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ABSTRACT

To determine the decisionmaking and communication patterns of disadvantaged farm families (DFF) and the linkage between interpersonal sources of information used by them and research-based information sources, a pilot study was conducted with the following focus questions: (1) Who are North Carolina's DFF and what are their characteristics? (2) What kinds of farm and home decisions are DFF making and how rational are the processes utilized by them in making these decisions? (3) What communication media are available to DFF, the major sources utilized by them in making farm and home decisions, and what credibility they assign to these sources? (4) What is the degree of linkage between interpersonal information sources used by DFF in making farm and home decisions and research-based information sources? and (5) What is the relationship between selected sociopsychological variables and the degree of rationality in decisionmaking; the availability, usage, and credibility of media (i.e., interpersonal, mass, publications); and the degree of linkage between interpersonal information sources used and research-based information sources. The population was drawn from DFF residing in three northeastern North Carolina counties and was screened to obtain a sample that met the criteria for income, size of farm, and family. A research instrument was constructed, and data gathered by interview teams were analyzed through the use of several statistical procedures. The report includes (1) summary, implications, and recommendations; (2) technical report (background, methodology, and results); (3) list of references and glossary; and (4) appendixes, which contain research questionnaires, categories and definitions of DFF decisions, and additional data. (WL)

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DECISION-MAKING AND COMMUNICATION PATTERNS OF DISADVANTAGED FARM FAMILIES IN THE NORTH CAROLINA COASTAL PLAINS AREA

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PREFACE

In the spring of 1971, the Agricultural Experiment Station at North Carolina State University, Raleigh, approved a research proposal entitled "Decision-Making and Communication Patterns of Disadvantaged Farm Families in the North Carolina Coastal Plains Area." The research is a cooperative arrangement between the North Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station, the North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service, and the Department of Adult and Community College Education. To date, four doctoral dissertations have been completed focusing on various aspects of the larger research project. The major purpose of this technical bulletin is to bring together in one publication the major findings and implications of the total research project (No. 13325) and make recommendations for further research.

This study is a pilot effort as no other study to our knowledge has previously been conducted to determine the decision-making and communication patterns of disadvantaged farm families (DFF) and the linkage between interpersonal sources of information used by them and research-based information sources. The present document describes such a study and interprets its findings.

The major focus of this research was to determine: (1) who are North Carolina's DFF and what are their characteristics; (2) what kinds of farm and home decisions are DFF making and how rational are the processes utilized by them in making these decisions; (3) what communication media are available to DFF, the major sources utilized by them in making farm and home decisions, and what credibility they assign to these sources; (4) what is the degree of linkage between interpersonal information sources used by DFF in making farm and home decisions and research-based information sources; and (5) what is the relationship between selected sociopsychological variables and the (a) degree of rationality in decision-making, (b) availability, usage, and credibility of media (i.e., interpersonal, mass, publications), and (c) degree of linkage between interpersonal information sources used and research-based information sources. Involving 130 DFF (130 farm operators and 130 homemakers) in three northeastern North Carolina counties (Bertie, Halifax, and Northampton), this report documents DFF's degree of rationality in decision-making, communication patterns and degree of linkage between sources of information used and research-based information sources.

The report consists of three parts. PART I presents a *Summary, Implications, and Recommendations*. The general purpose of this section is to summarize succinctly for the reader the major findings of the study. It focuses on: (1) the purposes of the research, (2) an interpretive summary and discussion of results, (3) conclusions and implications, and (4) recommendations for further research.

PART II, *Technical Report*, presents a detailed description of the study's design and a presentation and interpretation of study findings.

PART III, *List of References and Glossary*, includes: (1) the major references employed in designing, implementing, and evaluating the research study and (2) definitions of important terminology employed throughout the report for use by analytical readers. The terms defined are arranged alphabetically to facilitate easy reference by the reader.

The researchers trust that the findings of this study prove to be helpful to

educational organizations and agencies nationwide in planning, implementing, and evaluating future programs that focus on the disadvantaged farm family.

NCSU
Raleigh
May 1976

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Project Leader

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The Department of Adult and Community College Education and the authors gratefully acknowledge the financial support and cooperation provided for the conduct of this research by the North Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station and the North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service. The continued interest and support exhibited by these two organizations in rural development research made this technical bulletin possible.

Many people at the state, district, and county levels were involved over an extended period of time in conducting this study. It is impossible to identify all those who contributed toward the realization of the final research report. However, special thanks are extended to the North Carolina Agricultural Stabilization and Conservation Service and the North Carolina Department of Social Services for their assistance in selecting the population for this research.

Appreciation is also expressed to the research assistants, John Solomon Huddleston, Warren Gwynn Mitchell, and Benjamin Harrison Weddle, Jr., who contributed many hours of their time in the early stages of the research project and for their contribution to the interviewing and data collection stages.

A special word of gratitude is extended to Rex Clay, post-doctoral student in the Department of Adult and Community College Education, for his assistance in the preparation of this report. His contributions to the final version were of infinite value.

Special appreciation is also expressed to Robert J. Monroe for his efforts in assisting with the processing and analysis of the data. For his time, patience, and able guidance devoted to establishing statistical treatments relevant to this research and his review of the final draft of this report, the researchers are most appreciative.

A special word of thanks is extended to all state Extension personnel, i.e., assistant directors, state agents, district personnel, subject matter specialists, county Extension agents, and professors in the Department of Adult and Community College Education, who participated in collecting the data for this study. In addition, appreciation is expressed to the 130 farm operators and 130 homemakers in Bertie, Halifax, and Northampton counties who freely gave of their time in responding to questions and talking with the interviewer teams. The authors trust that the findings are accurately reflected and that they will prove to be helpful to educational organizations and agencies in achieving the basic purposes undergirding this research.

To the Halifax County Technical Institute, Weldon, North Carolina, and its President, Phillip W. Taylor, special appreciation is expressed for providing space, equipment, and facilities for training the interviewers and serving as headquarters for them during the data collection phase.

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Finally, acknowledgement must also be made to a great number of people unknown to the directors of this research, as many people contributed in some way to the development and completion of the research study. To all these the researchers extend appreciations.

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PART I. SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS[1]

A. PURPOSE AND PERSPECTIVE

The purpose of the study was to obtain information that would help North Carolina educational organizations and agencies (EOA) acquire added insights about disadvantaged farm families (DFF), and hence improve their effectiveness in designing educational programs for those families. Information considered essential in serving the educational needs of DFF was identified and couched in the context of six research questions that became the focus of the study:

1. Who are North Carolina's DFF and what are their characteristics?
2. What kinds of major farm and home decisions are DFF making?
3. How rational are the decision-making processes utilized by DFF in making these decisions?
4. What communication media are available to DFF? What are the major sources of information utilized by DFF in making farm and home decisions? What credibility do DFF assign to their information sources?
5. What is the degree of linkage between interpersonal information sources used by DFF in making farm and home decisions and research-based information sources?
6. What is the relationship between selected sociopsychological variables and the: (a) degree of rationality in decision-making; (b) availability, usage, and credibility of media (i.e., interpersonal, mass, publications) and the information sources within those media; and (c) degree of linkage between interpersonal information sources used by DFF and research-based information sources?

A systematic, scientific selection method was used to identify the target population for this research. That population consisted of DFF residing in three northeastern North Carolina counties (Bertie, Halifax, and Northampton). A research instrument was constructed specifically for this study, and a sample of the population was drawn. The population was screened to obtain a sample that met the criteria for income, size of farm, and family (man and wife domiciled together). Data gathered by interview teams were analyzed through the use of several statistical procedures.

B. INTERPRETIVE SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

1. Characteristics of Disadvantaged Farm Families

Data collected regarding characteristics of DFF yielded information on both the individual farm operator and the corresponding homemaker, and on family units. In some instances data were obtained through questions that required a simple "yes" or "no" answer from the respondent. In other instances scales

[1] See page 12, Part II, Technical Report, for a detailed discussion of supporting data for "Summary, Implications, and Recommendations."

were constructed to measure variables. Due to the homogeneity of the population, the frequency distribution and scores (where scales were employed) showed little variation. The screening procedure yielded a population that was uniform in terms of size of farming operation and income. The findings indicated that the population was strikingly uniform in social, psychological, and political characteristics as well.

Seemingly, those findings indicated that the poor (as argued in the conceptual framework) share common characteristics that set them apart, i.e., a culture of poverty.

The characteristics of the individual farm operators and homemakers in this study were subsumed under three categories: social, psychological, and political. The data revealed that the study's population was: (1) an older population with low levels of formal educational attainment, (2) either working full time on the farm or keeping house full time, (3) characterized as nonparticipants in organizations, (4) highly immobile, (5) moderately to highly anomic, and (6) politically naive (although they did vote). Contrary to the theoretical literature, the disadvantaged individuals in this study could not be characterized as either present or future value-oriented. The findings indicate no clear-cut tendency toward either a present or a future value orientation.

Data regarding family units were collapsed into a single category labeled "socioeconomic." Using the data in that category, the DFF unit was characterized as black, with a total annual income of less than $6000, in poor health and receiving poor health care. The family was of the nuclear type averaging 5.2 members, and had various types of tenure arrangements that were consummated at least 10 or more years previous to the time of this study.

A final socioeconomic measurement used to characterize the DFF was a family living (or level-of-living) index. Scores on the index indicated the extent to which DFF had acquired such basic amenities of life as automobiles, washing machines, TV's, and air conditioners. Scores on the index were surprisingly higher than those anticipated. However, it was only when the scores of the disadvantaged were considered in isolation that they appeared high. This study speculated that if the scores of DFF were compared to norms of the general population, they probably would be relatively low. Still, the family living index indicated that DFF in this study maintained an endurable level of living. A possible contributor to that level of living was the provision of food stamps and other social service benefits that supplemented the DFF's resources.

2. Kinds of Decisions Made by Disadvantaged Farm Families

This study sought to identify the kinds of decisions typically made by DFF, to group those decisions into distinct categories, and to define those categories. The DFF respondents engaged in a broad range of farm and home decisions. The study assumed that the breadth of decisions confronting the DFF was greater than commonly believed and, indeed, may be possibly comparable to the range of decisions confronting middle-class farm families. Two categories were employed to classify decisions: farm—capital investment, farm management, financial, leasing arrangements, production and marketing, and "other" or miscellaneous; and home—clothing, health, home furnishings, home management, housing, nutrition, and "other" or miscellaneous.

The largest number of farm decisions were grouped into the production and marketing (33 percent) and farm management (32 percent) categories. In addition, the respondents were involved in many other financial, leasing, and capital investment decisions. In general, the nature of the decisions in all farm decision categories required considerable technical knowledge and the ability to think logically.

As for home decisions, 85 percent of the major decisions homemakers reported having made were related to home furnishings, home management, and housing. Few major decisions of the homemakers related to clothing, family health, and nutrition. As with farm decisions, home decisions in general demanded that homemakers have specialized technical knowledge and skills in various areas.

3. Rationality of Decision-Making

This study was designed to determine if DFF engaged in a rational decision-making process. Such a determination would dictate the nature of educational organizations and agencies' (EOA) intervention in the lives of DFF. If the disadvantaged population of this study were not rational in their decision-making process, it would be inadvisable for EOA to conduct education programs for such DFF and to disseminate information and advice to them. Rather, more direct forms of assistance, such as welfare benefits, would be indicated. If, however, it was found that DFF were rational in their decision-making, the reverse would apply.

Rationality of decision-making (RDM) was defined in this study as conformity to an ideal process consisting of five subprocesses. When RDM scores were calculated, farm operators and homemakers scored quite high, indicating that the decision-making process in which they were engaged was extremely rational. A question arises, however, as to whether those high scores resulted from the research instrument used to collect the data. At first glance one would assume that the instrument was not sufficiently sensitive to distinguish variations among the population. However, this study contends that the instrument validly reflected the RDM of the respondents. Due to the screening process used, the population studied was homogenous. That homogeneity was reflected not only in the lack of variation in the RDM scale, but in all of the other scales as well.

4. Availability, Usage, and Credibility of Media and the Information Sources in Those Media

For EOA to intervene in the lives of DFF through information dissemination and educational programs, effective communication is vital. This study contended that determinants of an effective communication channel are its availability, the extent to which it is used, and its credibility as perceived by the users. To investigate the availability, usage, and credibility of communication channels, three media categories were identified—interpersonal, mass, and publications. The information sources in those media were labeled as: interpersonal—agents, church, dealers, and family-friends-neighbors; mass—newspapers, radio, and TV; publications—bulletins-pamphlets, the *Farmer's Almanac*, and magazines.

This study found that interpersonal media was used extensively and was perceived by respondents as highly credible (there were no availability

measurements for the interpersonal media or the information sources in it). With regard to information sources in the interpersonal media, agents[2] and family-friends-neighbors (in relation to other information sources in the interpersonal media) ranked high in usage and credibility, whereas the church ranked low in usage and credibility. Dealers ranked in the medium-low range in usage and low in credibility.[3]

The publications media ranked low in availability, usage, and credibility. In relation to other information sources in the publications media, bulletins-pamphlets ranked high in availability, fairly high in usage, and low in credibility. The *Farmer's Almanac* ranked high in availability and usage among both farm operators and homemakers. Farm operators perceived the *Almanac* as highly credible, but homemakers ranked it in the middle credibility range. Magazines ranked in a middle range in availability and high in usage. Farm operators ranked magazines in the medium credibility category; homemakers ranked them high in credibility.

5. Linkage Between Interpersonal Information Sources Used by Disadvantaged Farm Families in Making Decisions and Research-Based Information Sources

This study had three specific concerns regarding linkage between interpersonal and research-based information sources. It determined: (1) the extent to which DFF were removed from research-based sources of information, (2) the trend toward heterophily in comparing DFF with their direct interpersonal sources of information, and (3) the characteristics of persons who channeled information to DFF.

The extent to which DFF were removed from research-based sources of information was established in one of three categories, i.e., "closely linked," "distantly linked," and "not linked." Thirty-eight percent of the farm decisions traced were closely linked to a research-based information source, 34.5 percent were distantly linked, and 27.5 percent were not linked. Likewise, 39 percent of the home decisions were closely linked, 17 percent were distantly linked, and 44 percent were not linked. Thus, about two-thirds of both farm and home decisions were either distantly linked or not linked to a research-based information source.

The second specific concern of the research on linkage between information sources was the determination of whether DFF were heterophilic to their information sources. It was found that a heterophilic relationship existed; i.e., DFF were significantly different from their information source A relative to age, education, ethnic background, income, present/future value orientation, and social participation. However, information sources A, B, and C were homophilic to each other and were considered to be opinion leaders.[4]

The final concern of the research on linkage was to determine the charac-

[2] See page 102 for definition of "agents."

[3] It should be kept in mind that the credibility ranking was relative; i.e., respondents were presented with several media/information sources and asked to select the one they believed to be the most credible. Most of the respondents perceived either agents or family-friends-neighbors as the single most credible information source. Thus, the results indicate that the church lacked credibility with DFF only in relation to agents and family-friends-neighbors. The results do not mean that the church was not believed.

[4] See Glossary, page 104, for definition of sources A, B, and C and page 80 for an illustration of their usage in this study.

teristics of those persons who channeled information to DFF. The interpersonal sources involved in the flow of information to farm operators in this study most often were white farm operators or private dealers, less than 50 years of age, having 8 or more years of education and a farm background, working full time off the farm for an annual income of $10,000 or more, and having resided in the county for 20 years or more. The interpersonal sources involved in the flow of information to homemakers were most often less than 50 years of age, having 8 or more years of education and a farm background, residing in the county for 20 years or more, employed full time, and about equally likely to be black as white. The interpersonal sources of information for homemakers could not be characterized by either income or occupation.

6. Relationships of Selected Sociopsychological Variables to Degree of Rationality in Decision-Making; Availability, Usage, and Credibility of Media (i.e., Interpersonal, Mass, and Publications); and Degree of Linkage Between Interpersonal Information Sources Used and Research-Based Information Sources

The researchers suspected that certain sociopsychological variables might be related to RDM; to availability, usage, and credibility of media; and to degree of linkage between information sources. Those variables were age, education, present/future value orientation, and social participation. Although the study population was quite homogeneous, there were sufficient variations within the variables to test for relationships.

Relationships of Selected Sociopsychological Variables to Rationality of Decision-Making

Multiple regression equations revealed that the four variables combined—age, level of education, present/future value orientation, and social participation—were significantly related to RDM. However, the amount of variability accounted for was low (6 percent for farm operators and 10 percent for homemakers).

When the relationship of each individual variable to RDM was examined, the following results were obtained: (1) age was not significantly related in the case of either farm operators or homemakers; i.e., age accounted for little variation in the RDM scores for either the farm operator or homemaker; (2) level of education was significantly related only among homemakers; i.e., the higher the education level of the homemaker the higher the RDM score; (3) present/future value orientation was significantly related to RDM only among homemakers; i.e., the higher the present/future value orientation score the higher the RDM score, or the more future oriented the homemaker the higher the RDM score; and (4) social participation was significantly related to RDM among farm operators; i.e., the lower the social participation score the lower the RDM score.

Relationships of Selected Sociopsychological Variables to Availability, Usage, and Credibility of Media

Chi-square tests of significance were computed to test the relationships of age, education, present/future value orientation, and social participation

to availability, usage and credibility of media. The relationships of the foregoing variables to the availability and usage of media were not significant for either farm operators or homemakers. However, age was significantly related to homemakers' perception of media credibility; i.e., the younger the homemakers, the greater they perceived media credibility in decision-making.

Relationships Between Selected Sociopsychological Variables and Degree of Linkage

Analysis of variance was used to test for the relationships of the selected sociopsychological variables to degree of linkage between information sources. No significant relationships were found.

C. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The conclusions and implications for this study stemmed from specific research questions and are presented in relation to those questions.

1. Characteristics of North Carolina Disadvantaged Farm Families

a. The disadvantaged population in this study exhibited great similarity in their social, psychological, political and economic characteristics. The implication is that DFF constitute a subculture of poverty. Because DFF share the same culture, they will probably tend to have similar interests and needs. Thus, a set of uniform strategies might be tailored that especially appeals to the interests and needs of DFF.

b. The disadvantaged population was overwhelmingly black. Thus, approaches used by EOA should speak to the special educational needs and interests of that ethnic group.

c. Members of DFF were in poor health and received poor health care. Thus, EOA should address the health educational needs of DFF.

d. DFF were characterized by various types of tenure arrangements, many of which were of the tenant type. In that regard, it should be noted that EOA's efforts with an audience of tenant farmers would be influenced heavily by what the landowner allows his tenant to do. It is not in the purview of this study to advocate a land reform program. But it would be well to point out that, under the existing social structure, EOA probably could accomplish more with the small landowner himself. This is not to say that EOA should not work with tenants—there are many needs here. Rather, it is merely to point out the difficulty of changing the status quo that has existed for many years in the southern states.

e. The farm operators and homemakers constituted an older population. Thus, EOA should think in terms of providing for needs characteristic of an older population. The developmental tasks identified by Havighurst (1952) would be a good starting point. Because the population was older, a conservative, mature delivery approach is recommended.

f. The disadvantaged farm operator and homemaker respondents had low levels of educational attainment. Thus, not only are they likely to be uninformed regarding many problems that greatly affect their welfare; they also are less likely to have the ability to be self-learners. Hence, it is recommended that EOA continue to give DFF individualized help (one-on-one basis) and that this approach to them must be simple and direct.

g. The focal point of the lives of the DFF respondents was their farms. Farm operators worked on their farms full time and homemakers kept house full time. They were highly immobile, had low rates of social participation, tended toward anomie, and had little political awareness. It is recommended that EOA make a conscious decision to either broaden the cultural interests of DFF or accept their present felt needs and concentrate on meeting those needs.

h. About one-third of the DFF in this study were characterized as future value-oriented. Thus, one out of three families are capable of deferring immediate gratification so as to work for a future goal. Programs directed toward the remaining two-thirds should seek to provide immediate gratification, while at the same time helping DFF to recognize and focus on future goals.

