "Isolation of Factors Related to the Levels and Patterns of Living in the Rural South, RR-I project. One may safely assume that similar voids exist in the research on community based organizations as to their functions, structure and effectiveness in serving the targeted populations in other states.

A univariate examination of the data showed more than half of the respondents were from the central region (57.4 percent) which was determined an artifact of the sample design. That is, the central area contained more of the Community Action Programs than any of our other selected target areas. A profile of a user of the service/program would be as follows: a black, female, approximately thirty-four years old, with approximately four children, eleven years of formal education and below the poverty threshold.

While it is important to characterize the sample, it is equally important to have a valid analysis of the data set on the structural and conditional restraints imposed on limited-resource persons. A content analysis of the agency directors'

audio-tape sessions generated data on current services being provided, cutbacks and/or deletions of services by their respective agency. Presently, there are five major programs with eleven service areas offered by Community Action Programs (CAP). In order to present a concise interpretation of the data, a county by county item analysis was utilized.

Only five services were offered by each county. Of the target counties, these services include the following: Crisis Relief, Energy Assistance, Weatherization, Job Training and Partnership Act (JTPA) and Head Start. Of the services providing Community Services Programs, 84 percent of the counties (N=5) offered General Emergency Assistance with Greenville county being the exception. Horry/Williamsburg was the only county offering all five of the services within the domain of the Community Services Program. With regard to transportation, 84 percent of the counties offered this service, also, with Beaufort/Charleston/Jasper being the exception.

Recent changes in federal and state policies, along with substantial cutbacks in funding, caused some services to be more adversely affected than others. Of the counties researched, Aiken and Horry/Williamsburg were the only counties that had not experienced reduction in services. However, the remaining counties affected ranged from 14 percent in Beaufort/Charleston/Jasper, Greenville and Horry/Williamsburg to 28 percent in Richland. Beaufort/Charleston/Jasper received cutbacks in transportation due to the lack of funding. Greenville experienced a reduction in the Job Training and Partnership Act programs due to the funding formula which is adjusted in accordance to the unemployment rate. In other words, if the unemployment rate declines, the funding decreases. Richland county had cutbacks in the General Emergency Assistance Programs due to increase in administrative costs. The budget for the Job Training and Partnership Act (JTPA) was reduced after allocations had been approved by Richland county, but reduced federal funding was not absorbed by the county.

In addition to the aforementioned cutbacks, all services in the target counties were affected by service deletions or relinquished to other human service agencies. Because Community Food and Nutrition Services were stricken from Community Block Grant funds, each of the six counties was forced to delete provisions of these services although the need was acute. Moreover, Aiken, Beaufort/Charleston/Jasper, and Greenville counties experienced the bulk of service deletions with 36.4 percent in service reductions. Specifically, the services were depleted in the Community Service Area, which included Summer Programs whose funds were expunged and the county government or school system assumed the responsibilities. The Senior Citizens Programs were absorbed by Adult Day or the Council on Aging organizations.

Analysis of the Community Action Program data on clients served and allocations for programs/services demonstrate the following:

- Significant differences prevailed among the levels of funding for services types within the target counties.

- The analysis of the Head Start Programs indicated that a positive correlation is found between the number of clients served and allocation of funds. There is a direct relationship -- the greater the distribution of funds the greater the program participation.
- The Low-Income Home Energy Assistance Program (LIHEAP) had the greatest percentage of service users in Horry/Williamsburg counties with 80.1 percent with the next highest being 56.8 percent in Richland county.
- Transportation was utilized by almost four-fifths of the clientele in Aiken county, while less than one percent in Horry/Williamsburg. However, this descrepancy may be attributed to the fact that the Horry/Williamsburg county director indicated that his vehicles were in inadequate condition to transverse all designated routes.
- Client usage of services showed differences of significant proportions in Community Service Programs with the highest percent in Greenville county and the lowest in Richalnd County, both of which are urban counties.
- The agency directors ranked the top four programs/services as (1) Energy Assistance (2) Crisis Relief, (3) Community Services and (4) Transportation.
- The directors' rank order of services generated a correlation coefficient of .879 indicating that the rankings were similar in both urban and rural areas.

A detailed analysis of services rendered in the different target counties revealed that differences exist among the Community Action Programs with regard to funding and client usage. Moreover, agency directors indicated some of the reasons were that cutbacks and deletions occurred. For example, one agency director stated that "programs that are not used are usually cut out." However, another director claims that "people who need help do not want to deal with long range economic development, but short-term self-sufficiency services." But, funding is oftentimes "too low to give assistance." When "allocations are low and need is high, clients do not waste their time applying for assistance, such as securing heat, fans, and screens." The limited amount of money allocated for the particular programs frequently poses a hazard on the service delivery of that agency such as energy assistance, low-income home energy, and summer programs. Another director claims that "service agencies place barriers that eliminate or decrease the eligible population, therefore limiting participation." For example, the amount of money allocated is publicized and people know that

if their application is not within the "first come, first served" quota, they must re-apply for service during the next cycle. Such procedure is not only frustrating, but expensive to the client who must pay for transportation to the enrollment center in order to be considered again.