2. Kinds of Decisions Made by Disadvantaged Farm Families.

The findings of this study appear to refute much of the conventional wisdom regarding DFF by indicating that they do engage in a broad range of both farm and home decisions that require knowledge and expertise in several different areas. The scope and difficulty of those decisions make it imperative that EOA deliver to this clientele both educational programs and information.

The respondents were involved in more farm management decisions than this study had assumed. Thus, research-based information sources should not only continue to provide factual and technical information on production and marketing, but also place more emphasis on programs dealing with farm management.

Homemakers appeared to exhibit high standards of care and a sense of pride in their homes. Therefore, it appears that educational programs designed to assist homemakers with housing improvements would be accepted by DFF. Basic programs concerned with water and sewage systems, heating systems, remodeling, and money management also are needed, along with programs to enrich the lives of these families with color schemes, draperies, slip covers, and other "luxuries" often taken for granted by the middle-class population.

Only 2 percent of the homemakers reported major decisions relating to clothing, 6 percent to mental or physical health, and 5 percent to nutritional decisions. Such information implies an urgent need for programs designed to increase homemakers' awareness of the need to become more concerned with their families' basic requirements in the areas of clothing, health, and nutrition.

3. Rationality of Decision-Making

The DFF respondents exhibited rationality in decision-making, which implies that problems addressed to DFF could take the form of effective information dissemination and educational programs. The necessity for direct assistance (welfare) was not indicated.

4. Availability, Usage, and Credibility of Communication Media and Information Sources in Those Media

Of the three communication media studied (interpersonal, mass, and publications), the interpersonal was the most frequently used and perceived as most credible to the DFF. The findings of this study indicate that the inter-

personal source of information is an excellent communication channel for influencing DFF. Especially important interpersonal information sources were agents and family-friends-neighbors. Contrary to the researchers' anticipations, homemakers and farm operators rated the minister low in both credibility and usage as an information source.

As primary sources consulted by DFF, farm and home dealers ranked low in usage and credibility. However, as discussed later in this section, dealers were prominent in channeling information to DFF. They performed the role of opinion leader and influenced interpersonal sources that DFF consulted.

The mass media gave evidence of being a highly effective communication channel in influencing DFF, who ranked it high in availability and in usage. The mass media did not rank high in credibility, but, as stated earlier, this does not mean that it is not believed. It ranked low in credibility because the interpersonal and publications media were perceived as more credible.

Television appears to be the most appropriate mass media source for programming aimed at DFF, and radio the second best. The usefulness of newspapers is questionable. There is little likelihood that mass media programming aimed at DFF audiences will be offered by commercial TV or radio stations. Educational TV is the most probable source of such programming, and efforts in that direction should be supported. However, radio programming on a local basis would seem a much more likely possibility.

The publications media was ranked low in availability, usage, and credibility and appeared to be an unimportant channel for communicating with DFF. However, it is possible that printed material especially designed for DFF might be useful. The researchers believe that material written with special attention given to DFF's readability level on a wide variety of subject matter would be of interest to this clientele. In those families whose adults have a limited education and find it difficult to read and comprehend such material, school age youngsters often are available to help their parents.

Of the sources in the publications media, the *Farmer's Almanac* ranked high in availability, credibility, and usage. Thus, it seems probable that briefly stated, concise, research-based material displayed in a format similar to that of the *Farmer's Almanac* might be well received and used by the DFF. Subject matter other than management, such as gardening, nutrition, and animal science, among others, could be offered in such publications.

The investigators recommend that EOA undertake to put together a *Farmer's Almanac* type of publication that replaces the typical content with research-based information on a wide variety of subject-matter areas. The weather information and signs information should be left intact.

It appears that bulletins are especially in need of redesigning inasmuch as DFF ranked them very low in usage and credibility. Level of readability should be given special attention.

5. Linkage Between Interpersonal Information Sources Used by Disadvantaged Farm Families in Making Decisions and Research-Based Information Sources

The interpersonal information sources used by a majority of the disadvantaged farm operators and homemakers was not closely linked to a research-based source, which indicates inadequate communication between change agents and DFF. The major reason for those communication barriers may be

the existence of a heterophilic relationship between change agents and DFF. The difference between the change agent and DFF in personal and social characteristics may direct the disadvantaged to seek information from individuals with whom they have more in common than change agents.

Unfortunately, such homophilic interpersonal relationships seldom bring about an exchange of scientifically based information. Thus, there is implied a need for more training of individuals from the disadvantaged population to serve as intermediate sources in transferring to DFF pertinent information from research-based sources. Such a course of action would correspond to utilizing the interpersonal communications media that appeared to be so important to DFF.

Another implication stemmed from the description of the occupation of typical stage A, B, and C information sources. Such descriptive information revealed that even when individuals did not turn to research-based sources for information, there often were typical sources from whom they sought advice. For example, farm operators often consulted feed, seed, and fertilizer salesmen or dealers before making a purchase or a farm production decision. Similarly, social service workers were one of the nonresearch-based information sources often cited by homemakers.

Many of the foregoing communication sources appeared to fill the role of opinion leader. Contrary to the view widely held by a number of authors, these opinion leaders were of a higher social status than those they influenced. These opinion leaders should be identified, made more aware of research-based information, and urged to work toward its application.

The finding that the County Agricultural Extension Agent was the source most often cited in stages B and C of the communication chain implied that, while the agent may not have communicated personally with the disadvantaged farm operators, he was a key factor in getting information to them. The same appeared to be true for Home Economics Extension Agents, who also were the most typical stage B source of information with regard to the home portion of the study.[5]

6. Relationships of Selected Variables to Rationality of Decision-Making; to the Availability, Usage, and Credibility of Media; and to Degree of Linkage

Although a few of the relationships between the selected variables and RDM were significant, they were quite weak. Among all the other relationships studied, the only significant one was a positive one between age of homemaker and perceived media credibility. Two implications emerged from these findings. First, the absence/weakness of relationships indicates that RDM; the availability, usage, and credibility of media; and the degree of linkage were all more closely related to general cultural forces (i.e., a disadvantaged subculture) than to individual variables. Second, because of the absence of significant relationships between the selected variables and the availability,

[5] This conclusion is supported by findings in a Missouri study which show that farmers who do not receive information from agricultural agencies tend to seek information from farmers having contact with the county agent. Herbert F. Lionberger, *Information Seeking Habits and Characteristics of Farm Operators*. Columbia: Missouri Agricultural Experiment Station, Res. Bul. 581, April, 1955. Similar findings were also reported by C. Milton Caughenour, *Agricultural Agencies as Information Sources for Farmers in a Kentucky County, 1950-1955*. Lexington: Kentucky Agricultural Experiment Station, Progress Report 82, November 1959.

usage, and credibility of media, EOA might select appropriate media without having to contend with the confounding influence of sociopsychological variables.

7. General Observations

There is reason to speculate that homemakers may be the most appropriate target for educational programs aimed at improving the quality of living of DFF. Based on their experience in the field while gathering data for this study, the researchers formed the impression that DFF are strongly matriarchical and that homemakers understand better than farm operators the current social situation and how to grapple with it. In addition, homemaker respondents were younger than the farm operators, better educated, and more rational in their decision-making.

The DFF had problems in many areas, some of which are beyond the realm of any one agency. A great need is a central coordinating agency to direct DFF to an unbiased source of information for use in decision-making. A cooperative, properly conceived and staffed interagency effort to provide such a clearinghouse for information would greatly assist the DFF.

As pointed out in the conceptual framework, the problems of the DFF involve both personal and structural dimensions. The low level of education, along with other personal characteristics found among this population, illustrate the personal aspects of the problem. Equally important are the structural problems indigenous to the DFF. This population constitutes a portion of the lower-lower strata in American society. From the researchers' vantage point, the lower-lower strata in the U.S. is an inevitable phenomenon. Hence, EOA engaged in programming for DFF should face up to both the personal and structural facets of the problem and seek alternatives that will culminate in a higher standard of living for this clientele.

D. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Exploratory studies tend to generate new avenues for research, because they reveal needs, procedures, and insights not previously noted. Such was the case with this study. Thus, certain recommendations for further research are made:

1. The findings of this study should be further validated by replicating the study in other North Carolina counties.

2. There should be a study in which the total community is sampled. Such a study would make available norms against which to compare DFF. Other target groups for comparison would include all farm families, all families of the area, DFF from other parts of North Carolina, poor urban families, and non-poor urban families.

3. An expanded number of variables should be used in testing relationships with: (1) RDM; (2) availability, usage, and credibility of media; and (3) degree of linkage between interpersonal and research-based information sources. The absence of significant relationships should produce further evidence of a uniform cultural pattern that transcends individual variables.

4. There is a need to develop more sensitive scales to measure variation more precisely.

5. As a test of study objectivity and as a basis for further research with the

disadvantaged, results obtained by using peer group personnel as interviewers could be compared with results obtained by using professionals as interviewers.

6. Further research efforts to measure RDM should utilize only those defining items identified by factor analysis rather than the 12-item scale used herein.

7. Additional research is needed to explore more effective and efficient means of reaching the rural disadvantaged population with research-based information.

8. Only 91 of the 260 respondents cited interpersonal information sources. Those 91 individuals were used as the population from which were selected 47 subjects for the study on linkage; thus, inferences can be made only to that population. Information readily available on data cards could be used to compare the characteristics of the original 260 subjects with the 47 subjects of the linkage study. If the characteristics of the two groups were significantly similar, the findings and implications of the linkage study might be more applicable to the entire population of disadvantaged persons.

9. A principal concern of this study was to determine relationships of the degree of linkage between information sources to certain personal attributes of the disadvantaged subjects. It is possible that type of decision and effectiveness of the farm/home Extension agent had more impact on degree of linkage than personal characteristics. Further research is needed to confirm this supposition.

10. A study might be conducted to determine any significant relationships between the rationality of decisions made and the degree of linkage between information sources.

PART II. TECHNICAL REPORT

The technical report of this research study on decision-making and communication patterns of disadvantaged farm families (DFF) is presented in three sections. In section A are presented the background information, purposes, and objectives of the research; the conceptual framework from which the research was designed; and the limitations of the study. Section B describes the methodology used in arriving at the decision-making, communication, and linkage patterns, i.e., the research design, identification of the disadvantaged area, population and sampling, instrumentation, data collection process, and statistical procedures employed in analyzing the data. Section C presents the results and an interpretation of the study's findings.

A. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

In this, the most affluent of all nations, millions of people live in poverty. The rural poor constitute a sizable portion of the poverty stricken. Approximately nine years ago, the President's Commission on Rural Poverty (The People Left Behind, 1967) reported that some 14 million rural Americans were at the poverty level. Making that number even more significant is the relationship of rural poverty to urban poverty. As Rogers and Burdge (1972, p. 377) pointed out, "most of today's urban poor are yesterday's rural poor who moved to the city." Thus, the perpetuating and widespread effect of rural poverty has rapidly become one of the major problems of this nation.

1. The Rural Poor Subculture—A Commitment

A recognized phenomenon is that the rural poor are separated from the mainstream of national society. The dominant society—affluent and middle-class—demands of all its members skills that will enable them to cope effectively with their environment. Disadvantaged farm families lack such skills. Comprising a subculture of poverty, DFF are characterized by isolation, lack of participation in organizations, unemployment or underemployment, receding economic base, poor education, both geographic and occupational immobility, restrictive values and beliefs, anomie, old age, dilapidated housing, and poor health and health care.

Rural poverty in North Carolina is not unlike that in other areas of the nation (Brooks, 1964). Many of the State's rural farm families are both economically and socially disadvantaged. Lacking the educational background and skills required to improve their position in society, those individuals remain fixed in a socioeconomic class or subculture that hinders both self-improvement and assistance from others. As these rural people participate in their daily routines, their subculture of poverty seems to be passed on to their offspring and, indeed, subsequent generations. Thus, poverty and its effects appear to continue in a vicious, self-perpetuating cycle.

Many educational organizations and agencies (EOA), e.g., the Extension Service of the USDA, are dedicated to improving the plight of both the rural and urban poor. A joint report of the USDA and the National Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities (A People and a Spirit, 1968) stated

that 35 percent of the time allocated by Extension to agricultural production was spent working with disadvantaged farmers. However, in recent years there has been an increasing doubt that the aged, the isolated, the minority group member, the physically and mentally handicapped, the less highly motivated, and those with limited resources are receiving adequate portions of Extension's time and assistance. Because of that expressed concern for the downtrodden, the North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service and Cooperative Extension Services elsewhere currently are focusing more attention on the DFF.

Such a trend was suggested in Impact '76 (1972), the North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service's long-range program for the next five years. Impact '76 (p. 8) argued that:

> Programs to improve the standard of living and income of clientele in the agricultural and natural resources industries need special attention in future planning. Extension programs need to be developed to work with families occupying agricultural units that are either too small or lack the productive capacity adequately to support the farm family. In addition, marginal incomes may be due to inadequate education or skills of the families involved. Educational programs may be needed in cooperation with other agencies to improve the status of the low-income groups involved in agriculture. Innovative programs for increasing the income of marginal farms from nonagriculture or related enterprises may make an important contribution.

Other EOA have expressed similar concern for DFF. There are two basic reasons for such concern. First, as technology continues to expand at an accelerating rate, it leaves in its wake vast changes in every aspect of the rural culture. Whether DFF remain on the land or migrate into the city, they generally lack the necessary training and skills to compete in the labor market.

A second reason of concern for the DFF is the effect of their problems on the larger society. Disadvantaged farm families are in no position to make significant contributions to the general welfare of the total society, just as they do not share in all the available rewards. If it were made possible for DFF to share in the total productivity and receive just rewards for their efforts, the entire society would benefit.

Rather than providing direct monetary assistance (welfare) to DFF, many programs focusing on DFF are educational in nature and are based on the needs (felt and analyzed) of the people. These programs are concerned with altering the behavior (knowledge, attitudes, values and skills) deemed essential for the well-being of DFF. Such knowledge, attitudes, values and skills have a research base and are validated. Dissemination of these programs to rural areas could enrich the lives of the rural poor. However, to date, few such dissemination efforts appear to have had great impact. While much research-based information has been developed to aid DFF, there is reason to believe that little of the information reaches them in its original form—if it reaches them at all. Also, much of the research-based information actually reaching DFF may be rejected by them as information on which to base decisions. Before EOA can become an important factor in enriching the lives of DFF, effective information dissemination to this group must be mastered.

2. Purposes and Objectives of the Project

This research effort addresses itself to the problem of how the educational change agent may intervene effectively and effect change in the established behavior patterns of DFF in North Carolina. In that regard the most pressing need was to reduce the change agent's information gap concerning: (1) the life styles of this population to include their social, psychological, economic, and political characteristics; (2) the kinds of major farm and home decisions made by DFF; (3) the processes utilized by them to arrive at such decisions; (4) the major sources of information and communication network used by DFF in making decisions; (5) the factors, if any, accounting for decisions made by DFF and their selection and use of the various information sources; and (6) the linkages between interpersonal information sources cited by DFF as a basis for decisions and research-based information sources.

Such research appeared to be justified in that one-third of North Carolina's rural farm families are considered both socially and economically disadvantaged. Although a wealth of research-based content relative to farm and home living exists that could be profitably utilized by this population in improving their situation, there is reason to believe that little of this information reaches the DFF and, further, they may well reject this limited information as a basis for making decisions. Paramount to this dilemma is the dearth of information about the DFF possessed by the educational change agent. The literature contains several studies on farm and home management, but those were all geared to middle and upper socioeconomic farm operators. Further, the existing body of information about decision-making was largely oriented toward institutional management. Most of the communication research to date has been concerned with the adoption of practices by middle socioeconomic farm groups. Research about the determinants of the behavior of adults has dealt with such factors as self-concept, belief systems, internal-external control, anomia, conservatism, value systems, and numerous fixed stratified variables. Although the findings of those studies provided some insight about the behavior of disadvantaged adults, the researchers made no attempt to relate those and other factors to the decision-making, communication, and linkage patterns utilized by DFF in decision-making. This information gap in the educational change agent's cognitive map has stymied his efforts to develop and implement effective educational strategies to use in identifying, relating to, communicating with, and effecting change among this aggregate of the State's population. Hence, the specific objectives conceived for this research were to determine:

1. Who are North Carolina's DFF and what are their characteristics?
2. What kinds of major farm and home decisions are DFF making?
3. How rational are the decision-making processes utilized by DFF in making these decisions?
4. What communication media are available to DFF? What are the major sources of information utilized by DFF in making farm and home decisions? What credibility do DFF assign to their information sources?
5. What is the degree of linkage between interpersonal information sources used by DFF in making farm and home decisions and research-based information sources?
6. What is the relationship between selected sociopsychological variables and the: (a) degree of rationality in decision-making; (b) availability, usage,

and credibility of media (i.e., interpersonal, mass, and publications) and the information sources within those media; and (c) degree of linkage between interpersonal information sources used by DFF and research-based information sources?

3. Conceptual Framework

The conceptual perspective of this study was built around decision-making, communication, and linkage theory, with special focus on the decision-making, communication, and linkage patterns of the DFF. The major concepts treated were poverty, decision-making, communication and linkage.

The Concept of Poverty

The term "poverty" is not clearly conceptualized in the literature on that subject. All too frequently a book or an article seemingly concerned with poverty immediately begins to discuss, not "poverty," but "the poor." However, used precisely, "poverty" is not synonomous with "poor." Poverty is a condition. Those characterized by that condition are called poor.

According to *Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary* (1970, p. 66), poverty is synonomous with "want," "scarcity," and "destitution." Although individuals and groups may experience "want," "scarcity," and "destitution" in areas ranging from the need for political freedom to the need for love, poverty most commonly suggests deprivation regarding food, clothing, shelter, medical care, and other such needs which determine level of living. The Council of Economic Advisers (1970, p. 11) defined poverty as "the inability to satisfy minimum needs," and further ruled that those in poverty are those who "lack the earned income, property income and savings, and transfer payment to meet their minimum needs." Levitan (1973, p. 241) defined poverty as "a lack of goods and services needed for an 'adequate' standard of living."

It is difficult, however, to establish a level of deprivation of goods and services which constitutes a poverty condition. No absolute standards exist, for the condition of poverty is a relative one. As Sneden (1970, p. 2) pointed out:

> To say that someone is poor is to compare him with someone else. . . . The poor in America are better off in some respects than the vast majority of people in many of the developing nations; they have a higher average income, more facilities, a generally better diet, etc. Those who are considered poor in American society are so defined, then, because they are relatively worse off than the rest of those in the system.

Compounding the difficulty of establishing a poverty condition is the fact that a family's needs depend on many factors, including the size of the family, the ages of its members, the condition of their health, and the place of residence.

Various indicators have been suggested to measure the amount of relative deprivation existing in society. Sneden (1970, p. 4) lists 16 such criteria:

1. The quality of diet
2. The quality of housing
3. The quality and extensiveness of clothing owned
4. The number of luxuries that can be afforded
5. The quality of furnishings for one's place of living
6. The quality of medical care that can be had
7. The degree of control over one's overall destiny (social power)

8. The overall quality of one's life-style (how qualitatively valuable it is, subjectively)
9. The degree to which physical survival is possible
10. The degree to which one can move about with facility (the adequacy of transportation facilities)
11. The quality of communications media available
12. The quality and length of education available
13. The quality and length of work available
14. The degree to which one has prestige within one's community and/or larger society
15. The income one has
16. Income-food expenditure relationship.