It was postualted by some of the directors that longitudinal programs/services such as Senior Citizens, Graduate Equivalency Diploma (GED), and Community Food and Nutritional are more vulnerable to cutbacks or deletions than those having "short-term impact." The rationale being that programs such as Low-Income Home Energy Assistance Programs (LIHEAP) generate greater visibility or exposure publicly than "long-term services," thus impacting most on policy-makers who control the purse strings. As one director stated, greater allocations for long-term services, like Job Training and Partnership Act (JTPA) and Weatherization are needed, as opposed to short-term one shot services as LIHEAP, assisting with voucher payments on one's utility bills, which he labeled as a "stop gap measure." In other words, if funds were allocated to weatherizing the home, instead of helping an individual pay on his utility bill, they would have a far reaching impact for the clients served.

It was the consensus of the directors that all services are needed. However, with cutbacks at the state and federal levels, they will have to rely more on contributions from the public and private business sectors for program support.

To better understand the relationship of limited-resource persons and their utilization of community based organizations in recent years, this study made an assessment of agency users in regard to elements of the human capital demensions in six racially mixed target counties of South Carolina. The physiographic data showed that there exist statistically significant differences among the three regions (northern, central, and southern) on the human capital variables. The t-tests analysis found that the southern region is more similar to the state mean scores for the four human capital variables, while the northern and central regions were more aligned with each other. However, the southern regions displayed the greatest disparity among the four human capital dimensions between the poor and non-poor. Moreover, regardless of the physiographic regions, race was not statistically significant.

The results showed education as a key determinant in the utilization of the community based organizations. To further analyze this major component, the analysis of the education composite index revealed persons below and those above poverty held similar educational values, their mean score varied slightly. Also, females had a greater propensity to value education than males.

Relative to the future orientation index, one significant differential between poor and non-poor respondents surfaced. That is, the poor reported "they get pushed around a good bit by others" more than their counterparts which indicates a high level of alienation. Moreover, males tended to hold a more optimistic view than females in regard to future orientation, and persons who received training held optimistic views.

In general, the results of the t-tests revealed that persons above the poverty threshold were significantly more likely to have a higher level on future orientation. On the composite index, race was not significant and poverty status was significant for education, only.

The analysis of covariance results confirmed the findings of the t-tests for the most part. Only minute differences surfaced on the human capital dimensions which were consistent with our previous findings in Chapter VII. However, this analysis had inclusion of several endogous variables. Significant findings were revealed between the education index with training and residence. The analysis indicated persons who received training and individuals in urban areas valued education at higher levels more than their counterparts. The covariance models produced multiple R of .34 for education and .41 for future orientation, thus a moderate relationship overall among the indicators.

Path analysis was used to examine the statistical significance of the relationships presented in the causal model. The substantial focus of the models was on the influences exerted by the exogeneous variables age, education, occupation, sex and income, such that both direct and indirect effects were assessed for traditional agencies versus community based organizations. A test of the model revealed that the standardized partial path coefficients for these variables were statistically significant. Furthermore, age, sex, education, occupation and income were found to have direct effects at moderate levels.

In a corollary way, the results of the logit analysis lent support to the findings of the path analysis, which included region, training and employment status to the previous models for its predictive capability. Five of the logit coefficients are statistically significant in the expected direction (education, training, employment status and region). In terms of importance, employment status with a coefficient of 3.64 was found to be most influential, followed by additional training, central versus southern region effect, sex, age, race and education in relationship to the poverty index. The model showed that females, persons with less than a high school education, persons who received no additional training, and elederly had a greater likelihood of being in poverty with odds of 1.84 to 1, 1.32 to 1 and 1.41 to 1, respectively. The model fits the data as indicated by the Goodness-of-Fit Test Statistics.

Finally, the findings indicate the community based organizations are effective and viable entities within the various communities throughout the state. Overall, 88.9 percent of the respondents reported changes for the better in their life situation after utilizing the services of community based organizations.

An in depth system analysis of CBO's is the overall objective of the second phase of this study. The rural/urban dichotomy, measurement of investment in human capital, the influences of governmental policy changes, and the development of an operational model based on the interaction of policy change on the human component are to be the culminating section of this research project.

CHAPTER IX

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APPENDIX A

Individual Instrument

Survey of Individuals Involved in the "Socio-Economic Indicators of Poverty in South Carolina" Project

Summer, 1985

County:	(ZIP CODE)
Interview Number:	·		
Interviewer Number:			
Date(s) of Interview:	·		
Time Interview Started	a.m. p.m.	(Circle a.m	. or p.m.)
Time Interview Ended	a.m. p.m.	(Circle a.m	. or p.m.)
Sex of Head of the Household	Male 1	Female 2	
Sex of the Respondent	Male 1	Female 2	
Race of Head of the Household	Black 1	White 2	Other 3
Discoulation As Alex Report City		the second	

Contact Number: 1 2 3 4 (Circle each contact made)

SECTION I: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Now, I would like to ask some	questions	about you	and ot	her persons	living
in this household.					

o Respondents	Male	Female	Age	Relationship to Respondents	Male	Female	Ag
1	1	2		9	1	2	
2	1	2		10.	1	2	_
3.	1	2		11	1	2	
4	1	2		12	1	2	
5	1	2		13	1	2	
6	1	2		14	1	2	
7	1	2		15	1	2	_
8	1	2		16	1	2	
es, list: Relationship	Male	Female	Age	Relationship	Male	Female	Αį
o Doomondonto				to Respondents			
o Respondents							
1	1	2		4	1	2	
•		2		4		2	
1	1		<u> </u>		_ 1		_

6. How much do you think this HOUSE/APARTI sell for if you sold it today? If you're not sure	
(CIRCLE ONE)	just take a guess.
under 5000 1	50,000 - 64,999 6
5000 - 14,999 2	65,000 - 99,999 7
15,000 - 24,999 3	100,000 or more 8
25,000 - 34,999 4	•
35,000 - 49,999 5	
7. What is your current age? (IN YEARS)?	
8. Your current marital status: (CHECK ONE)	
Married 1	Divorced
Married	Widowed 4
Never Married	5
SECTION II: ECONOMIC/EMPLOYMENT	
9. What is your present job situation?	
Employed Full-time	Unemployed
Employed Part-time	Retired
Ask Q. 10, 11 and 12 IF UNEMPLOYED	
10. If unemployed, how long has it been since	e (HEAD) worked?
11. What do you think the chances are that (HE. he had before	
12. Why do you say so?	
13. What is the job situation with your spouse	?
Employed Full-time	Unemployed
Employed Part-time	Retired
Never Wo	rked
Ask Q. 14, 15, and 16 IF UNEMPLOYED 14. If unemployed, how long has it been since	e (SPOUSE) worked?

job he/she had before?
16. Why do you say so?
17. What kind of work has (SPOUSE) DONE? (USE OCCUPATION CODE BELOW) What is your occupation? (IF RETIRED OR UNEMPLOYED ASK, "WHAT KINDS OF WORK HAVE YOU DONE?") CIRCLE ONE Professional, technical and kindred worker
Manager or administrator(Except Farm)02
Sales Worker
Clerical or kindred worker04
Craftsman or foreman
Operative involved in manufacturing
Transport equipment operative07
Laborer (Except Farm)
Farmer or farm manager
Farm laborer or farm foreman
Service worker(Except Private Household
Private household worker
Never worked outside home
Self-employed(List type of employment)14
18. How many persons in this household depend on your income as their sole means of support? (RECORD NUMBER)
19. LOOKING DOWN THE APPROPRIATE COLUMN, FIND FAMILY SIZE. READ THIS FIGURE TO THE RESPONDENT IN THE FOLLOWING WAY: "Did you earn more than (Figure) During 1984").
Yes1 No2
(RECORD FIGURE YOU USED)

Family Size (from Q. 6a)

	1 \$6,470 5 \$15,522 2 8,736. 6 7,784 3 10,998 7 20,046 4 13,260 8 22,308
OVE	R 8 MEMBERS ADD \$2,260 per person
20.	Would you tell me how much income you and your family will be making during this calendar year, 1985? I mean, before taxes.
	AUNDER \$1000 F\$5,000 - 5,999 B1000 - 1999 G6,000 - 7,499 C2000 - 2999 Fi7,500 - 9,999 D3000 - 3999 I10,000 - 14,999 E4000 - 4999 J15,000 - 19,000 K20,000 - AND OVER
21.	Does that include the income of everyone who contributed to the support of the family?
	YES NO (CHECK CORRECT BOX ABOVE TO INCLUDE TOTAL FAMILY INCOME)
22,	For someone in the line of work (HEAD) is now doing, how does the rate of pay here in(COMMUNITY NAME)compare with other persons in the area?
23.	For someone in the line of work (HEAD) is now doing, how much work is there around here?
-	more than enough enough undecided very little none
24.	Some people are out of work for a time every year, others are unemployed every few years, and still others are almost never unemployed. What has been (HEAD'S) experience?