Since it is not feasible to measure all of the listed criteria to determine if a family is in a condition of poverty, it would be helpful to select the one indicator that would be the best measure of poverty.

According to Anderson and Niemi (1969), education is the single most important indicator. They argued that occupation, income, health, housing, family size, and other such variables are directly dependent on education. Others would present similar arguments for other indicators of poverty. However, the most commonly used indicator is income. Webster's (1970, p. 6) defines poverty as a "lack of money." Sneden (1970), arguing in favor of using income as a measure of poverty, maintained that income is the most significant overall measure of one's rank in American society. He contended that income is the most important factor in determining consumption of goods and services, diet, housing, medical care, education, and other criteria frequently used to measure poverty, and was adamant in asserting (Sneden, 1970, p. 5) that "money is probably the most crucial variable in the determination of poverty." In addition, he pointed out that income is easy to measure accurately.

Recognizing the importance of income as a dominant factor and a convenient heuristic device by which to measure poverty, this study used income as one of the criteria by which to identify farm families that are in a condition of poverty. While an income criterion is a convenient heuristic device by which to measure poverty, it is widely recognized that income alone is not sufficient to conceptualize such a complex phenomenon. The Task Force on Economic Growth and Opportunity (1965, p. 5) made such an affirmation when it declared that "the more we study poverty the more we find that it is not just an economic problem. It is an emotional, cultural, and political problem as well."

The Nature of Poverty in the United States

Poverty in the United States is of a different order from poverty in other parts of the world where it is a way of life for most inhabitants. Poverty in the U.S. involves specific people, families, and groups and differs from mass chronic poverty. A large body of opinion contends that those in a condition of poverty possess certain "poverty-linked" characteristics that cause them to constitute a subculture. According to Ferman, *et al.* (1965, p. 5), members of the poverty subculture

> . . . "share" a distinctive set of values, behavior traits, and belief complexes that markedly set them off from the affluent groups in the society. This set is "derivative" of prolonged economic deprivation, lack of

adequate financial resources and socialization in an environment of economic uncertainty. This "culture of poverty" is characterized by an intergenerational persistence and transmission to the children of the poor.

Thus, the poor in the U.S. may be conceptualized as a subculture existing within and interacting with the larger societal culture (Figure 1). Distinct social, psychological, political, and economic characteristics are associated with a poverty subculture. As depicted in the schema in Figure 1, poverty may begin with the individual and spread through families, communities, and even whole societies. When it constitutes a sizable portion of the people in a society, or increases to the extent that it affects the effective functioning of its human resources, it then becomes recognized as a major problem for the larger society's external environment. Such was the case necessitating the passage of the Economic Act of 1964, which declared it to be the policy of the U.S. to obliterate poverty.

The Relationship Between the Larger Society and the Disadvantaged

In discussing the schema in Figure 1, attention is first focused on the relationship between the larger society and the poverty subculture. That relationship takes place within, and is determined by, a situation of unequal power. The poverty subculture is comprised of an unorganized or ineffectively organized minority that is unable to exert influence in the political sphere—a social system in which members possess relatively few skills and limited resources. In contrast, the larger society is immensely powerful.

Given the difference in the amount of power possessed by the two cultures, the often acrimonious relationship between them is not surprising. According to Haggstrom (1970, p. 79):

> On the average, the poor in the United States have bad reputations. They are regarded as responsible for much physical aggression and destruction of property; their support is alleged to be a heavy burden on the rest of the community; and they are said not even to try very hard to meet community standards of behavior or to be self-supporting. Poverty, it is said, is little enough punishment for people so inferior and so lacking in virtue.

On the other hand, Haggstrom argues (p. 80), the disadvantaged harbor much:

> . . . envy and hostility toward those who prosper. There is a feeling of being exploited. . . . The unity of the poor comes about through suspicion of and resentment toward outsiders. (There is a feeling that) the outside world cannot be trusted; it must be defended against.

The poor often perceive themselves as discriminated against and rejected by the larger society. Thus, they blame their situation on the larger society and reject its culture.

The condition of unequal power between the two cultures also determines the most basic nature of the relationship—the tremendous dependence of the weaker culture on the stronger. Unable to generate the necessary resources to satisfy their own needs, the poverty subculture must look to the larger society to provide those resources through welfare programs.

As Haggstrom (1970, pp. 83-84) pointed out, the dependency of the subculture on the overwhelming power of the larger culture is also reflected in: (1) the probability that "a poor person is much more likely to be subject to police interrogation and search or other police action than middle-class people"; (2) urban renewal projects which periodically disrupt the neighbor-

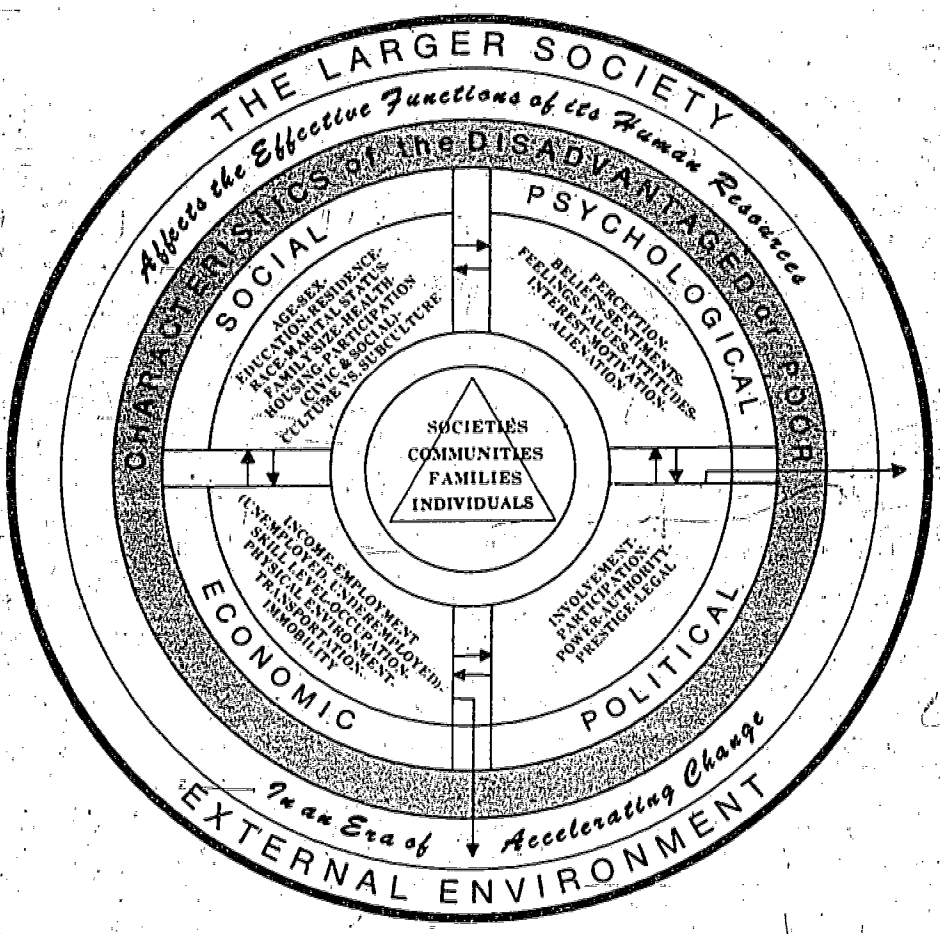


Figure 1. A schema for conceptualizing the disadvantaged farm family

hoods of poverty, scattering the families in various directions; (3) schools which impose middle-class standards on the poor; (4) the repossession of goods bought through high-interest installment financing; (5) rapacious landlords who exploit the poor; and (6) the fact that plans and programs designed to help the poor are initiated and supported by the larger society and imposed upon the poor.

Characteristics of the Disadvantaged

The schema in Figure 1 indicates that the poverty subculture possesses distinctive social, psychological, political, and economic characteristics. The schema also indicates that there is interaction between those characteristics. The earlier mentioned condition of dependency may be taken as a typical demonstration of such interaction (Figure 2).

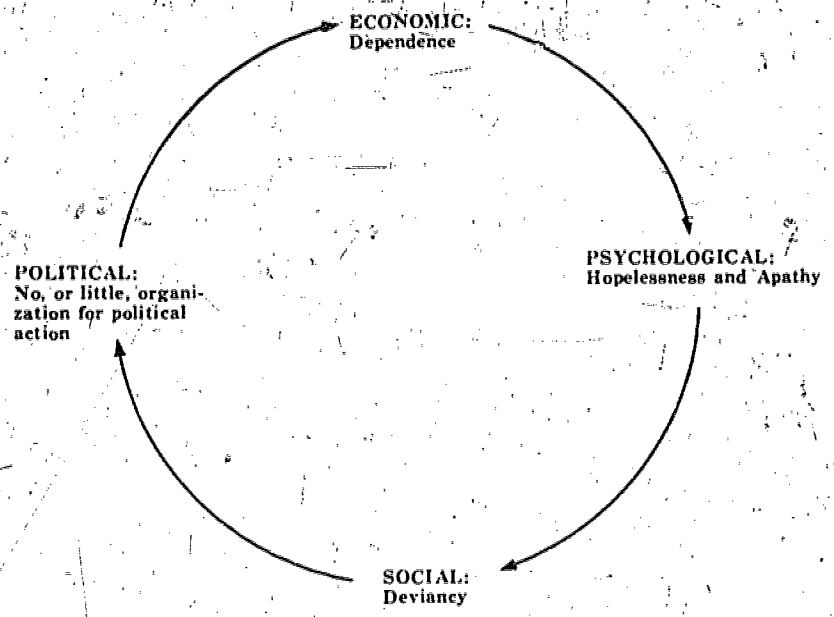


Figure 2. Schema illustrating the interaction between economic, psychological, social, and political characteristics

The economic dependence of the poor has been described. The literature on poverty indicated general consensus that such dependency has psychological repercussions. The poor come to feel that they are powerless to improve their condition by their own efforts and, thus, are characterized by attitudes of hopelessness and apathy. These psychological characteristics in turn influence their social characteristics. Social conduct is governed by a set of values. Because of their attitudes of hopelessness and apathy, the poor have a set of values different from those of the larger society. Although they may "pay lip service" to middle-class values, they have no concept that such values apply to them (Anderson and Niemi, 1969; Lewis, 1969; Haggstrom, 1970). For example, the middle-class value system extolls hard work and moral probity. These values are quite functional for the middle class, since

they frequently lead to success and upward mobility. The psychologically dependent poor, however, believe a value system that incorporates hard work and moral probity is dysfunctional for them. Thus, they reject those middle-class values. The value set that they adopt, however, causes their conduct, by the standards of the larger society, to be socially deviant. Thus, in the subculture there is a high crime rate, alcoholism, drug use, illegitimacy, and the like. As a result, a state of mistrust characterizes the relationship of the disadvantaged to each other.

The impact of economic dependency (expressed through psychological and social characteristics) also has a tremendous influence on the political characteristics of the poor. Because they consider as hopeless any effort on their part to alter their situation (psychological) and because of their mistrust of one another (social), the disadvantaged have little or no organization for political action. The absence of political power, in turn, contributes to their deprivation, which perpetuates the condition of economic dependency.

Social Characteristics of the Disadvantaged

The sections that follow treat certain of the social, economic, psychological, and political characteristics of the disadvantaged depicted in the interaction schema (Figure 1). Supportive data for the discussion of these characteristics were extracted from current population reports of the U.S. Bureau of the Census (1975) and refer to 1973 population characteristics. The Bureau of the Census used a weighted scale adjusted for size of family, sex of family head, and farm/nonfarm residence to determine poverty levels.

The social characteristics of DFF that were pertinent to this study were divided into two categories: individual and family characteristics. Individuals were characterized according to: (1) age, (2) education (of those over 14 years old), (4) ethnic background, (5) residence, and (6) sex. Families were characterized by: (1) education of family head (25 years old and over), (2) sex of family head, and (3) size of family.

Individual Characteristics. Age is the first individual characteristic shown in Table 1. The data indicate that of the total U.S. population the young (14 percent) and the old (16 percent) had the greatest likelihood to be disadvantaged. While the data indicate that only 8 percent of the total population in the 16-64 age category were disadvantaged, this age category comprised 48 percent of the disadvantaged population.

Some literature indicates that the disadvantaged hold lower educational aspirations for their children than do the middle class and, further, that they are more pessimistic regarding the possibility of their children achieving those aspirations. The disadvantaged are disadvantaged largely because of their lack of education. Table 1 shows that in terms of median years of school completed, the disadvantaged (over 14 years old) had about two years less education than the general population. Much more revealing, however, was the percentage who had not completed high school. For those over 14 years of age, the disadvantaged who were not high school graduates outnumbered their nonpoor counterparts by about 25 percent.

Based on the premise that the power of whites in society is far stronger than that of blacks and other races, it is logical to expect that proportionately fewer whites than blacks would be found among the disadvantaged. As shown by Table 1 such was the case. While only 8.4 percent of the total white population was labeled as disadvantaged, 31.5 percent of the total black population

fell into the disadvantaged category. Because whites far outnumber blacks in the population of the United States, there are about twice as many disadvantaged whites as disadvantaged blacks (66 percent and 32 percent, respectively).

Marital status of the disadvantaged females (15 years of age and over) was the next individual characteristic shown in Table 1. It is generally accepted that there is a high incidence of broken homes in the poverty subculture. Such a pattern was supported by the data, which show that only 27 percent of disadvantaged married females had a husband present.

Considering place of residence next, Table 1 shows that the great majority of the disadvantaged population (94.4 percent) resided in a nonfarm location. However, the proportionate incidence of disadvantaged among the total U.S. population is greater in a farm location (13.4 percent to 11 percent, respectively).

Table 1. Frequency distribution of social characteristics of the disadvantaged in the USA by selected individual characteristics, 1973[1]

Social Characteristic	Total US Population	Disadvantaged		
		Number of Disadvantaged	Percent of Total Population	Percent of No. Disadvantaged
Number of persons in US	207,621	22,973	11.1	—
Age, yr.				
Under 16	58,746	8,665	14.0	38.0
16-64	128,273	10,955	8.0	48.0
65 years and over	20,602	3,354	16.0	14.0
Education (over 14 years old)				
Median years of school completed	12.2	9.9	—	—
Percentage not a high school graduate	42.4	67.3	—	—
Ethnic background				
White	181,185	15,142	8.4	66.0
Black	23,418	7,388	31.5	32.0
Others	3,018	443	14.0	2.0
Marital status of females (15 years and over)				
Total	80,283	9,368	11.7	—
Husband present	47,317	2,506	5.3	27.0
No husband, or husband absent	32,966	6,862	20.0	73.0
Residence				
Farm	9,546	1,283	13.4	5.5
Nonfarm	198,075	21,689	11.0	94.4
Sex				
Male	100,694	9,642	9.6	42.0
Female	106,898	13,316	12.5	58.0

[1] U.S. Bureau of the Census (1975); total in thousands; figures rounded to the nearest whole number.

The final individual social characteristic of the poor depicted in Table 1 is that of sex. Anderson and Niemi (1969) argued that sex is not a significant factor in the conceptualization of poverty. However, Table 1 shows that there was quite a difference between the sexes in terms of poverty rates. Over 12 percent of the total U.S. population were disadvantaged females as compared to almost 10 percent males. This trend held within the disadvantaged population in that 58 percent were females and 42 percent were males.

Family Characteristics. The data in Table 2 show that the educational level of the family head (25 years of age or older) was similar to that shown in Table 1 for individuals (14 years of age or over). As was the case with individuals, the family head also was about 2 years below the national average in median years of school completed. In terms of percentage not a high school graduate, the deficiencies of the family head (as with the individual) were even more striking. While among the total U.S. population only 38.9 percent of the family heads were not high school graduates, 68.2 percent of the disadvantaged family heads did not graduate from high school.

The data on the family social characteristic, sex of family head, (Table 2) supported the findings reported in the literature. As would be expected, male family heads outnumbered female family heads in both the total U.S. and the disadvantaged populations. Further, the disadvantaged rate was expected to be higher for families headed by females. Statistics in that regard are striking. Table 2 shows that while only 5.5 percent of families headed by males were disadvantaged, 32.2 percent of the families headed by females were disadvantaged.

Table 2. Frequency distribution of social characteristics of the disadvantaged in the USA by selected family characteristics, 1973 [1]

Social Characteristic	Total US Population	Disadvantaged		
		Number of Disadvantaged	Percent of Total Population	Percent of No. Disadvantaged
Number of persons in US	207,621	22,973	11.1	—
Education of family head (25 years and over)				
Total	50,795	4,152	8.2	—
Median years of school completed	12.3	9.6	—	—
Percentage not a high school graduate	38.9	68.2	—	—
Sex of family head [2]				
Total number of families	55,053	4,828	8.8	—
Male	48,243	2,635	5.5	54.6
Female	6,804	2,193	32.2	45.4
Size of family				
2 persons	20,592	1,697	8.2	35.0
3-4 persons	22,462	1,604	7.1	33.0
5 persons or more	12,000	1,527	13.0	32.0
Mean size of family	3.44	3.79	—	—

[1] U.S. Bureau of the Census (1975); total in thousands; figures rounded to the nearest whole number.

[2] All family heads and spouses over 15 years of age.

Anderson and Niemi's (1969) review of the research on the poor disclosed that the disadvantaged family is usually larger than average in size. Several studies reviewed by those two researchers revealed that extremely low income appeared to be related to bearing and rearing five or more children. Nevertheless, the statistics in Table 2 do not support that conclusion. According to the data, the disadvantaged family was no more likely to have a larger family than a smaller one. Furthermore, the mean size of the disadvantaged family (3.79 persons) was only slightly higher than that of other families (3.44 persons).

Additional social characteristics of the disadvantaged treated in this study but not depicted in Tables 1 and 2 were health, housing, and social participation.

Turning first to health, there is substantial evidence that the health of the disadvantaged is clearly inferior to that of the nonpoor. Supportive findings of this statement were given by Anderson and Niemi (1969, p. 16):

> The disadvantaged are characterized by a high incidence of diseases, higher rates of infant mortality, lower life expectancy, more chronic illness, more dental defects and a greater evidence of generally poor physical and mental health. . . . (They are) also characterized by lower expenditures for health services, less use of medical facilities, lower rates of pre-natal care and lower acceptance of voluntary health insurance and prepaid medical coverage.

Additional research conducted by the National Center for Health Statistics supported Anderson and Niemi's assertions that the health situation of the poor is inferior to that of the nonpoor (Allen, 1974; Profile of American Health, 1973, 1974).

As for housing, it is only to be expected that, given their educational and income levels, the disadvantaged would live in inadequate, dilapidated housing.

With regard to social participation of the disadvantaged, Anderson and Niemi (1969, p. 34) reported that "existing research shows only a very limited degree of participation in formal associations by the disadvantaged."

Psychological Characteristics of the Disadvantaged

Various authorities have observed that the disadvantaged share, in general, a distinct set of psychological characteristics. In 1966, Skene noted that the following characteristics had been identified in the literature (Anderson and Niemi, 1969):

1. The disadvantaged are authoritarian and resort to physical rather than verbal dominance.
2. They are rigidly restrictive, especially if they hold religious beliefs which are prohibitive ones.
3. They are predisposed to intolerance and prejudice and tend toward black and white thinking.
4. They hold anti-intellectual attitudes and are more prone to action than to reflection.
5. They are more inclined to physical or concrete thinking and learning than to impersonal abstract thinking.
6. They are given to resign themselves to "fate."
7. They are more likely to reveal hostility, tension, and aggression.

Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck characterized the disadvantaged as "being-oriented." Such an orientation implies (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961, p. 16):

> . . . behavior that tends to be spontaneous and directed toward the realization of immediate needs or interests. This orientation is contrasted to the "doing" orientation pattern of middle-class American society in which behavior tends to be planned and directed toward the realization of objective goals. A "doing" orientation is future-oriented and a "being" orientation is oriented to the present.

Since DFF often are characterized as "being"-oriented, it is not inconsistent that they seem unwilling to take the time, effort, and expense that an outsider might deem necessary to gather enough appropriate information to make a "future"-oriented decision (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961). Instant decisions or those taking only a few days are an accepted feature in their lives, as might be anticipated as a manifestation of their "now" (present) orientation (Schomaker and Thorpe, 1963).

Contrary to the foregoing, Rokeach maintained that current findings provided no support for the widely held belief that the culture of poverty is hedonistic and present-oriented. Neither did the findings support the hypothesis that the poor value immediate gratification more than do the rich. However, Rokeach (1973, p. 63) modified this statement by saying, "It is also obvious that the value differences usually become more pronounced as the two extremes of poverty and affluence are compared."

The disadvantaged also are characterized by low self-concepts (Anderson and Niemi, 1969; Sneden, 1970). Their dependency, habits of submission, lack of verbal facility, lack of skills and knowledge, and their earliest experiences of failure in school all contribute to this psychological condition.

Finally, considerable evidence was found that the disadvantaged are more anomic than the advantaged and have higher incidences of alienation (Bell, 1957; Meir and Bell, 1959). Following a suggestion in Leo Srole's (1956) writing, the term "anomia," as used in this study, refers to the phenomenon measured by his scale or similar scales to distinguish the psychological concept from the sociological concept of anomie. The former refers to the state of an individual and the latter to the condition of a group or society.

The evidence is consistent that anomia results when individuals lack access to means for the achievement of societal goals. Such lack of opportunity comes about largely as a result of an individual's position in the social system as determined by such factors as (Riddick, 1966): (1) occupation; (2) educational attainment; (3) income; (4) age; (5) sex; (6) ethnicity; (7) marital status; (8) types and degrees of association in both formal organizations and informal groups of friends, work associates, neighbors, and relatives; and (9) degree of commitment to particular beliefs, attitudes, and values.

Political Characteristics of the Disadvantaged

The disadvantaged are not predisposed toward political participation. Brager (1965), from analyzing the reasons for their low participation rate, advanced the following causes: the characteristics of community life, the nature of lower-income adults, and the structure of the community organization effort.

With regard to the characteristics of community life, Brager pointed out that, at the time of writing, local communities had been inundated by new migrants, most of whom were from rural areas and hence unfamiliar with urban life. Brager (1965, p. 510) noted that a public housing project "collects in one place thousands of deprived families, strangers to one another and to local community resources," which results in the community failing to

assimilate the newcomers and/or involve them in community life. Another characteristic of community life contributing to the low political participation rate of the disadvantaged Brager (1965, p. 510) listed as:

> . . . The bewildering operations of massive bureaucratic systems. . . . The size, impersonality, concentrated power and inflexibility of these large organizations make them seem to local residents hardly amenable to their influence.

The community characteristic that Brager (1965, p. 510) thought was most important in deterring the disadvantaged from participating in community politics was "the opposition of already entrenched organization." He argued that such established groups as political parties, government agencies, and private organizations resist participation by the disadvantaged in community politics because these organizations perceive the disadvantaged as a threat to their vested interests.

The second cause Brager advanced to explain the low political participation rate of the disadvantaged was the nature of disadvantaged adults. Because of the circumstances of their existence, Brager argued, the disadvantaged are too preoccupied with day-to-day survival problems to be concerned with broad political matters. In addition, disadvantaged persons (Brager, 1965, p. 510) "lack the verbal or literary requisites for organizational skills; neither do they tend to be comfortable with the formal methods of doing business in organizations." Finally, the disadvantaged view life very pessimistically and have little hope of deliverance. Thus (Brager, 1965, p. 510), "they tend to retreat from struggle. . . . Such defeatism, resulting in a lack of participation, produces a loss of interest in changing their conditions."

The third, and final, cause Brager advanced to explain the lack of political participation among the disadvantaged was the structure of community organization; i.e., community organizations are staffed by the middle class causing the disadvantaged to feel dominated in those organizations; consequently, the disadvantaged either withdraw or refuse to join.

Lack of political participation among the disadvantaged has profound consequences, and perhaps is the primary cause of poverty (Ferman, *et. al.*, 1965). People become disadvantaged, not because of negative personal characteristics, but because (Ferman, *et. al.*, p. 219) they are

> . . . subjected to the action of external forces which deprive them of adequate income. Those external forces determine the availability of jobs and skill training, wage scales, size of transfer payments, availability of training, race discrimination, etc. They are part of the total functioning of the American political economy. . . . By and large, (they) receive the smallest share of the nation's economic resources and the least adequate community resources. They have the weakest voice in the decision-making processes which govern resource allocation.

Economic Characteristics of the Disadvantaged

The literature on the disadvantaged indicated that the disadvantaged are deeply embedded in a poverty subculture. Hence, they are at a great disadvantage in obtaining a favorable economic status. Their level of education, skill level, work experience, previous training, ethnic background, seniority record, occupation, and industrial attachment all combine to limit the labor market opportunities available to them. Thus, relative to the larger society, rather grim statistics for the disadvantaged emerge in the economic picture of the nation. Table 3, which compares these economic characteristics of the disadvantaged versus the total U.S. population, is based on statistics re-

leased by the Bureau of Census (Characteristics of the Low-Income population: 1973, 1975). Table 3 indicates the total 1973 U.S. population compared to the disadvantaged population in terms of employment, status of family head, source of family income, and work experience.

In regard to employment status of family head, Table 3 reveals that 41 percent of the heads of disadvantaged families were currently employed (1974). Many of those were undoubtedly engaged in only part-time work or temporary full-time work (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1975).

Table 3. Frequency distribution of economic characteristics of the disadvantaged in the USA by selected individual and family characteristics, 1973[1]

Social Characteristic	Total US Population[1]	Disadvantaged		
		Number of Disadvantaged	Percent of Total Population	Percent of No. Disadvantaged
Number of persons in US	207,621	22,973	11.1	—
Employment status of family head (March 1974)				
Total number of families	55,053	4,828	8.8	—
Presently employed	41,780	1,989	4.8	41.6
Presently unemployed	1,345	263	19.5	5.4
Not in labor force	11,006	2,560	23.3	53.0
In Armed Forces	921	16	1.8	.3
Source of family income				
Earnings and other income	49,272	2,980	.06	62.0
Other income only, no earnings	5,658	1,718	30.4	36.0
Work experience (22-64 years)	104,802	8,174	7.8	—
Worked full time, full year	52,624	1,217	2.3	14.0
Worked part time, full year	4,048	402	9.9	.04
Did not work last year (1972)	24,745	4,093	16.5	50.0
Main reason for not working:				
Ill or disabled	3,712	1,224	33.0	30.0
Keeping house	18,626	2,317	12.4	57.0
Going to school	680	151	22.2	.03
Unable to find work	420	148	35.2	.04

[1] U.S. Bureau of the Census (1975); total in thousands; figures rounded to the nearest whole number.

A large number of the disadvantaged were not available for work. Of those between the ages of 22 and 64, 50 percent did not work in 1973. Only .04 percent of those people said that they were unable to find work. Similarly, 53 percent of the heads of families indicated that they were not in the labor force. In the minds of many there is a link between laziness and poverty. However, the data in Table 3 indicate that many of the disadvantaged were simply not able to work. The great majority of those between the ages of 22 and 64 who did not work in 1973 were either ill or disabled (30 percent) or were required to keep house and look after children (57 percent).

The next economic characteristic shown in Table 3 is that of source of family income. Given the bleak employment status of the family head, it is not surprising that a large number (36 percent) of the disadvantaged families

had no earnings in 1973, existing only on "other income" (welfare).

In regard to work experience, Table 3 indicates a far higher rate of unemployment for the disadvantaged than for the nonpoor. Indeed, a full 50 percent of the disadvantaged between 22 and 64 years of age did not work at all in 1972. Anderson and Niemi (1969) and additional statistics of the U.S. Bureau of the Census reported that of those poor who do work a disproportionate number are limited to work in semi-skilled and unskilled categories. That situation is reflected in the fact that although 14 percent of the disadvantaged worked full time all year long, they were still in a condition of poverty. Thus, for those persons poverty was the result of low-paying jobs.

Other economic characteristics of the poor not indicated in Table 3 are the physical environment, mobility, and transportation. Considering the physical environment first, it is only to be expected that the poor will live in an environment of crumbling buildings, poor facilities, and all the other symptoms of a blighted area.

The relationship of the physical environment to the poor, however, goes further than producing only unpleasant living conditions. Indeed, in an influential work Gailbraith (1960) used the physical environment, along with individual characteristics, to explain the causes of poverty. He argued that there are two types of poverty: (1) case poverty and (2) insular poverty. "Case poverty" refers to poverty caused by individual characteristics such as physical disabilities, mental disabilities, or some other personal characteristic that dooms the individual to economic inadequacy. "Insular poverty" relates to the physical environment in that it refers to widespread poverty in whole communities or whole regions, such as urban ghettos or the Appalachians. In such areas, employment opportunities may be nonexistant or limited to low paid and unskilled jobs. Ferman, *et. al.* (1965, p. 3) wrote that in such environments:

> Limited opportunities foster the outmigration of the young, the skilled, and the energetic, leaving the community with unskilled, nondiversified labor force, a situation that makes future economic redevelopment of the community even more difficult.

With regard to the mobility of the disadvantaged, one must distinguish between the rural and the urban poor. In their review of the research on mobility patterns among the poor, Anderson and Niemi (1969) found that the disadvantaged in rural areas were generally immobile while, in contrast, the urban poor were very mobile.

The mobility of the rural poor probably stems from the traditional nature of rural areas. The rural poor are long accustomed to the distinct local culture and value set. Furthermore, they are rooted to their homes by strong bonds of friendship and kinship ties. Thus, with their focal point on the traditional family home, one would assume that rural disadvantaged families are highly immobile.

In contrast, the majority of the urban poor are rootless. Attracted to urban areas by the opportunities created by the industrial revolution, the urban poor have severed their bonds to their traditional home and, thus, are highly mobile.

Transportation is the final economic characteristic used to characterize the poor. In that regard Batchhelder (1971) and the *New York Times* (February 13, 1975) argued that the urban and rural poor have considerably less access to public and private transportation than do other segments of

society, and that this lack of transportation imposes severe economic hardships. Batchhelder and the *New York Times* pointed out that the lack of transportation not only prevents the poor from finding and commuting to jobs, but also discourages industry from establishing new plants in their area.

Thus, distinct social, psychological, political and economic characteristics combine to serve as a network of interrelated concepts employed in describing the concept of poverty and those who are in a condition of poverty (i.e., the disadvantaged) as it is conceived and articulated in this research. These four characteristics were used as criteria to: (1) identify and screen the population and sample of the study, (2) characterize DFF, and (3) test for relationships between selected dependent variables (RDM, availability, usage and credibility of media/information sources, and degree of linkage of interpersonal information sources).

The Concept of Decision-Making

Decision-making in this study was defined as the process by which DFF arrive at preferred ends. Decision-making is recognized universally as an integral part of human living. Each individual is involved in a continual sequence of decisions from his first to his last waking moment of each day. Tannenbaum (1950) recognized that unconscious or partially conscious choices are made, but concluded that decision-making is involved when these decisions are conscious.

Decisions are either rational or irrational (Litchfield, 1956). Those dimensions of decision-making may be viewed as a continuum, with rational at one end and irrational at the other. The efforts of the present study were to ascertain the relative degree of rational/irrational dimensions in DFF's decision-making.

The psychological process of personal decision-making appears to be imperfectly understood, a process characterized as unfathomable (MacIver, 1943). Yet, decision-making is so pervasive and so important to both the individual and the family that much effort has been expended to understand the decision-making process and to give it structure. A structured process would be useful in providing plausible progressions in decision-making, organizing facts and resources, defining objectives, and identifying a climactic point at which decisions should be made and actions should be taken.

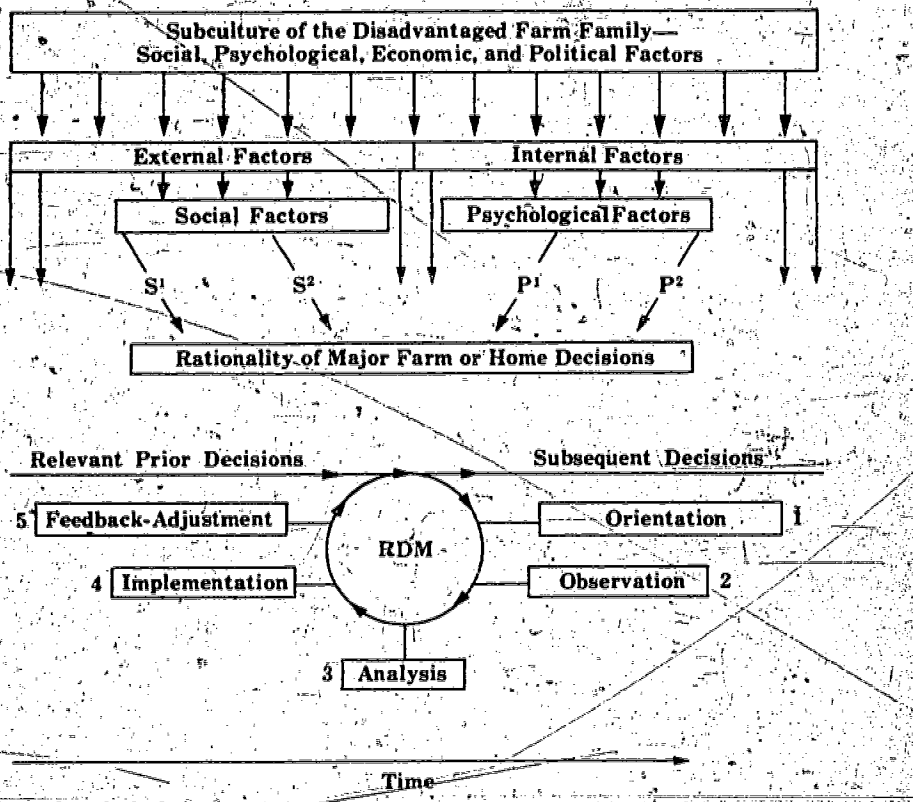
The process used both to conceptualize and to measure decision-making among DFF encompassed a series of actions to include the subprocesses of (1) orientation—being aware of goals or problems; (2) observation—seeking information; (3) analysis—analyzing and choosing alternatives; (4) implementation—acting; and (5) feedback and adjustment—reassessing the choice and accepting its consequences. The related literature of decision-making suggested that, more often than not, the DFF may arrive at decisions which are far from rational. For purposes of this study, rationality was defined as the degree of conformity to a process of decision-making—the more rational the family decision-making, the more closely they were likely to follow a process involving the five previously cited subprocesses.

Figure 3 was designed to facilitate understanding of the interrelatedness of the five subprocesses undergirding the decision-making process. Diagrammatically, the figure relates the selected psychological and social factors to the rationality of specific major farm and home decisions made by DFF.

The rationality of each farm operator and homemaker's decision was assumed to be the result of interaction effects of all the cultural factors that impinged upon them at the time that each made the specific farm/home decision. The schema was based on the assumption that DFF demonstrate a degree of rationality ranging toward the lower end of the rational/irrational continuum.

Briefly, this study purported that specified farm/home decisions are made within specific time frames. Yet, decisions do not stand in isolation. Only in analytic exercises can a specific decision be plucked from its milieu of relevant prior decisions and divorced from its consequences for subsequent future decisions.

Decision-making is depicted in Figure 3 as a spiraling, circular process.



S¹ = Level of education
S² = Participation in organizations
P¹ = Age
P² = Present/future value orientation

Figure 3. Schematic representation of the decision-making process and factors related to DFF's degree of rationality in making farm/home decisions

Each rational decision, encompassing the five subprocesses of (1) orientation, (2) observation, (3) analysis, (4) implementation, and (5) feedback and adjustment—if followed—contributes to a higher level of understanding for future decisions.

Also portrayed in Figure 3 is the concept that all the subcultural concomitants of the DFF impinge on every farm/home decision made. The number of factors and nature of their influence are unique for each DFF. Nevertheless, this environment shapes the quality of each decision.

The number of factors—conscious or unconscious—involved in each decision perhaps is infinite; however, they all may be divided into stimulating situations outside the individual and internal or personal factors.

Specifically for this study, the selected factors of level of education and participation in organizations, noted as social factors, and the psychological factors of age and present/future value orientation were isolated and pictured as significantly impinging on the rationality of major farm/home decisions made by a DFF.

The discussion that follows treats the five subprocesses of decision-making around which rationality of DFF was measured.

Orientation

Based on the reported findings, DFF decision-makers seem to be vaguely aware of problems, restless and uneasy about concerns, but far from definitive about the specific problems or goals that are the basis for their decision-making (Weller, 1966). Long-range goals seldom are a part of their repertoire and those goals verbalized are at best fuzzy, unclear generalizations rather than sharply focused objectives toward which definite steps might be planned or taken.

Observation

Physical mobility restrictions and lack of such physical conveniences as telephones and electricity, coupled with a jaundiced, often reactional understanding of the roles of governmental agencies and other services—now taken for granted by the larger society—critically reduce the process of seeking alternatives for the DFF (The People Left Behind, 1967). Tradition and "the sacred" substitute for the scientific, as the DFF use those sources readily accessible to them when developing potential alternative goals and solutions to their felt problems.

The extended family (all those persons defined as being kin and their several nuclear families, Bertrand, 1967, p. 209) has a vast storehouse of answers to problems, most of which have been "proven" by the test of time and which take on something of "the sacred" as they have been perpetuated. This pseudo-sacredness dampens any willingness to challenge the authority of elders in whom this storehouse of solutions is vested, and also contributes substantively to the reluctance of disadvantaged families to turn to new sources of information that may challenge the old.

Since many disadvantaged families are functionally illiterate, it would appear that printed information would have a minimal interest or value to them. Newspapers probably would not be a regular source of information, farm magazines would be irregularly delivered to their doors, and neither would have significant impact for either introducing new ideas or reinforcing new ideas gleaned from other sources.

Television and radio are a part of the daily life of almost all of disadvantaged families (Levin and Greenberg, 1972). However, the reception of information from those media is so distorted and modified by their contextual screens, as mediated by their understanding of their resources and their past experiences, that the intended meaning often is lost and the informational opportunities accordingly reduced.

Contacts with adult education agencies and other research-oriented sources of information often are severely reduced by such considerations as the fact that work patterns of the disadvantaged and their modes of transportation make it next to impossible for them to contact these agencies during regular working hours. Gulfs are often wide between these families and successful farmers and homemakers due to problems of social distance and class structure. That gulf makes the exchange or flow of information from the more successful members of society at best only a minimal trickle of information.

Since DFF often are characterized as present-oriented, it is not inconsistent that they seem unwilling to take the time, effort, and expense that an outsider may deem necessary to gather appropriate information to make a satisfactory decision.