(IF	UNEMPLOY	ED NOW	OR AN	Y TIME .	IN LAST	TWELVE	MONTHS
-----	-----------------	--------	-------	----------	---------	--------	--------

	ered a job that meant			
	ailes trom here, do y			
Suppose (HEAI which job wou	O) also found a job b ld (HEAD) prefer?	ut it paid less than	n the jo	b 50 miles awa
tion. Did (HEAI	get any information	on about jobs in a	out abo	out the job situ nese ways? (AS
	28a. Was the infor- mation helpful?			28a. Was the inf mation helpf
ewspaper NO YES		h. church	NO	
state NO YES gency?		i. barber shop/ beauty parlor	NO YES	
privateNO mploymentYES gency	·	j. neighborhood/ community store	NO YES	
ersonal NO epresenta- ives of an apployer?		k. neighborhood/ community fill- ing station	NO YES	
adio/TVNOYES		1. any other way? (what?)	NO YES	
special trip NO o look the YES ituation over		m. I go to employ- ees and ask	NO YES	
riends orNOYES				
	Which job wou I have a list of dition. Did (HEAI Q. 28a FOR EA EVAPORE AND YES State NO YES State NO YES STATE NO YES STATE NO YES SERICY? Private NO YES SERICY? Private NO YES SERICY? SERICY: SERI	which job would (HEAD) prefer? I have a list of different ways people tion. Did (HEAD) get any information. Did (HEAD) get any information helpful? Sevepaper NO YES Sevepaper NO YES Severial NO YES Severial trip NO YES	which job would (HEAD) prefer? I have a list of different ways people sometimes find tion. Did (HEAD) get any information about jobs in at Q. 28a FOR EACH YES ANSWER.) 28a	I have a list of different ways people sometimes find out about ion. Did (HEAD) get any information about jobs in any of the Q. 28a FOR EACH YES ANSWER.) 28a

30.	Did you at any time in the last twelve months receive from the government any food stamps?
	YESNO
31.	During the last twelve months did you get any help with living expenses from relatives (not living in this home), friends, churches, or private agencies?
	YESNO
32.	During the last twelve months did you get any welfare, aid, or assistance from state or local government agencies?
	YESNO
33.	If you added up the months you have received some kind of welfare or assistance from the state or local government since you were 18 years old, would it come to: less than one year, one or two years, two or three years, three or four years, or five or more years?
	LESS THAN ONE YEAR ONE OR TWO YEARS
	TWO OR THREE YEARS THREE OR FOUR YEARS
	FIVE OR MORE YEARS

SECTION III. EDUCATION

I would like to ask you some questions concerning education.

١.		HEAD	SPOUSE
	How many grades of school	1234	1234
•	did (you) finish?	<u>5 6 7 8</u>	<u>5 6 7 8</u>
		9 10 11 12	9 10 11 12
5. i	Have (you) had any other Schooling?	YES	YES
-	IF THE RESPONDENT AMSWERS YES TO Q. 35, ASK Q. a-c		
	a. What other school- ing have (you) had?	(COLLEGE, SECRETARIAL, BUSINESS, ETC.)	(COLLEGE, SECRETARIAL, BUSINESS, ETC.)
1	b. Do (you) have a college degree?	NO	YES NO
•	c. Did (you) go to college within 50 miles of your home or did you	WITHIN 50 MILES	WITHIN 50 MILES
	go more than 50 miles away?	ORE THAN	MORE THAN

I'd like to ask your opinion on a few questions and tell me if you strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree or strongly disagree. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions so be as honest as you can in each response.

36. Public money spent on education for the past few years could have been used betty for other purposes. Strongly agree⁵ Undecided³ Disagree² Strongly disagree Agree 4 37. High school courses today are not very useful. Agree⁴ Undecided 3 Disagree² Strongly disagree 38. An educated person can advance more rapidly in business and industry. Agree⁴ Undecided³ Disagree² Strongly disagree 39. Education is of no help in getting a job today. Agree⁴ Disagree² Strongly agree⁵ Strongly disagree Undecided 40. Most young people are getting too much education. Agree⁴ Undecided³ Disagree² Strongly disagree 41. Education is a way of solving community racial problems. Agree⁴ Undecided³ Disagree² Strongly disagree 42. A young person can learn more by working four years than by going to high school for four years. Agree⁴ Undecided 3 Disagree² Strongly agree⁵ Strongly disagree Parents should not be compelled to send their children to school. Agree 4 Undecided 3 Disagree² Strongly disagree 1 Public schools should me offer evening classes and trade/vocational school courses. Undecided 3 Strongly agree⁵ Agree 4 Disagree² Strongly disagree 45. Adult education should be a major part of the local school program. Agree Undecided 3 Strongly agree⁵ Disagree² Strongly disagree