Analysis

According to data presented by Schomaker and Thorpe, one may conclude that the DFF give only one course of action serious consideration. This course is either accepted or rejected, and constitutes the extent of the analysis made. Extensive time is rarely spent in the business of analyzing and weighing any number of relevant alternatives. Instant decisions, or those requiring only a few days, are an accepted factor in their lives—an anticipated manifestation of their "now" orientation.

Implementation

No attempt was made to analyze critically the process of implementation. The decision of a DFF was accepted as given in the sense that a decision verbalized and further acknowledged as being relatively important among the decisions made during the past year was assumed to need no further validation.

Feedback and Adjustment

The final phase to be verified and considered for evidence of rationality of DFF decision-making was feedback and adjustment. Considering the paucity of information generally sought by the DFF and the minimal participation of others in their decision-making process, one may assume that DFF find "standing behind" their decisions difficult (Reeder, 1965; Weller, 1966). The tendency is toward "buck-passing" concerning the responsibility for actually making decisions. This is especially noticeable where the decision is one that was not satisfactory.

The Concept of Communication

The model used in this study to conceptualize the communication process was adapted from models developed by Berlo (1960) and Rogers and Shoemaker (1971). As indicated by Figure 4, the model conceptualizes communication as a process that includes the elements of: (1) an information "source" that encodes a message, (2) a "message" to be transmitted, (3) a "channel" to

transmit that message, (4) a "receiver" to decode the message, and (5) the "effects" of the message on the receiver. The entire communication process occurs within an existing social-cultural context.

Interpretation of the Communication Model

The first major element of the communication model (Figure 4) is the source. Communication originates with the source, who encodes a message intended for the receiver. In this study educational organizations and agencies (EOA) represent the source. There are four factors associated with the source, namely: (1) communication skills, (2) attitudes, (3) knowledge level, and (4) position within a social-cultural context. Berlo (1960) argued that those factors have great influence on the fidelity and content of the message.

In this study the people comprising the source (EOA) are the products of their social-cultural context. Thus, the communication skills and attitudes of EOA probably reflect the middle-class background of the people staffing them. Further, the knowledge level of EOA represents the educational programs/information that the dominant social-cultural forces deem desirable to disseminate.

The second major element identified in Figure 4 is the message. A message is defined as the actual physical product of the source. In verbal communication, the speech is the message; in written communication, the writing is the message. In analyzing the message, Berlo suggested three factors to consider: the message code, the message content, and the message treatment. A code is a group of symbols structured so as to be meaningful to a target audience (DFF). Making up that code are a vocabulary and a set of procedures (a syntax) for meaningfully combining those elements. Message content is the educational program/information/material selected by EOA to be disseminated to DFF. Message treatment is defined as the decisions which the communication source makes in selecting and arranging both codes and content. There are numerous testimonies that the manner in which the message is treated is the result of cultural influences (e.g., Schramm, 1965; Smith, 1966). Thus, it is to be expected that, in treating messages, middle-class members who comprise EOA will share common characteristics unique to their culture. There is countless testimony that the vocabulary and syntax of the middle-class culture deviates greatly from that of the poverty subculture (Bernstein, 1960, 1969; Deutsch, 1972).

The channel is the third major element of the communication model. As the medium used by EOA to transmit the message to DFF, the channel may involve either seeing, hearing, touching, smelling, or tasting. Interpersonal, mass, and publications media are examples of channels. Media availability is apparently high among the disadvantaged. For example, Dervin and Greenberg's (1972, p. 6) survey of the communication environment of the urban disadvantaged revealed that:

- —95 percent of the low-income urban households had at least one TV set
- —Almost 100 percent of the households had at least one radio
- —50-75 percent of the households had at least one daily newspaper available regularly
- —The average low-income black family had two black periodicals available regularly

Thus, one may conclude that, while disadvantaged households are poor, they are not media poor.

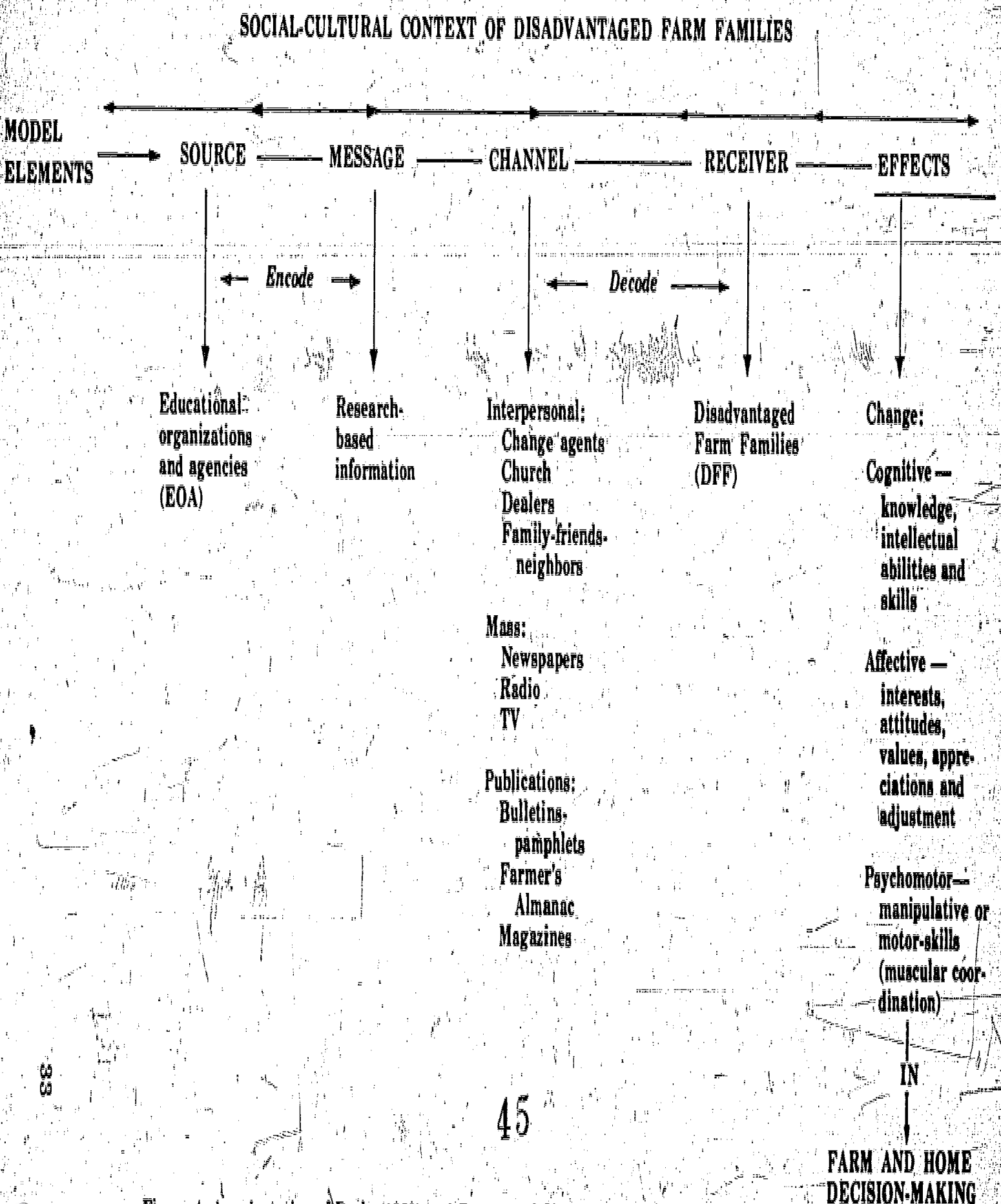


Figure 4. An adaptation of Berlo (1960) and Rogers and Shoemaker's (1971) communication models

Although the disadvantaged have access to a great variety of electrical and printed channels of communication, the interpersonal channel is probably the most important to them (Wilkening, 1952; Rogers and Beal, 1957; Weller, 1966; Anderson and Niemi, 1969).

Weller (1966) offered the following argument to explain why interpersonal relations are particularly important to the disadvantaged individual. According to Weller, this individual is generally person-oriented, rather than object-oriented; that is, he/she strives to be a person within a group, to be liked, accepted, and noticed. Life goals are achieved with relation to other persons and are a product of participation in the group. Such an orientation stems from the limited achievement and advancement opportunities available to members of the disadvantaged culture—restrictions that force people back into themselves to find the rewards of life.

The receiver is the fourth element in the communication model. The receiver (DFF) is the target audience for whom the message is intended and who must decode the message. Just as communication skills, attitudes, and knowledge influence the way in which EOA encode messages, they also influence the way in which DFF decode those messages.

As a result of their social-cultural context, the disadvantaged are generally perceived as having poor communication skills. Their low levels of education, their lack of vocabulary and their emphasis on the concrete and physical (rather than the abstract) combine to prevent them from developing adequacy in written and verbal expression.

Disadvantaged farm families' attitude toward themselves and the larger society affects the way that DFF decode messages. Considering first the attitude of the disadvantaged toward themselves, the disadvantaged characteristically have low self-concepts (Anderson and Niemi, 1969; Sneden, 1970). Their dependency, habits of submission, lack of verbal facility, lack of skills and knowledge, and their early experience of failure in school all contribute to that poor self-concept. As for attitudes toward the larger society, the disadvantaged, as mentioned earlier, exhibit considerable distrust and hostility to the authority and power residing there. In addition, the disadvantaged as contrasted with the advantaged generally have higher rates of anomia and more feelings of powerlessness (Meir and Bell, 1959; Bell, 1975).

The amount of knowledge that DFF possess is a factor affecting the decoding patterns. Obviously, the greater the knowledge the greater their ability to correctly decode messages. It is to be expected that the low levels of education among the disadvantaged and their lack of exposure would cause their knowledge level to be narrow (relative to that of individuals in the larger society).

Social-cultural context of DFF is also a factor that affects their communication behavior. Figure 4 reflects the communication process as occurring within the social-cultural context. People from different cultural backgrounds communicate differently, which, in turn, exerts a great influence on the effect of the message. This study maintains that the disadvantaged exist in a social-cultural context of the poverty subculture; that members of that subculture are characterized by distinct social, psychological, political and economic characteristics. When a source outside the poverty subculture attempts to communicate with the disadvantaged, social-cultural barriers may arise that impede communication. There is reason to believe that the social-cultural context of DFF predisposes them to reject new information and practices, i.e., to be "laggards."

The final element of the communication model is the effect of the message on DFF in farm and home decision-making. More specifically, does the message transmitted by EOA result in some change (cognitive, affective, psychomotor) or overt behavior of DFF? Do DFF, for example, accept and put into practice research-based information when making farm and home decisions?

The Concept of Linkage

In communicating, DFF deal with information that may or may not be closely linked to a research base. The term "linkage" is used to refer to the distance separating the information sources used by DFF from a research-based information source.

In researching the linkage between interpersonal and research-based information sources among DFF, the focus of this study was on the interpersonal media, a media established earlier as being extremely important to the disadvantaged. Lee (1970) indicated that personal sources of information seem to offer the best means of effective educational communication with disadvantaged farmers. Unfortunately, interpersonal relationships do not always bring about an exchange of research-based information. In fact, information communicated through interpersonal channels may be far removed from a research-based source and irrelevant as a basis for rational decision-making.

The concepts of homophily and heterophily are of major importance in understanding the flow of communication through the interpersonal channel. Homophily refers to the degree to which interacting pairs of individuals possess the same beliefs, values, education, social status, and other such attributes. Heterophily refers to the degree to which interacting pairs of individuals are different in particular attributes. Rogers and Shoemaker (1971, p. 4) tied those concepts to communication when they wrote that "one of the obvious principles of human communication is that the transfer of ideas occurs most frequently between a source and a destination who are . . . homophilic"; that is, the individual tends to interact with an individual whose attributes are nearest his own. When individuals break the homophily boundary and attempt communication with others who are quite different from themselves, they often experience ineffective communication. Schramm (1965, p. 6) interpreted the problem as one in which messages are encoded in one context and decoded in another, describing the problem by constructing the diagram shown in Figure 5.

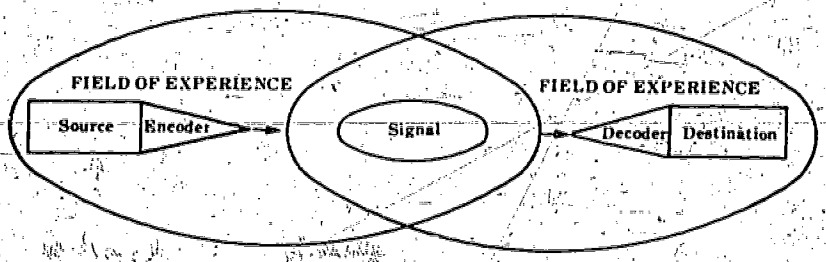


Figure 5. Diagram illustrating the difficulties involved in cross-cultural communication (Schramm, 1965)

Schramm maintained that for communication to occur, the source-encoder and the destination-decoder (Figure 5) must be in tune; i.e., the source-encoder and the receiver-decoder are not "in tune" when they have different "fields of experience." Schramm (1965, p. 6) explained his diagram of cross-cultural communication as follows:

> The source can encode, and the destination can decode only in terms of the experience each has had. If we have never learned any Russian, we can neither code nor decode in that language. If an African tribesman has never seen or heard of an airplane, he can only decode the sight of a plane in terms of whatever experience he has had. The plane may seem to him to be a bird, and the aviator a god borne on wings. If the circles have a large area in common, then communication is easy. If the circles do not meet—if there has been no common experience—then communication is impossible. If the circles have only a small area in common—that is, if the experiences of source and destination have been strikingly unlike—then it is going to be very difficult to get an intended meaning across from one to the other.

It is the contention of this study that differences in social, economic, psychological, and political characteristics make the fields of experience of the poor and the larger society widely divergent (and thus heterophilic). Daniel (1968, p. 29) pointed out the differences in those fields of experience:

> In one set of experiences one has three balanced meals per day and in the other one is lucky to get one daily plate of beans and a piece of bread. One has individual beds, and the other has to share a bed with two sisters and a brother. One goes in for regular medical and dental check-ups, whereas the other views a doctor's bill as missed meals; two or more months before you get a cheap, new pair of shoes; and one more month behind on the light bill.

Because of the heterophilic relationship between the poverty subculture and the larger society, formidable barriers exist to the communication and diffusion of innovations. That situation has led to the use of "change agents" who, according to Spicer (1952, p. 15), are "a new kind of specialist . . . in spreading knowledge and practice beyond the small world of the college-educated."

Change agents attempt to alter traditional ways by demonstrating the advantages of putting into practice recent innovative discoveries. However, heterophily exists when the change agent interacts with the disadvantaged subculture. A cultural gap leading to communication barriers arises wherein additional communication sources are needed to transfer information to the disadvantaged audience. "Opinion leaders" most often constitute the additional communication sources involved in the transfer of information to a target audience. The characteristics of opinion leaders are well defined in the relevant literature, except for the issue of social status. Some writers (Katz, 1957, Engel *et al.*, 1968) maintain that opinion leaders are of the same social status as those they influence. Others (Rogers, 1962) argue that opinion leaders are of a higher social status. The concept of linkage was used in this study to examine to what extent additional communication sources cause the disadvantaged to be separated from research-based sources of information. The concept was also used as the basis for comparing the characteristics of interpersonal sources of information (opinion leaders) with those of DFF.

For purposes of this study, linkage is defined as the actual chain of interpersonal relations that facilitates the transfer or relay of information from a source to a destination, as illustrated in Figure 6. The linkage model

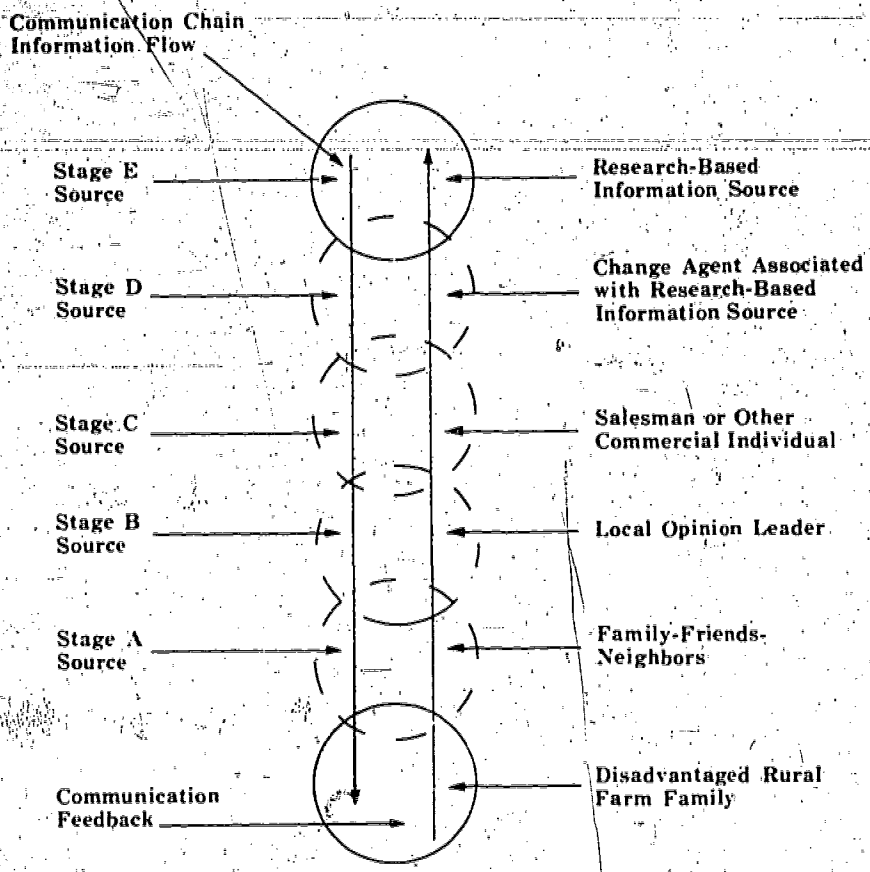


Figure 6. Schematic diagram of possible linkage between a research-based information source and the disadvantaged farm family

represents those communication sources, or links, that may be involved in passing information from the research-based source of DFF (Figure 6). The word "may" is emphasized since not all of the sources indicated by the broken circles need be involved. In fact, in some instances the information may be transferred directly from the research-based source to the disadvantaged. In other situations, two, three, or other combinations of sources may be involved in the relay. The model was developed to facilitate an understanding of the concept of linkage and not to represent its actual occurrence. Allport and Postman (1947) contended that after five or six transmissions a message loses a large percentage of its details.

These four concepts discussed in this section—poverty, decision-making, communication, and linkage—served as the bases from which were generated the objectives and design of this study.

B. METHODOLOGY

The methodology used in achieving the purposes and objectives of the research study is described in this section. Methods and procedures presented herein are those used in: (1) designing the research, (2) identifying the disadvantaged area, (3) designing the data collection instruments, (4) collecting the data, and (5) analyzing the data.

1. Research Design

The survey method of research design was utilized to seek answers to the study's six objectives. According to Hyman (1955), there are two types of survey research—descriptive and explanatory. The descriptive survey focuses upon obtaining precise measurements of one or more dependent variables in some defined population. In brief, it deals with the proper conceptualization of a given phenomenon to be examined. The explanatory survey is used to arrive at generalizations concerning relationships between variables by making quantitative comparisons of the data gathered; i.e., (Hyman, 1955, p. 80) "the findings of descriptive surveys are a guide to theorizing in explanatory surveys." Both types of survey research were utilized in this project.