A. Age In Years	B. Sex	C. Marital Status M S W D/S	D. Education Highest Grade Completed/ Still in School	E. Occupation	F. Earnings (Per year in dollars)
	1 2	1 2 3 4			
	1 2	123 4			
	1 2	123 4			
	1 2	123 4			
	1 2	123 4			
·	1 2	123 4			
	1 2	123 4			
	1 2	123 4			·
	1 2	123 4			

A. AGE (in years)	B. SEX	C. MARITAL STATUS	D. OCCUPATION E. EARNINGS (in dollars)	F. EDUCATION Highest Grade Completed/ Still in School	G. City & State where (Name) currently resides
	М F	MSW D/S	n. E.		(Use FIPS State and County Codes)
	1 2	123 4			
	1 2	123 4			
	1 2	123 4			
	1 2	123 4			
1	1 2	123 4			
	1 2	123 4			
	1 2	123 4			
	1 2	123 4			
	1 2	123 4			

I would like to ask some questions about the health of you and your family members.

48. In the past year, have you or any other members of your household been unable to get adequate medial and dental care when you needed it?

Yes_____ No problem____(If no problem, go to Q. 58).

	How serious was the problem? Minor 01 Moderate 02 Major 03	50 Did you/he/she try to get help for this problem? Yes 01 No 02 (If no, go to Q. 56)	51 What kind of help did you/he/she try to get?	52 From whom? Agency (public/county health department) 01 Private doctor 02 Local nurse 03 Friend or family 04 Faergency room (Mospital) . 05 Other	53 Did you/he/she receive some help? Yes 01 No 02 (If no, go to Q. 57)	34 What help did you/he/she received?
Read of Household						
Spouse						
Child/other relative (specify) (circle one)						
Child/other relative (specify) (circle one)						
Child/other relative (specify) (circle one)						
Child/other relative (specify) (circle one)	·					

SPCTION IV: HEALTH CONTINUED

SECTION IV: HEALTH CONTINUED						
	Were you he/she satisfied with the help received? Yes No No i Why no?i (If yes, to go Q. 58).	Why not? Here are reasons: Could handle problem without help. 01 Wo one to care for child(ren)/other family member temporarily 02 Transportation problem 03 Didn't know where to find help 05 Thought no help was available 06 Thought I was not eligible 07 Other 08 Don't know 09	Why not? Here are some reasons: Couldn't afford help	Do you or your spouse have any health related disabilities or impairments that keep you from working full-time? Head: Yes No Yes No If yes, explain If yes, exthe severity plain the severity		
Head of the Household						
Spouse						
Child/other re- lative (specify) (circle one)						
Child/other re- lative (specify) (circle one)						
Child/other re- lative (specify) (circle one)						
Child/other re- lative (specify) (circle one)						

SECTION V: COMMUNITY BASED ORGANIZATIONS

The questions I'm about to ask concern you and community based organizations.

59.	Do you think there is any chance you will move away from (TOWH OR PLACE) in the next year?
	definitely will move
	probably will move
	undecided
	probably will not move
	definitely will not move
60.	Have you usually felt pretty sure your life would work out the way you want it to, or have there been more times when you haven't been very sure about it?
	very sure
	sure
	undecided
	sometimes unsure
	always unsure
61.	Are you the kind of person that plans his (her) life ahead all the time, or do you live more from day to day?
	always plans ahead
	plans ahead
	unsure
	seldom plans ahead
	lives from day to day
62.	When you make plans ahead, do you usually get to carry out things the way you expect ed, or do things usually come up to make you change your plans?
	always carry out things as expected
	generally carry out things as expected
	undecided
	sometimes
	never
63.	Some people feel that other people push them around a good bit. Others feel that they run their lives pretty much the way they want to. How is it with you?
	always run my own life
	generally run my own life
	undecided
	sometimes get pushed around
	always get pushed around
64.	Would you say you nearly always finish things once you start them, or do you sometimes have to give up before they are finished?
	always finish things
	generally finish things
	undecided
	sometimes give up before finishing
	always give up before finishing

65. How here is a list of clubs and organizations that many people belong to. Please look at this list, and tell me which of these kinds of organizations (HEAD) is active in, if any. I mean any in which be/she is a member or goes to meetings sometimes here in this area. (CHECK IN COL. I, BELOW). Are there any others you're in that are not on this list?

I Husband Active	II Wife <u>Active</u>	
		Labor Union
		Church
		Church-CONNECTED Groups
-		Fraternal Organizations or Lodges
		Sorority Organizations or Lodges
		Veteran's Organizations
_		Business or Civic Groups, Service Clubs
		Parent-Teachers Association
		Youth Groups (Scout Leaders, 4-H Leaders)
	-	Neighborhood Clubs or Community Centers
		Sports Teams
		Country Clubs
. —	_	Work/Professional Groups
		Political Clubs or Organizations
		Neighborhood Improvement Associations
		Women's or Men's Social Clubs
 ,		Card Clubs
		Charitable and Welfare Organizations
		Extension Homemaker Club
		Farmers Co-op
	-	Other (SPECIFY)
MORE	MARKE	

NO
YES
Do you think you (RESPONDENT) would be more likely to find a job you would be interested in through a CBO agency or in some other way?
(IF OTHER WAY) In what way?
Which of the following have you heard of?
Urban League
OIC (Opportunities Industrialization Centers) Community Action Programs (E.O.C., O.E.G., E.D.C., G.A.A.)
Have you ever used the services of
Urban League
OIC (Opportunities Industrialization Centers) Community Action Programs (E.O.C., O.E.O., E.D.C., C.A.A.)
Have you used the service(s) within the past three years? (If yes, check appropriate space)
Urban League OIC (Opportunities Industrialization Centers) Community Action Programs (E.O.C., O.E.O., E.D.C., C.A.A.)
Are you presently using?
Urban League OIC (Opportunities Industrialization Centers) Community Action Programs (E.O.C., O.E.O., E.D.C., C.A.A.)
I have a check list of major services provided by Which of these services have you used? (READ LIST/CIRCLE RESPONSE)
Urban league
1.
2.
3.
4.
OIC (Opportunities Industrialization Centers)
1.
2.
3.
4.

74.	Community Action Programs (EOC, OEO, EDC, CAA)		
	1.		
	2.		
	3.		
	4.	•	
75.	Since you started getting help from (in your life situation?); has there been as	y chang
	YES (If YES, answer 76)		• .
	NO		V.4.,
76.	List some types.		8.50
	·		
			
77.	What situation or problem led you to get help	and services from	?
		en <u>e</u> n en	

COMMUNITY BASED ORGANIZATIONS (continued)

	78 Did you have any problem with waiting for filling out forms, getting help, etc.	70 Did you have any problem with locating the service/ agency?	BO Do/did you have problems with transportation to and from to receive the service of?	Fo/did you have problems with the personnel (staff members, drivers, Directors) at?	Are there any other comments you would like to make about the quality of the services you re- ceived? Explain
URBAN LEAGUE	No Problem 01 Somewhat of a Problem 02 Indecided 03 A Small Problem. 04 A Major Problem. 05	No Problem 01 Somewhat of a Problem 02 Undecided 03 A Small Problem . 04 A Major Problem . 05	No Problem	No Problem Cl Somewhat of a Problem C2 Undecided	
oic	Mo Problem 01 Somewhat of a Problem 02 'Indecided 03 A Small Problem . 04 A Major Problem 05	Mo Problem 01 Somewhat of a Problem 02 Vindecided 03 A Small Problem . 04 A Major Problem 05	No Problem	No Problem . 01 Somewhat of a Problem . 02 Indecided . 03 A Small Problem 04 A Major Problem 05	
COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAM	No Problem 01 Somewhat of a Problem 02 Undecided 03 A Small Pro- blem 04 A Major Pro- blem 05	No Problem 01 Somewhat of a Problem 02 Undecided 03 A Small Problem 04 A Major Problem 05	## Problem	No Problem . 01 Somewhat of a Problem . 02 'Indecided . 03 A Small Problem 04 A Major Problem 05	

	83	A4	85	96	67
	When you received the services, was there anything you especially liked? Explain	When you received services, did the staff members treat you politely and with respect?	Did you make an official complaint about something you did not like?	How often do/did you use the services of?	How far away isin miles?
Urban League		All of the time 01 Most of the time 02 Not sure 03 Some of the time 04 Never 05 If 03-05, ask 0. 85	Yes	Neily 01 Meekly 02 Monthly 03 Every 2 or 3 mo.04 Every 6 mo 05 Annually 06 N/A 07	Less than a mile01 1 - 3 miles02 4 - 6 miles03 7 - 10 milesC4 11 - 15 miles05 16 - 20 miles05 More than 20 miles07 H/A08
oic		All of the time 01 Most of the time 02 Not sure 03 Some of the time 04 Hever 05 If 03-05, ask 0. 95	Yes	Neily 01 Weekly 07 Monthly 03 Every ? or 3 mo.04 Every % mo 05 Anrually	Less then a mile
Community Action Programs		All of the time 01 Most of the time 02 Not sure 03 Some of the time 04 Never 05 If 03-05, ask 0. \$5	Yes	Deily 01 Weekly 92 Monthly 03 Every 2 or 3 mm 04 Fvery 6 mm 05 Annually 06 N/A 07	Less them a mile91 1 - 3 miles02 4 - 6 miles03 7 - 10 miles04 11 - 11 miles05 16 - 27 miles05 More that. 20 miles07 N/A08