In addition, the research technique of content analysis was employed in seeking answers to the research objectives. The purpose of content analysis is to classify and quantify unstructured material—in this instance, kinds of major farm and home decisions made by disadvantaged farm families (DFF) —and attempt to analyze its relationship to the stated research objectives. To accomplish this, certain categories must be designed on the basis of the relationships of the objectives to the content; the content then is classified or coded according to the designed categories. Such was the case in this research in categorizing the kinds of decisions made by DFF.

2. Identifying the Disadvantaged Area for Study

The disadvantaged area in North Carolina delineated for this study evolved from a special analysis of North Carolina counties prepared by the North Carolina Economic Development Office. On July 14, 1971, the office released an announcement identifying 33 counties in North Carolina as being eligible for participation in the Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965 (EDA) funds under Titles I and IV. Figure 7 shows the location of the counties identified as eligible for such funds under the two titles.

Whereas Title I of the EDA dealt with "Grants for Public Works and Development Facilities," Title IV focused on "Area and District Eligibility for Redevelopment Areas." Title IV provided the basis for identifying the area of major concentration of North Carolina DFF included in this study.

Area Selection Criteria

Title IV, Part A, Sec. 401, of the EDA of 1965, as amended, identified seven criteria to be utilized in designating "redevelopment areas." The seven criteria were constructed from certain socioeconomic characteristics that undergirded the concept of disadvantaged and served as the basis for constructing the criteria. The seven criteria for area selection identified in Title IV were (Public Works, 1971, pp. 11-12):

1. Those areas where there has existed substantial and persistent unemployment for an extended period of time and those areas in which there has

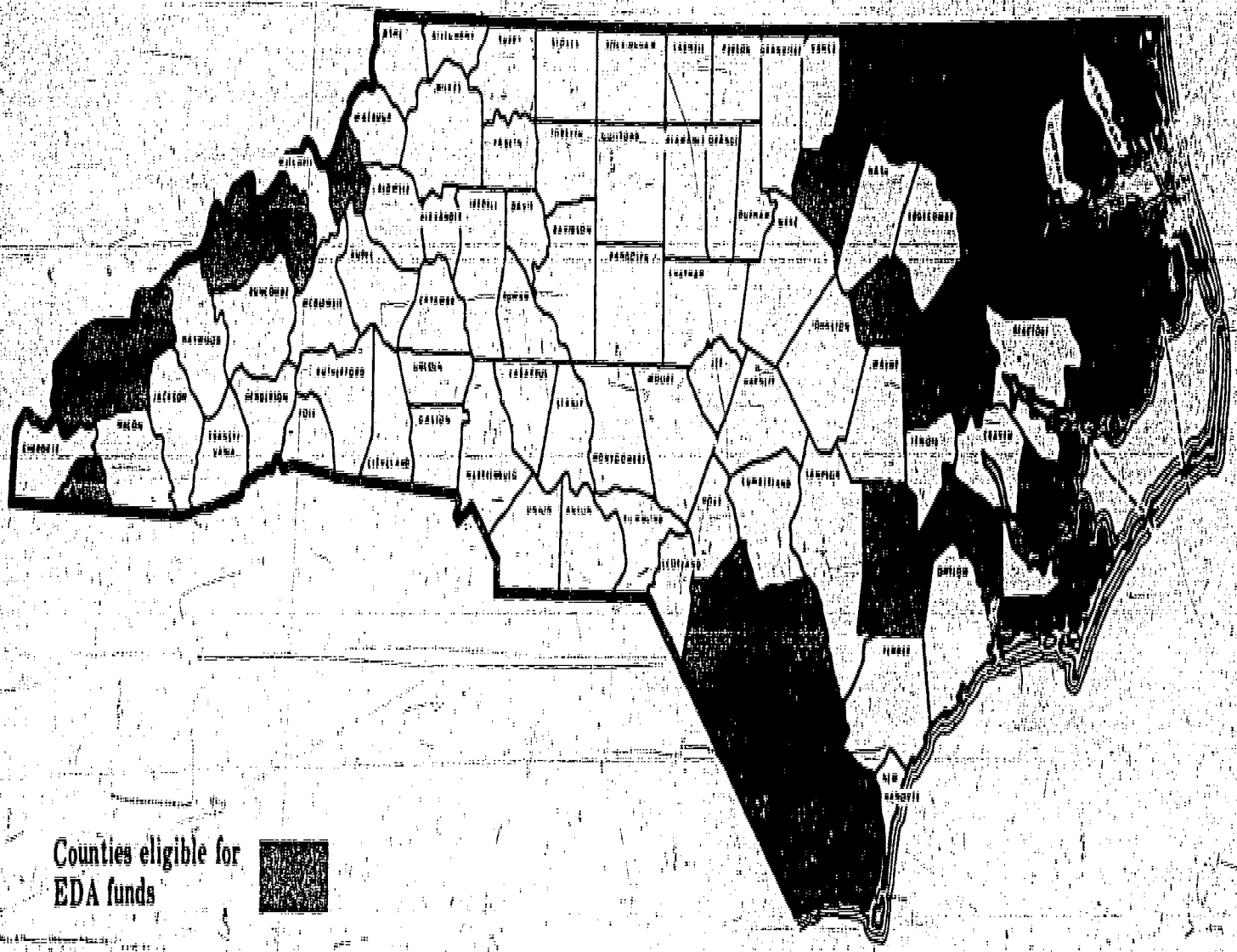


Figure 7. North Carolina counties eligible for participation in the North Carolina Economic Development Act, July 14, 1971

been a substantial loss of population due to lack of employment opportunity;

2. Those additional areas which have a median family income not in excess of 50 per centum of the national median, as determined by the most recent available statistics for such areas;

3. Those additional Federal or State Indian Reservations or trust or restricted Indian-owned land areas with greatest degree of economic distress on the basis of unemployment and income statistics and other appropriate evidence of economic underdevelopment.

4. Those additional areas which the loss, removal, curtailment, or closing of a major source of employment has caused within three years prior to, or threatens to cause within three years after, the date of the request an unusual and abrupt rise in unemployment rate for the area to the time of the request exceeds the national average, or can reasonably be expected to exceed the national average, by 50 per centum or more unless assistance is provided.

5. Additional areas which were designated redevelopment areas under the Area Development Act on or after March 1, 1965: "Provided, however," that the continued eligibility of such areas after the first annual review of eligibility conducted in accordance with Section 402 of this Act, "Annual Review of Area Eligibility," shall be dependent on their qualification for designation under the standards of economic need set forth in the "Annual Review of Area Eligibility Criteria."

6. Those communities or neighborhoods (defined without regard to political or other subdivisions or boundaries) which have one of the following conditions: (a) a large concentration of low-income persons; (b) rural areas having substantial outmigration; (c) substantial unemployment; or (d) an actual or threatened abrupt rise of unemployment due to the closing or curtailment of a major source of employment.

7. Those areas where per capita employment has declined significantly during the preceding ten-year period for which appropriate statistics are available.

Figure 7 shows that 23 of the 34 counties eligible for EDA funds were located in the Coastal Plains area of North Carolina, with the greatest concentration in northeastern North Carolina and within 13 continguous counties. Thus the area with the greatest concentration of DFF was in northeastern North Carolina. Based on this assumption and the criteria employed by the North Carolina EDA office in identifying counties eligible for EDA funds, northeastern North Carolina was selected as the area to be treated in this study. The next decision was how to select the counties located within the area to be included in the study.

Pilot County Selection

To locate the specific counties in northeastern North Carolina to be included in the study, a rigorous set of 15 criteria was developed to guide in county selection. These criteria, developed in 1971, were based on socioeconomic variables considered relevant for DFF, and formed the basis on which the three target counties—Bertie, Halifax, and Northampton—were selected for study. These criteria specified that an eligible county have (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1960)[1]:

1. Thirty-three percent or more families with income below the Social

[1] The 1960 Census data were the most recent available at the time the criteria were developed.

Security Administration poverty cut-off.

2. An estimated median family income of less than 74 percent of the U.S. county standard.

3. Fifty percent or more of families characterized as poor.

4. Total unemployment higher than the national level.

5. Median years of education completed by those 25 and over to be less than the national median level of 10.6 years.

6. Twenty percent or more of its total population 25 and over with less than 5 years of schooling.

7. Fifty percent or more of its housing units lacking some or all plumbing facilities or dilapidated.

8. Seventy-five percent or more of its population residing in rural areas.

9. Fifty percent or more of the total population non-white.

10. Twenty-five percent or more housing units with more than 1.01 persons per room.

11. Twenty percent or more of children under 18 years of age living in broken homes.

12. Thirty percent or more of its total labor force in agriculture.

13. Percentage of practicing physicians per 100,000 population less than the national norm.

14. Percentage of infant deaths per 100,000 live births greater than the national norm.

15. An estimated 12 percent or more of out-migration between 1960 and 1970.

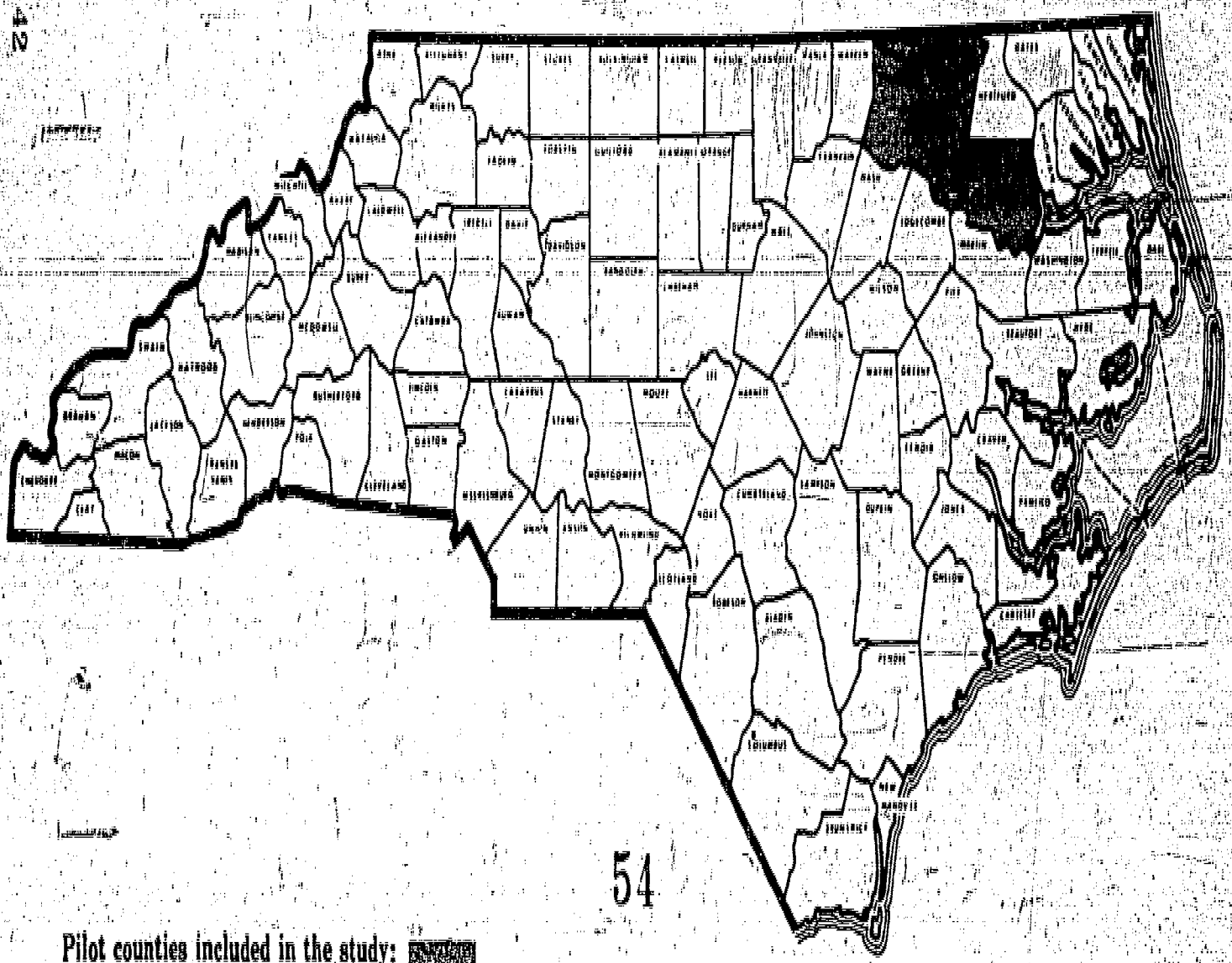
Based on these 15 criteria and eligibility of counties for EDA funds, data were compiled for 12 counties located in northeastern North Carolina—Bertie, Camden, Currituck, Dare, Gates, Halifax, Hertford, Hyde, Northampton, Perquimans, Tyrrell, and Washington. When the 12 counties were ranked on the basis of the 15 criteria, Bertie, Halifax, and Northampton fell in the upper quartile. Fourteen of the 15 criteria were met by Bertie and Northampton counties and 13 by Halifax county. Figure 8 shows the location of the three counties included in the study.

3. Population and Sample

A DFF was defined as a man, wife, and children (if any) domiciled together and meeting the criteria of: (1) farming a production unit of 10 acres or more from which total receipts were $50 or more annually, or farming a production unit of 9 acres or less from which a total annual return of $250 or more was realized; and (2) having an income below the eligibility standard set in 1972 for the North Carolina Social Services Food Stamp Program (i.e., $4,320 per year for a family of four).

Since 95 percent of the total universe of farms in the three selected counties were included on the rolls of the Agricultural Stabilization and Conservation Service (ASCS), assistance was requested from that agency in drawing the sample for the project. County ASCS office managers in the three target counties supplied a list of all farmers who were farming 50 acres or less in their respective counties. This list included the names of 1200 farmers in Bertie County, 1460 in Halifax County, and 460 in Northampton County. The ASCS office manager and personnel in each county assisted in purging the list of names known not to meet criteria established for the project.

Permission to involve personnel from the North Carolina Department of



Pilot counties included in the study: Bertie, Halifax, and Northampton

Figure 8. Location of North Carolina counties included in the study

Social Services was secured. The purged lists of names for the three counties then were taken to the Social Service Director in each of the counties. From each county list of purged names, the local Social Service Director identified all those who were currently participating in the Food Stamp Program; all those who at some time had participated in the program; and all those who had made application, but for some reason were not approved. This second purging netted 113 families in Bertie, 290 in Halifax, and 44 in Northampton as identified with the Food Stamp Program. Remaining on each county's purged ASCS list were persons who were not receiving food stamps, but farming 50 acres or less, which netted 191 for Bertie, 329 for Halifax, and 172 for Northampton. A stratified random sample of 25 food stamp recipient families and 25 nonrecipient families was drawn for each county from the two aforementioned lists. Cross-indexing the food stamp lists with the ASCS lists helped assure that at least 50 percent of the sample to be interviewed met the income criterion set for the project.

In addition to three county samples of 25 each from the food stamp and nonfood stamp lists, a back-up subsample also was drawn for Bertie and Halifax counties. The subsample in Northampton County was made up of the remaining 19 families in the total population of 44 for the county. These subsamples were to be used in case any of the original samples failed to meet the criteria after being subjected to screening questions. This proved to be the case in the field, and part of the subsample was used. A sample size of 150 DFF was thought to be all that time and resources would permit the project to undertake. Three criteria were developed to screen the population for income, size of farm, and family (man and wife domiciled together). Of the 294 DFF selected as possible subjects for the study, 130 DFF met all the criteria for participation in the study (see Appendix A, Schedule No. I, Section I, for screening questions).

The original design of the study contemplated an equal number of DFF in each of the three counties selected for study. As noted earlier, stratification of the sample on Social Service Food Stamp participants shifted the absolute frequency counts of qualified families. The final distribution of participating DFF by county is shown in Table 4. Rather than having exactly one-third of the respondents in each county, Bertie had 32 percent; Halifax, 43 percent; and Northampton, 25 percent of the respondent DFF in the final sample population.

Table 4. Distribution of respondent disadvantaged farm families, by county

County	DFF	
	N	%
Bertie	42	32
Halifax	56	43
Northampton	32	25
Total	130	100

The linkage phase of the study required a separate subpopulation and sample. The subpopulation consisted of the 91 respondents (62 disadvantaged farm operators and 29 disadvantaged homemakers) who cited the name of a person who provided them with information used in making an important decision during the past year. A random sample of 29 farm operators and 18

homemakers was selected from that population to serve as the bench mark from which to trace the linkage between interpersonal sources of information used in making farm and home decisions and research-based information sources.

4. Designing the Research Instrument

A research instrument, specifically designed for this study, was used to obtain data regarding the six previously stated research objectives: (1) characteristics of DFF; (2) kinds of decisions made by DFF; (3) rationality of the DFF's decision-making process; (4) the availability, usage and credibility of media and information sources; (5) the linkage between information sources DFF used in making decisions and research-based information sources; and (6) the relationship of selected sociopsychological variables to rationality in decision-making, to availability, usage, and credibility of media, and to degree of linkage between information sources. A copy of the research instrument appears in Appendix A. A description of that instrument follows.

Characteristics of Disadvantaged Farm Families

Selected characteristics (sociocultural, psychological, and political characteristics of individuals and socioeconomic characteristics of family units) were used in attempting to characterize the DFF who comprised the study population. Those characteristics were: **sociocultural**—age, education, employment status, social participation, and years of residence on present farm; **psychological**—anomie and present/future value orientation; **political**—registered to vote, voted in 1972 election, and know elected representatives; and **socioeconomic**—ethnic background, income, level of living, family health index, number in household, type of household, tenure arrangements, and years in present tenure arrangements. Most of these characteristics were measured by simple "yes" or "no" responses. However, the measurement of level of living, family health index, social participation, anomie, and present/future value orientation required more sophisticated instrumentation.

The level-of-living index was developed by giving a score of 1 to the DFF for having each of the following items (in working condition): electric or gas stove, electric or gas refrigerator, cold running water in the house, hot running water in the house, bath or shower, kitchen sink, vacuum cleaner, washing machine, window air conditioner, home freezer, sewing machine, television, radio, and telephone. An additional 1 point each was given if the family received these items regularly: daily newspaper, weekly newspaper, farm magazine, and other weekly or monthly magazines. One point was given if there were more rooms in the house than there were members of the family. A maximum score of 21 was possible. Data were collapsed by placing approximately equal numbers of DFF into each of three categories: low = 4-9; medium = 10-14; and high = 15-19.

The family health index quantified the health of the family and the health care that it received. This 17-question index gathered information regarding handicaps, illnesses and dental problems, medical and dental treatment, health insurance, and the amount of money spent annually on family health. Depending on the context of the question, responses were scored as either "1," "2," or "3." Data were collapsed by placing approximately equal num-

bers of DFF into each of three categories: low = 0-3, medium = 4-6, and high = 7-9.

The Moon-McCann (1966) variation of Chapin's (1928) social participation scale was used to measure social participation. The scaling procedure called for assigning a score of "1" for each membership in an organization, "2" for each organization in which one-fourth or more of the meetings were attended, and "3" for each office or committee post held. Thus, any farm operator or homemaker could earn a maximum score of "6" for any one organization in which they participated. The total scores could range from zero to 36. Three levels were established—low = 0-11, medium = 12-26, and high = 27-36.

The Moon-McCann (1965) adaptation of the Guttman-type anomie scale developed by Srole (1956) was used to measure anomie. Six statements were posed to the respondents, with responses scored: agree = 1, don't know = 2, and disagree = 3. The minimum possible score was "6," with a possible maximum of "18." The lower the score the higher the level of anomie or normlessness. Three levels of anomie were established—low = 14-18, medium = 10-13, and high = 6-9.

The instrumentation to measure present/future value orientation was adapted from Rosen (1956), who measured time values with a series of carefully worded statements designed to ascertain an individual's specific time orientation. Seven of Rosen's statements were adapted to provide a present/future value orientation scale. The question of response set (Kerlinger, 1964) was considered, and five of the seven questions asked (1, 3, 4, 5, and 6) were designed to be answered negatively to offset the tendency to agree or disagree systematically with items, regardless of content. The two remaining questions were developed to be answered positively. Scoring in the interviews was based on: Agree = 1; Uncertain = 2; and Disagree = 3 for negatively worded items. For positively worded items the scoring was based on: Agree = 3; Uncertain = 2; and Disagree = 1. The scoring limits for the responses were 7 and 21. The higher the score the greater the future value orientation. Scores were grouped into Low = 7-12; Medium = 13-16; and High = 17-21 categories.

Kinds of Decisions Made by Disadvantaged Farm Families

Drawing from the literature on farm and home management, a comprehensive tentative classification of farm and home decisions was generated and defined (categories and definitions were finalized only after careful pretesting of the data collection instrument). After establishing and defining the tentative decision categories, two tasks remained: establishing and defining the final categories and determining the reliability and validity of the categories.

Determination of the final categories required that data be generated and analyzed. Those data were generated through a field test procedure that had each farm operator (husband) and homemaker (wife) interviewed state two or three of the most important decisions made in farming or homemaking during the past 12 months. From the two or three decisions identified, respondents were asked to cite the one most important decision.

A randomized sample of the one most important farm and home decision cited by the respondents in the pretesting of the instrument allowed the tentative categories of decisions to be refined into final categories to be used in identifying the kinds of decisions made by DFF. The resulting farm and

home decision categories and the definition of each appear in Appendix B, No. I.

Using the revised definitions for each category, a panel of judges comprised of knowledgeable individuals coded a random sample of both farm and home decisions; the research team also coded the sample. A comparison of the categorization of the panel with that of the research team is shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Judges' agreement with research team's categorization of sample farm and home decisions

Judges	Agreement, %	
	Farm Decisions	Home Decisions
A	85.8	85.8
B	71.6	100.0
C	85.8	85.8
D	85.8	85.8
Total	82.3	89.4

Average = 85.8%

One judge categorized all the home sample of decisions exactly as did the research team. His categorizations of farm decisions varied most widely, with 71.6 percent agreement. Agreement with home decisions was higher (89.4 percent) than with farm decisions (82.3 percent), for an average agreement of 85.8 percent. This high level of congruence supported the claim that the definitions for categories used were both reliable and valid. (See Berelson, 1952, pp. 169-174, for procedures on validating categories in content analysis.)

Rationality of Decision-Making

At the time this study was conducted, to the researchers' knowledge no data had been gathered to study the rationality of the decisions made by DFF. To obtain a consistent measure of the RDM of DFF, a heuristic standard was developed. Within the framework of the decision-making schema, synthesized earlier and based on descriptors suggested by Rieck and Pulver (1962) and Schomaker and Thorpe (1963), a set of criteria were developed to provide a basis for measuring the rationality of the process of decision-making as conceptualized herein.

To reiterate, rationality, as used in this study, is a measure of the process or means used to reach goals. As indicated earlier, the DFF decision-making process consisted of a series of actions consisting of the five subprocesses of orientation, observation, analysis, implementation, and feedback and adjustment. Rationality was measured by ascertaining a score from respondents to a series of questions which quantified conformity to those subprocesses.

In posing the series of questions regarding rationality, the procedure suggested by Ramsey *et al.* (1959) was adopted. Those researchers concluded that each question might better be oriented around the adoption or evaluation of specific practices. Adapting that idea, two introductory questions were developed to focus interviewees on specific decisions made. The first question was: "What are two or three of the most important farm (home) decisions that you have made during the past 12 months?" The second was: "Of these decisions, which one do you consider to be the most important one you had to make?"

The most important farm/home decision became the central idea around

which the rationality scale questions were directed. Those questions were derived from an investigation of relevant literature and then refined by extensive field testing with some 75 DFF. The scale was reduced to 12 items. Items 1-3 tested for conformity to the subprocess of orientation, 4-6 for observation, 7-9 for analysis, and 10-12 for feedback and adjustment. Items 1-12 tested for implementation of the specific decision cited by farm operators and homemakers. Thus, no separate items were required to test for implementation. The items were assumed to be unidimensional; that is, all measured the same thing—RDM.

To contend with the possibility of a response set, 4 of the 12 questions (numbers 3, 6, 10, and 12) were designed to be answered negatively. The eight remaining questions were developed to be answered positively. A third response, "don't know," was included so that respondents need not be forced in either a positive or negative direction. Values assigned to RDM scale responses were: positively worded — 3 = yes, 2 = don't know, and 1 = no; negatively worded — 3 = no, 2 = don't know, and 1 = yes. The "don't know" responses were counted as "no responses" when the data were collapsed. The resultant scale was constructed so that the respondents who answered with the appropriate eight "yes" answers and appropriate four "no" answers would received a maximum (high) rationality score of 36. Since both farm and home responses were assumed to vary independently from least to most rational, it was possible to obtain rationality indices ranging from a low of 12 to a high of 36.

To test the validity of the RDM scale, the collected data were subjected to factor analysis, using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS, Service, 1972) procedures, which include the Kaiser varimax rotation and criterion (Service, 1972). Correlation matrices for the RDM items for farm operators and homemakers appear in Appendix C, Table 1. The factor analysis served a twofold purpose: first, it served to check on the *a priori* assignment of items to the scale and, second, it provided the framework for determining the eigenvalues, or measure of the amount of variability due to each designated factor.

One of the distinguishable bases for determining the number of significant factors in a scale is to consider all those factors that meet the statistical criterion of an eigenvalue greater than 1.00 (Kaiser, 1960). As a result of both the farm operators' and homemakers' RDM scale factor analyses, five factors emerged with critical eigenvalues of more than the discriminatory constant 1.00 (Appendix C, Table 2). These five factors were consistent in explaining 60 percent of the variation of the farm operators' RDM scale and 61 percent of the variation in the homemakers' RDM scale (Appendix C, Table 2). In this exercise, to amplify variation in loading and to identify defining items, each item was rotated in factor space (Appendix C, Tables 3 and 4). Items then were ranked, and those that clustered toward the top end of the scores were used to define the factors (Rummel, 1970).

A detailed comparison was made of these grouped items with the conceptual framework derived for this study. The comparison revealed that factor analysis had highlighted factors fairly close to the original four processes, plus one additional factor. Combining the defining items identified for both farm operators and homemakers revealed that two of the six defining items for factor 1 were identified conceptually with the anslysis subprocess of the RDM scale. Another descriptive term for these items might be "time."

For factor 2, three of the five defining items were part of the study obser-

vation subprocess. Descriptively, these items might also be termed "outside help."

Factor 3 also was defined by three of the four items. These three items conformed to the study feedback and adjustment subprocess, and might also be termed "involvement."

Factor 4, identified as explaining some 10 percent of the scale variations for both farm operators' and homemakers' RDM scale appeared to not conform to the conceptual design of the study, and was not anticipated. Logically, there appears to be merit in considering this factor as "time pressures." This factor is certainly an important yet poorly understood variable in RDM.

Finally, three of the four heavy loading items defining factor 5 were seen to conform to the study subprocess, orientation.

Thus, the factor analysis and resultant comparison gave support to the total RDM scale as it identified factors corresponding to each subprocess originally outlined for the study. Although the analysis established neither the unidimensionality of the scale nor that of the scale subprocesses, the results led to the conclusion that the scale, as designed, had merit as a heuristic instrument for measuring respondent RDM.

Reliability, or the capacity of an instrument to consistently measure the same or a similar set of objects and obtain the same or similar results, was not an objective of this study. The heuristic nature of the research instrument precluded any reliability testing. This must be left to later studies.

Communication Patterns

Examination of the communication patterns of DFF required measurement of the availability, usage, and credibility of media and of the information sources within those media. Availability was measured by the number of DFF having a working TV set or radio in the home and receiving daily newspapers, weekly newspapers, bulletins-pamphlets, the *Farmer's Almanac*, and magazines.

Usage was measured by asking each farm operator and homemaker to indicate the various sources they used in making a major decision.

A forced-choice technique was used to measure credibility of information sources. First, respondents were asked to choose what they perceived to be the most credible source in the mass media. Then they chose the most credible source in the publications media. Next, they chose the most credible source in the interpersonal media. Finally, they were asked to choose between the mass, publications, and interpersonal media the *one* source they perceived to be the most credible.

Linkage Patterns

In examining the information source linkage patterns of DFF, this research was designed to measure: (1) the degree of linkage DFF had with research-based information sources, (2) the trend toward heterophily in comparing DFF with their direct interpersonal source of information, and (3) the characteristics of persons who channel information to DFF.

To measure the extent to which information used by DFF was linked to research-based sources, this study first identified research-based sources, then traced the interpersonal sources that passed on information used by farm operators and homemakers in making important decisions.

To identify research-based information sources, a list of interpersonal sources was drafted and evaluated by a panel of seven judges. From the judges' responses, a number of sources were identified as either research-based or nonresearch-based (Appendix D).

To trace information sources, the respondent was asked to identify the name of his/her information source. Those persons cited by disadvantaged subjects as interpersonal information sources were traced through five stages (A, B, C, D and E).

The information generated by tracing the interpersonal information sources of the respondents also served to test for heterophilic relationships and to profile persons who channeled information to DFF.

The Relationships of Selected Sociopsychological Variables to RDM; To Availability, Usage, and Credibility of Media; and to Degree of Linkage Between Information Sources

The instrumentation for measuring the variables concerned with the study of relationships has been discussed in the preceeding pages.

5. Data Collection

Data for the research project were collected via personal interview from 157 DFF in the 3 counties during May, 1973. Prior to initiation of the survey, the local ASCS office in each county sent a letter to each family included in the sample notifying them that they had been selected to take part in the research study and requesting their cooperation. It was felt that such advance notice of the appearance of the interviewing teams would allay fears on the part of DFF of interference with current participation in any Social Services program (e.g., the Food Stamp Program). Such publicity also was viewed as allaying community leaders' concern that additional government programs might be implemented in their counties.

To expedite data collection, maps were secured from the three local ASCS offices to facilitate the location of each farm family selected for interviewing. The original ASCS list of names from which the sample was drawn included beside each name a key code that identified the location of each farm in the county. The county maps also included the same key code as shown on the list of names, thus making it possible for the researchers to transfer the location key code number from the list of names included in the sample to their respective location on the county maps.

Individual interviews of approximately one and one-half hours per farm family were conducted by 20 two-member interviewing teams. Assisting with the interviews were Extension administration personnel, Extension specialists, faculty from the Department of Adult and Community College Education, graduate research assistants assigned to the project, and county Extension agents from the Northeastern and North Central Extension districts. A formal, one-day training session was conducted with the interviewers prior to going into the field. The next three days were spent by these 20 teams interviewing in Bertie, Halifax, and Northampton counties.

Each team was assigned six to eight DFF to interview. To expedite time and travel, these families were all located within a specific target area in each county, and the approximate location was designated on the county map provided each team. Each team was responsible for locating and interviewing

all families assigned to them. A total of 157 DFF were interviewed.

After all interviews were completed, a single code number was assigned to each DFF. Each instrument then was carefully edited to assure that all questions had been answered, and that the codes were clearly interpretable for keypunch operators to transfer the data directly from the instrument to data-processing cards. Twenty-seven instruments were not accurately executed and were discarded from the study, leaving a total of 130 usable instruments.

All raw data were punched into cards before collapsing and categorization. The procedure was followed to accommodate current and future researchers who may wish to use the data. The data were keypunched and verified at the North Carolina State University Computing Center. After verification, the cards were listed for inspection. Following a careful inspection of the listing, the necessary changes were made to correct errors on the permanent data cards.

6. Data Analysis

Statistical procedures used to analyze data and present the findings included: (1) frequency distribution, (2) graphs, (3) chi-square analysis, (4) multiple regression, and (5) analysis of variance.

Processing of data and the statistical procedures were carried out at the Triangle Universities Computation Center using the SAS and Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The first procedure was screening to identify the target population as meeting the criteria for DFF, i.e., level of income, size of farm, and family.

Data analysis to meet the objectives of the study involved six stages conforming to the six research questions used to guide the study. Those stages were: (1) identification of the characteristics of the population; (2) kinds of decisions taken by DFF; (3) rationality of the decision-making process of DFF; (4) the availability, usage, and credibility of media and information sources within those media; (5) the degree of linkage between information sources used by DFF in making decisions and research-based information sources; and (6) the relationship of selected sociopsychological variables to rationality in decision-making; to availability, usage, and credibility of media; and to degree of linkage between information sources.

Characteristics of Disadvantaged Farm Families

The sociocultural, psychological, political, and socioeconomic characteristics used to describe DFF were grouped into tables. The corresponding frequency distributions and percentages were then used to describe family units, farm operators and homemakers by those characteristics.

Kinds of Decisions Made By Disadvantaged Farm Families

The measurement procedure for identifying the kinds of decisions made by DFF involved asking each respondent to indicate important decisions made during the past 12 months. Decisions were then coded into appropriate categories which were identified prior to data collection. Raw data then were grouped into frequency distributions and percentages for purposes of data analysis and presentation.

Rationality of Decision-Making

Rationality of decision-making, it will be recalled, was measured by a scale that quantified the degree to which the decision-making conformed to a process involving orientation, observation, analysis, implementation, and feedback and adjustment. The responses to the scale were tallied and scores were collapsed into low, medium, and high. Frequency distributions were used to develop descriptive information regarding farm operators and homemakers.

Communication Patterns

Relevant data were grouped into frequency distributions and percentages. Using these distributions, graphs were constructed to guide the analysis of data.

Linkage Patterns

Linkage patterns were examined by tracing the chains of interpersonal information sources used by farm operators and homemakers. The data regarding those chains were analyzed in the following manner. First, the number of chains separating the farm operator or homemaker from a research-based information source were counted and, based on that number, the degree of linkage was calculated and classified as follows:

1. **Closely linked**—Interpersonal information sources were traced through no more than two communication links (stages A and B) beyond the disadvantaged subjects before being linked to a research-based information source.
2. **Distantly linked**—Interpersonal information sources were traced to stage C beyond the disadvantaged subjects before being linked to a research-based information source.
3. **Not linked**—Interpersonal information sources either (a) were traced beyond stage C, (b) could not be traced for a specific reason, or (c) were traced to a nonresearch-based information source before reaching the fifth stage.

Frequency distribution tables were then constructed to illustrate the degree of linkage that characterized farm operators and homemakers.

Second, to test for heterophilic relationships, chi-square analysis was used to compare farm operators and homemakers with their direct source of information, and to compare the interpersonal sources that channeled information to farm operators and homemakers. The characteristics of those interpersonal sources were analyzed by the use of tables constructed according to frequency distributions.

The Relationship of Selected Sociopsychological Variables to Rationality in Decision-Making; to Availability, Usage, and Credibility of Media; and to Degree of Linkage of Information Sources

Data regarding the relationship between the selected variables and RDM were analyzed by the use of two multiple regression equations, one for farm operators and one for homemakers. Chi-square analysis was used to establish the statistical significance of relationships of the selected variables to availability, usage, and credibility of media. The relationships between

the selected variables and degree of linkage between information sources were tested by analysis of variance. A .10 level of significance was selected to test for relationships of selected variables to RDM. A .05 level of significance was selected to test for relationships of selected characteristics to media availability, usage, and credibility, and to degree of linkage.

7. Limitations

The press of time, the scarcity of resources, general circumstances, and, oftentimes, the absence of previous research to serve as a guide impose a set of limitations upon each and every research project. An exploratory study such as this is particularly vulnerable to many of the aforementioned forces. The following were the specific limitations of this study:

a. The number of counties included in the study was limited to those three in North Carolina that appeared to represent the most severe conditions of deprivation. No claim is made that the findings can be applied to other states, other counties, or other populations. However, where similar conditions exist, the extrapolation of the findings of this study is left to the discretion of the individual.

b. A cultural gap existed between the study interviewers and the respondents. As Mouly (1970) pointed out, the very presence of the interviewer will affect the response he gets. Obviously, the likelihood of that type of bias will be even greater when a cultural gap is present.

c. The population of this study was highly homogeneous. The resulting lack of variation might have influenced the tests of relationships.

d. A limited number of variables selected on the basis of a review of the literature and the experience of the researchers were used to test for relationships. There is no certainty that those were the most important variables.

e. The availability figures for bulletins-pamphlets and the *Farmer's Almanac* were estimates.

f. Usage was measured only with regard to one decision. Thus, discretion should be used in generalizing to usage patterns.

g. Because the measurement of credibility forced a ranking of the media/information sources, responses could be analyzed only in relative terms. That is, the data allowed observations to be made only with regard to the credibility of one particular media/information source relative to another. Thus, no conclusions were possible regarding absolute credibility.

h. The degree of linkage was measured only in the interpersonal media.

i. Certain interpersonal sources of information were identified as being research-based and were established as the single criterion in determining the degree of linkage. In actuality, there was no assurance that all information relayed by those sources was, in fact, research-based. Also, other individuals not included in the list of research-based information sources may have transferred research-based information to the disadvantaged receivers.

j. The number of decisions traced in studying linkage patterns was small. Only 47 disadvantaged subjects who cited interpersonal information sources were traced.

C. RESULTS

This section presents the results of the various analyses of data. The presentation was guided by the previously stated study objectives. These

objectives sought to determine:

1. Who are the disadvantaged farm families (DFF) and what are their characteristics?
2. What kinds of major farm and home decisions are DFF making?
3. How rational are the decision-making processes utilized by DFF in making decisions?
4. What communication media are available to DFF? What are the major sources of information utilized by DFF in making farm and home decisions? What credibility do DFF assign to their information sources?
5. What is the linkage between interpersonal information sources used in making farm and home decisions and research-based information sources?
6. What is the relationship between selected sociopsychological variables and the: (a) degree of rationality in decision-making; (b) availability, usage, and credibility of media (i.e., interpersonal, mass, and publications) and the information sources within those media; and (c) degree of linkage between interpersonal information sources used and research-based information sources?

An interpretation of data analysis results for each of the six aforementioned objectives are discussed in the sections that follow.

1. Who Are the Disadvantaged Farm Families and What Are Their Characteristics?

Answers to objective 1 are generated from a sample of 130 disadvantaged farm families. Information on the characteristics of those families was gathered by the personal data section of the interview schedule. Characteristics used to describe DFF were grouped into social, psychological, political and socioeconomic categories. The personal data section of the interview schedule yielded information on both individual farm operators/homemakers and family units. Tables 6, 7, and 8 show the social, psychological, and political characteristics of disadvantaged farm operators and homemakers of the family units.

Profiles of the Typical Disadvantaged Farm Operator and Homemaker

The aforementioned social, psychological, and political characteristics of disadvantaged farm operators and homemakers were used to generate profiles of the respondents.