	88 How do/did you get to the	89 How much do/did you pay for trans- portation for each trip to?	90 Since receiving services of, what is your main occupation now?	91 Would you or your spouse be interested in training for a new or better job?	92 What kind of jobs would you like to be trained for with
URBAN LEAGUE	Own car/truck 01 Friend/relative. 02 Carpool 03 Agency Trans 04 Other SS Agency Trans 05 Public 06 No adequate trans 07 Other 08	No set price donated . 01 < than \$1	Employed full-time 01 Employed part-time 02 Attending school/ training program 03 Unemployed 04 Unable to work 05 Retired 06 Volunteer work 07 Other (specify)	a. Head Yes	b. Spouse
oic	Own car/truck 01 Friend/relative .02 Carpool	No set price donated . 01 < than \$1	Employed full-time	a. Head Yes	b. Spouse
COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAMS	Own car/truck 01 Priend/relative. 02 Carpool 03 Agency Trans 04 Other SS Agency Trans 05 Public 06 No adequate trans Other	No set price donated . 01 < than \$1	Employed full-time	a. Head Yes	a. Head b. Spouse

	Would you be willing to take special courses or training in computer operating, key punching, word-processing to prepare for the new/better jobs through?	If employment for which you qualify is not available in your immediate area, how far would you be willing to travel daily one way from home to the job of	95 If you have children living in your house-hold, how would they be cared for if you are employed through	When you compare your life situation now to what it was before the services you received from, bow would you say it is now?
URBAN LEAGUE	T N M M/S DK a. if charged a small fee:	Head <10 miles01 <10 miles01 10-14 mi02 10-14 mi02 15-19 mi03 15-19 mi03 20-24 mi04 20-24 mi04 25-29 mi05 25-29 mi05 30-39 mi06 30-39 mi06 40-49 mi07 40-49 mi07 50 mi. or > .08 50 mi. or > .08 Don't know .09 Don't know .09	Leave with: grandparents 01 other relatives. 02 day-care center . 03 neighbors 04 babysitter 05 spouse 06 other 07 K/A 08	much better 01 somewhat better 02 about the same 03 somewhat worse 04 much worse 05
oic	a. if charged a small fee: Head	Head Spouse 10 miles01 10 14 mi02 10-14 mi02 10-14 mi02 15-19 mi03 15-19 mi03 20-24 mi04 20-24 mi04 25-29 mi05 25-29 mi05 30-39 mi06 30-39 mi06 40-49 mi07 40-49 mi07 50 mi. or > .08 50 mi. or > .98 Don't know .09 Don't know .09	Leave with: grandparents 01 other relatives 02 day-care center 03 neighbors 04 babysitter 05 spouse 06 other 07 N/A 08	much better 01 somewhat better 02 about the same 03 somewhat worse 04 much worse 05
COMMUNITY ACTIONS PROGRAMS	### A Spouse: How much? 123 4 5 ### A Spouse 123 4 5 ### A Spouse 123 4 5 ### A Spouse 123 4 5 ### C. If paid to take training: ### B B Spouse: How much? 123 4 5 ### Spouse: How much? 123 4 5 ### A Spouse: How much? 12	Head Spouse <10 miles01	Leave with: grandparents 01 other relatives 02 day-care center 03 neighbors 04 babysitter 05 spouse 06 other 07 N/A 08	much better 01 somewhat better 02 about the same 03 somewhat worse 04 much worse 05

CO	UNT	v			
u	URI	1.	 		

AREA	
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SERVICES RECEIVED (CAP)

SERVICES RECEIVED (CAP)			
GITHIN THE PAST	WITHIN THE PAST 12 MOS./NOW	APPLIED FOR BUT DID NOT RECEIVE	REASON WHY SERVICE(S) WERE NOT RECEIVED
Reighborhood Services YES	Neighborhood Services YES	Reighborhood Services YES	
. Crisis Relief	Crisis Relief	Crisis Relief YES	
Energy Crisis	Energy Crisis YES	Energy Crisis YES	
community food a nutrition FES	Community food & nutrition YES	Community food & nutrition YES	
Head Start	Head Start YES	Head Start YES	
CETA Work Experience YES UO	CETA Work Experience YES NO	CETA Work Experience YES 30	
Transportation Health, DETA YES	Transportation: Health, CETA YES	Transportation: Health, CETA YES	
. Weatherization YES NO	Weatherization	Weatherization	
. Summer Program YES	Summer Program YES	Summer Program YES NO	
Senior Citizen	Senior Citizen	Senior Citizen	
. Graduate Eq. Ciploma (GED) YES NO	Graduate Eq. Diploma (GED) YES NO	Graduate Eq. Diploma (GED) YES	

APPENDIX B

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Interview Format TIME ESTIMATE: ONE HOUR

DIRECTIONS: The following questions are representative of the content of the taped interview we anticipate having with you. Probing questions may evolve as the session continues.

- Your name
- 2. Agency name
- 3. Job title
- 4. We have provided you with a list of services generally offered by the (agency name). Has your agency offered each of these services within the past three years? If, "yes," is it currently offering them? If, "no," what reason(s) for the service(s) being deleted? If, "no", have they been assigned to another agency or completely deleted? Did you and your board of directors and/or staff have any input into the decision to delete this service? Explain. Have services been deleted which your reporting system indicates that they are needed? If "yes," please explain.
- 5. Would you rank the four services offered by your agency that are most used by your clients.
- 6. Of the services least used by your clients, tell us some of the reasons which, in your opinion, account for such underutilization.
- 7. Of the services offered by your agency, do you consider that some are in greater need of additional funding than others? If "yes," please discuss.
- 8. How do the facilities at your agency compare with the facilities in other counties in the state? Please indicate assets and limitations of your site.
- 9. Is transportation provided for your clients? If "yes," for what services? Please discuss your assessment of the quality of transportation in terms of (a) machinery and upkeep, (b) drivers, (c) routing to meet the needs of the clients. If "no," please inform us if there is such a need and justify your opinion.

In regard to transportation, are your clients and employees adequately insured while engaged in on the job activities? Kindly discuss the rationale for your response.

10. Previous research done by us on a regional level indicates that many persons who need services are unaware of the availability of the same. What means of circulating information about your services are used and do you consider

- such to be desirable ways to contact your prospective clients (persons who need the services your agency offers)? Do you have any ideas about more effective advertising? Please share them with us if you do.
- 11. Previous research done by us on a regional level indicates that there is a wide disparity in the racial composition in the clientele of agencies such as yours. Some indicate that certain agencies are perceived by the community as being "where black folk go" and there are other agencies which receive some non-state/federal funding that attract white clients with needs identical with most of your clients. Do you find this to be true? Would you discuss the issue with us, please?
- 12. What is the approximate racial composition of the staff in this office and any satellite offices within your domain? If there is a racial imbalance, is it because persons of one race are more likely to apply for the jobs than another? Is it because they pay scale for employees are not attractive? Is it because the job opportunities, in general, in this community are limited for persons of minority groups? Please elaborate.
- 13. We realize that the types of delivery services offered by an agency are mandated by law. Are there services that you think your agency should offer but does not? If "yes," what can you do or have you done to alleviate the problem?
- 14. Evaluation is important to assessing (a) the effectiveness of operation and (b) the needs of any agency. Would you explain evaluation procedures in your agency? Would you identify both the strengths and weaknesses of the procedures?
- 15. Although we provide anonymity in our individual survey instrument, sometime people are afraid that some service maybe cut off or someone will lose a job if negative criticisms are made. Do the clients have the opportunity to evaluate your agency? If "yes," have they offered constructive criticisms that have enabled you to effectuate positive change? Will you discuss in detail, please?

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URBAN LEAGUE

- 1. On-the-Job-Training and Direct Placement
- 2. Project CUE (Caring, Understanding and Encouragement)
- 3. Secretarial Skill Building
- 4. Adult Day Care
- 5. Iuvenile Diversion
- 6. Educational Talent Search
- 7. School-to-Work Employment (SWEP)
- 8. Project ELECT (Early Leadership Conference Training)
- 9. Housing Counseling Project
- 10. Legal Services
- 11. Early Childhood Development

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COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAMS (CAP)

- 1. Neighborhood Services
- 2. Crisis Relief: Operation Warmth, Operation Shoehorn
- 3. Energy Crisis Assistance Program
- 4. Community Food and Nutrition
- 5. Head Start
- 6. JTPA Work Experience
- 7. Transportation: Health, JTPA
- 8. Weatherization
- 9. Summer Programs: Summer Food, Recreation, Y-Camp JTPA Summer Youth Work Experience
- 10. Senior Citizens
- 11. Graduate Equivalency Diploma (GED)

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OPPORTUNITY INDUSTRIALIZATION CENTERS (OIC)

- 1. Job Training/Skill Improvement (Youth)
 - a. Clerical
 - b. Managerial
 - c. Marketing
 - d. Graduate Equivalency Diploma (GED)
- 2. Job Training Program (Adult)
 - a. Clerical
 - b. Managerial
 - c. Marketing
 - d. GED
 - e. Food Services
- 3. Job Placement and Counseling