The characteristics of the disadvantaged farm operators and homemakers were strickingly similar and, thus, are presented simultaneously. With regard to social characteristics (Table 6), they were an older population (the mean age of farm operators was 53 years, that of homemakers, 50. Only 5 percent of the farm operators and 8 percent of the homemakers were under 35 years old). They had low levels of educational attainment (farm operators had completed a mean of 5.9 grades, homemakers, 8.4 grades. Only 25 percent of farm operators as compared to 64 percent of the homemakers had completed more than 8 grades; 36 percent and 8 percent, respectively, had no more than a fourth grade education). Further, they: devoted the greatest part of their energies to the farm (61 percent of the farm operators worked full time on the farm, and 72 percent of the homemakers kept house full time); tended not to participate in organizations (of a possible score of 36 the mean social participation score was only 6.7 for farm operators, and 7.7 for homemakers,

Table 6. Frequency distribution of social characteristics of disadvantaged farm operators and homemakers

Social Characteristic	Farm Operators		Homemakers	
	N	%	N	%
Age, year[1]:				
25-34	7	5	10	8
35-44	26	15	32	24
45-54	43	33	38	29
55-64	40	31	40	31
65 or over	20	16	10	8
Total	130	100	130	100
Education, grade[2]:				
4 or less	46	36	10	8
5-7	51	39	36	28
8 or more	33	25	84	64
Total	130	100	130	100
Employment status:				
Work off farm full time (40 hrs/week or more)	14	11	17	13
Work off farm part time (less than 40 hrs/week)	23	18	15	12
Work on farm full time	77	61	1	1
Out of work and looking for non-farm employment	0	0	1	1
Keep house	1	1	92	72
Go to school	0	0	0	0
Unable to work	8	6	1	1
Retired	4	3	0	0
Total	127	100	127	100
Social participation score[3]:				
Low = 0-11	106	81	100	77
Medium = 12-26	23	18	30	23
High = 27-36	1	1	0	0
Total	130	100	130	100
Residence on present farm, year:				
4 or less	11	8	13	10
5-9	16	12	17	13
10-19	32	25	34	26
20-29	29	22	33	25
30 or more	42	32	33	25
Total	130	100	130	100

[1] Mean age: farm operator = 53; homemaker = 50.
[2] Mean grade completed: farm operator = 5.9; homemaker = 8.1.
[3] Mean social participation score: farm operator = 6.7; homemaker = 7.7.

Table 7. Frequency distribution of psychological characteristics of disadvantaged farm operators and homemakers

Psychological Characteristic	Farm Operators		Homemakers	
	N	%	N	%
Anomie score:				
High = 6-9	68	52	60	46
Medium = 10-13	41	33	58	45
Low = 14-18	21	15	12	9
Total	130	100	130	100
Present/future value orientation score:				
Low = 7-12	41	32	42	32.5
Medium = 13-16	46	35	42	32.5
High = 17-21	43	33	46	35.0
Total	130	100	130	100.0

with 79 percent of the farm operators and 95 percent of the homemakers scoring in the lowest social participation category); and were immobile (54 percent of the farm operators and 50 percent of the homemakers had lived on their present farm for over 20 years).

Psychological characteristics of DFF examined in this study were anomie and present/future value orientation. A high percentage of both farm operators (85 percent) and homemakers (91 percent) were moderately to highly anomic (Table 7). As for present/future value orientation, almost equal numbers of farm operators and homemakers fell into each of the three categories—low, medium, and high—with high being the most future-oriented.

As for political characteristics, Table 8 shows that the farm operator and homemaker are registered to vote and, indeed, do vote (73 percent of the farm operators and 74 percent of the homemakers were registered to vote in the 1972 election, and 60 percent of the farm operators and 59 percent of the homemakers did vote). However, they are not knowledgeable about their elected representatives (a large majority did not know the names of their elected representatives).

Table 8. Frequency distribution of political characteristics of disadvantaged farm operators and homemakers

Political Characteristic	Farm Operators		Homemakers	
	N	%	N	%
Registered to vote:				
Yes	95	73	96	74
No	35	27	34	26
Total	130	100	130	100
Voted in 1972 election:				
Yes	78	60	77	59
No	23	18	32	25
Not applicable	29	22	21	16
Total	130	100	130	100

Table 8. (Continued)

Political Characteristic	Farm Operators		Homemakers	
	N	%	N	%
Know elected representatives:				
County commissioners				
Yes	23	18	16	12
No	107	82	114	88
Total	130	100	130	100
North Carolina House				
Yes	8	6	4	3
No	122	94	126	97
Total	130	100	130	100
North Carolina Senate				
Yes	8	6	11	8
No	122	94	119	92
Total	130	100	130	100

Table 9. Frequency distribution of socioeconomic characteristics of disadvantaged farm families

Socioeconomic Characteristic	Families	
	N	%
Ethnic background:		
Black	109	84
White	16	12
Indian (native American)	5	4
Total	130	100
Income (total household):		
$1,000-2,999	68	52
$3,000-5,999	50	39
$6,000-9,999	11	8
$10,000 or more	1	1
Total	130	100
Family living index score:		
Low = 4-9	39	30
Medium = 10-14	42	32
High = 15-19	49	38
Total	130	100
Health index score:		
Low = 0-3	92	71
Medium = 4-6	36	28
High = 7-9	2	1
Total	130	100

Table 9. (Continued)

Socioeconomic Characteristic	Families	
	N	%
Size of family[1]:		
2	24	19
3	19	15
4	17	13
5	13	10
6	14	11
7	10	7
8	15	12
9	12	9
10 or more	5	4
Total	130	100
Type of household:		
Nuclear family[2]	70	54
Grandparents and grandchildren	8	6
Grandparents, grandchildren, and parents	9	7
Husband and wife	26	20
Other	17	13
Total	130	100
Tenure arrangement:		
All owned	42	32
Cash renting	30	23
Share renting	49	38
Other	8	6
Inadequate information	1	1
Total	130	100
Present tenure arrangement, year:		
4 or less	18	14
5-9	27	21
10 or more	85	65
Total	130	100

[1] Mean size of family: 5.2 members.
[2] Husband and wife plus those children they identify as their own and for whom they assume the role of parents (Bertrand, 1967, p. 309).

Profile of the Typical Disadvantaged Farm Family

Table 9 describes the socioeconomic characteristics of family units by the variables of ethnic background, income, family living index, health index, number in household, type of household, tenure arrangements, and years in present tenure arrangement. Based on the data in Table 9, the typical DFF may be described as black, with a total annual income of less than $3000, having access to many amenities of life (as reflected by scores on the family living index), in poor health and receiving inadequate health care. Disadvantaged farm families have a mean size of 5.2 members, are more likely to be of the nuclear type, have various types of tenure arrangements, with the present tenure arrangement having been in effect for ten or more years.

2. Kinds of Farm and Home Decisions Made by DFF

This research considered it essential to determine the kinds of decisions that weigh heavily on the minds of DFF and that motivate their search for information. Such a determination is essential for effective needs assessment and programming for DFF. By acquiring a knowledge of information desired by DFF the EOA can use it as a basis for determining which programs to offer and what information to disseminate.

Table 10 presents the frequency distribution of the major farm and home decisions reported by DFF. The distribution of responses gave credence to the notion that DFF engage in a broad range of decisions, a range that may be possibly comparable, in fact, to the range of decisions suggested for middle-class farm families (see Appendix B, No. 11).

The greatest number of major decisions was expected to be in the production and marketing categories, which proved to be the case with the respondents in this study (33 percent). The extent of their resources was seen to be a basic limiting factor in the range of their decisions. Not expected was the farm operators' extensive involvement in major management decisions, such as contract negotiation, purchase and repair of large pieces of equipment, buildings, and machinery. These types of decisions were reported by almost one-third (32 percent) of the farm operators.

Table 10. Frequency distribution of major farm and home decisions reported by disadvantaged farm families

Decision Category	Respondents	
	N	%
Farm operator:		
Capital investment	11	8
Farm management	41	32
Financial	22	17
Leasing	10	8
Production and marketing	43	33
Other/miscellaneous	3	2
Inadequate information/no response	0	0
Total	130	100
Homemaker:		
Clothing	3	2
Family health	8	6
Home furnishings	28	22
Home management	49	38
Housing	33	25
Nutrition	7	5
Other/miscellaneous	1	1
Inadequate information/no response	1	1
Total	130	100

Seventeen percent of the decisions reported by the farm operators (Table 10) were matters concerned with budget management, borrowing money, and other noncapital related expenditures of cash. Leasing and capital investments each accounted for 8 percent of the farm operators' decisions. The respondents involved in these decisions were building fences, draining wet

land, building such new facilities as swine feeding floors and curing barns. These small-scale operators were active in decisions related to both land and allotment renting and the agreements relevant to such transactions. As expected, among the major home decisions, home management decisions were the most frequently stated (38 percent) by homemakers. These were decisions such as obtaining credit, how to budget the family dollar, and whether to buy or prepare food or clothing at home.

Housing was the next most frequently stated major home decision (25 percent). These decisions were concerned with such matters as water and sewage systems, heating, painting, repairs, and remodeling. House furnishings also accounted for a substantial percentage of the wives' decisions (22 percent). These decisions were concerned with putting the finishing touches on the living area, e.g., interior design, arrangement of furnishings, planning color schemes, draperies, slip covers, and rugs.

The response rate was low for the clothing, health and nutrition categories. Only 2 percent of the homemakers reported major decisions related to the selection, construction, or care of family clothing. Similarly, only 6 percent reported major decisions related to either the mental or physical health of their families, and 5 percent reported major nutritional decisions.

3. Rationality of Decision-Making

Many educational organizations and agencies (EOA) continually strive to reach an ever-widening circle of clientele with programs based on the assumption that all individuals are rational. That is, these agencies assume that if provided with the latest in technical information they can analyze the alternatives and select the one most appropriate for reaching their individual and/or family goals.

However, there is considerable speculation that the disadvantaged are unlike other sectors of the population in that they are only occasionally rational in their decision-making. The determination of whether or not DFF make rational decisions may have major implications for program development by national and state EOA. If DFF are rational, a need may be indicated to increase and improve educational programs and information dissemination directed at this clientele. Rational decision-makers can use the information coming from those programs to increase their level of understanding and to facilitate their entry into the mainstream of American life.

By knowing the extent to which DFF engage in rational decision-making, educational change agents can design programs geared to the level of understanding of the DFF, remove structural barriers to program participation by DFF, improve the process of exchange, and initiate more readily acceptable educational opportunities for this target audience.

However, if DFF lack rationality in their decision-making, educational programs may not be appropriate. Strong arguments could be advanced for increased direct assistance programs as the most judicious use of funds on their behalf.

The process used in this study to conceptualize rationality in decision-making was built primarily on the farm management work of Johnson *et al.* (1961), Riech and Pulver (1962), and the home management study of Schomaker and Thorpe (1963). Following the lead of those authors, this study focused on the quality of means used to make decisions and specifically defined rationality as the degree of conformity to a process of decision-making.

A further stipulation was that the more rational the family decision-making, the more closely it would follow a process involving (1) orientation—being aware of goals or problems; (2) observation—seeking information; (3) analysis—analyzing and choosing alternatives; (4) implementation—acting; and (5) feedback and adjustment—reassessing the choice and accepting its consequences.

To determine the rationality of decision-making (RDM) scores of DFF, farm operators and homemakers were asked to respond to a series of questions

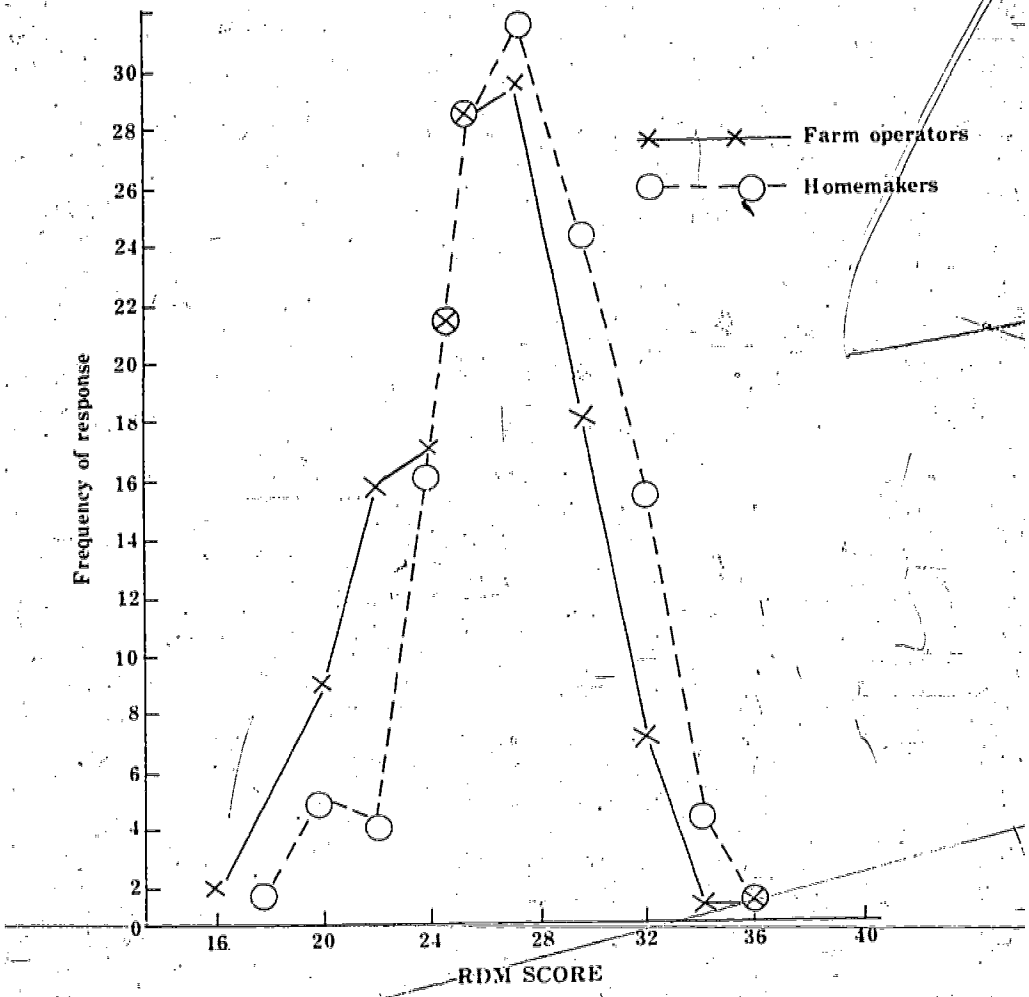


Figure 9. Rationality of decision-making scores for both farm operators and homemakers

based on conformity to the foregoing five-step decision-making process. Both a farm response and a home response were obtained for each farm family interviewed. Rationality indices were computed that ranged from a low of 12 to a high of 36.

For descriptive purposes, the RDM scores for both farm operators and homemakers were assigned to contingency tables in which the scale range was divided into three approximately equal parts. When these scores were grouped for contingency tables, skewness was pronounced (Table 11). Farm operators were clustered in the medium and high range of scores (70 and 20 percent, respectively). The homemakers' scores were also concentrated in the medium and high range (62 and 34 percent, respectively).

Table 11. Frequency distribution of rationality of decision-making scores for farm operators and homemakers

Rationality Score	Farm Operators		Homemakers	
	N	%	N	%
Low = 12-21	13	10	7	4
Medium = 22-29	90	70	79	62
High = 30-36	27	20	44	34
Total	130	100	130	100

The distribution of RDM scores calculated from responses given in this study approached normal. However, as shown in Figure 9, the scores were not skewed toward the low end of the scale. Instead, they were skewed toward the high end for both farm operators and homemakers. Mean scores were similar, with little difference in relative values (1.49 difference). Farm operators' mean RDM score was 26.02; the mean RDM score for homemakers was 27.51.

4. Availability, Usage, and Credibility of Media/Information Sources

Although many EOA offer information and programs that could improve the living standards of DFF, there is reason to suspect that they are failing to reach a large number of DFF. In an effort to determine means by which communication between EOA and DFF might be improved, an examination was made of the media/information sources available to DFF, the extent to which they use those sources, and the credibility that they attach to those sources.

In pursuing the study objective pertaining to availability, usage, and credibility of media, information sources were grouped into one of three media, interpersonal media, mass media, and publications media. For purposes of this study, mass media refers to newspapers, radio, and TV; publications media to bulletins-pamphlets, the *Farmer's Almanac*, and magazines; and the interpersonal media to agents (county Extension agents, nutrition aides, agricultural technicians, vocational-agricultural teachers, home economics teachers, representatives of other governmental agencies, and lending institutions), the church (ministers), farm and home dealers, and family-friends-neighbors.

Availability of Information Sources

This study assumed that DFF would have abundant access to the interpersonal media. Thus, availability was examined only in terms of mass media and publications media.

Availability of information sources was measured by the number of DFF having a working TV set or radio in the home and receiving daily newspapers, weekly newspapers, bulletins-pamphlets, the *Farmer's Almanac*, or magazines. Results are depicted in Figure 10.

The measurements show that when mass media availability is compared to publications media availability, the difference is pronounced. The 130 DFF indicated the availability of 521 information sources. Sixty-two percent of these responses pertained to mass media and only 38 percent to publications media.

Relative to the 321 responses regarding information sources available in the mass media, 38.5 percent of the responses indicated that TV was available, 34.5 percent radio, and 27 percent newspapers. As for the 200 responses regarding information sources cited in the publications media, 39 percent of

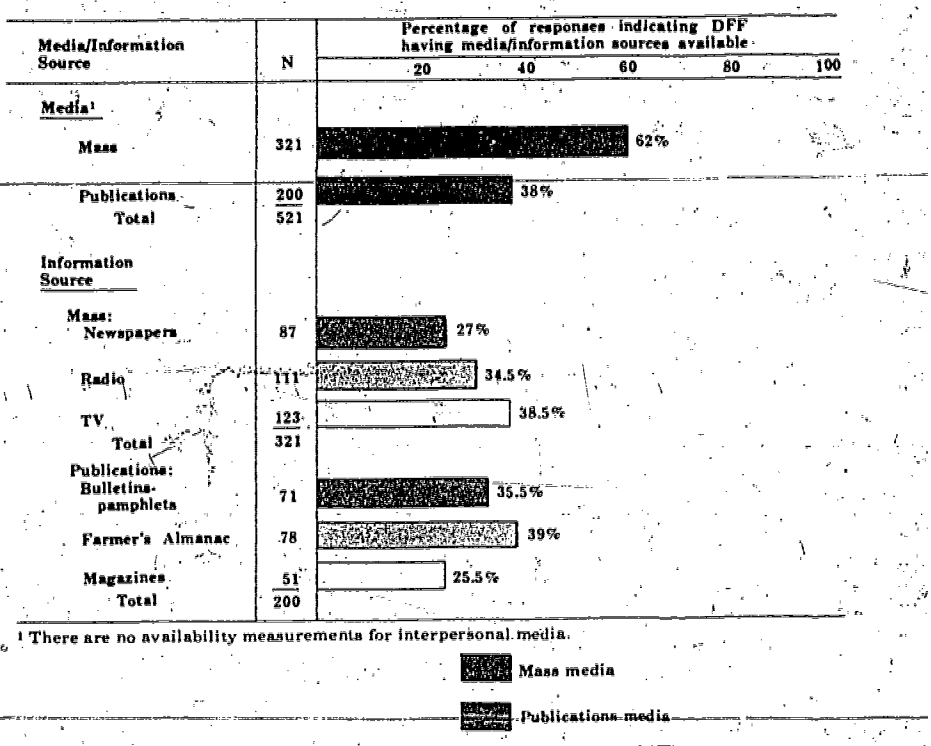


Figure 10. Availability of media and information sources to disadvantaged farm families

the responses indicated that the *Farmer's Almanac* was available, 35.5 percent bulletins-pamphlets, and 25.5 percent magazines.

Usage of Information Sources

In examining the information sources used by DFF this study focused on those sources used by farm operators and by homemakers in making *one* major decision. Thus, usage patterns are reflected for only that one decision and cannot be generalized to decision-making in general.

Usage was measured by having each farm operator and homemaker indicate the various information sources that they used in making their decision.

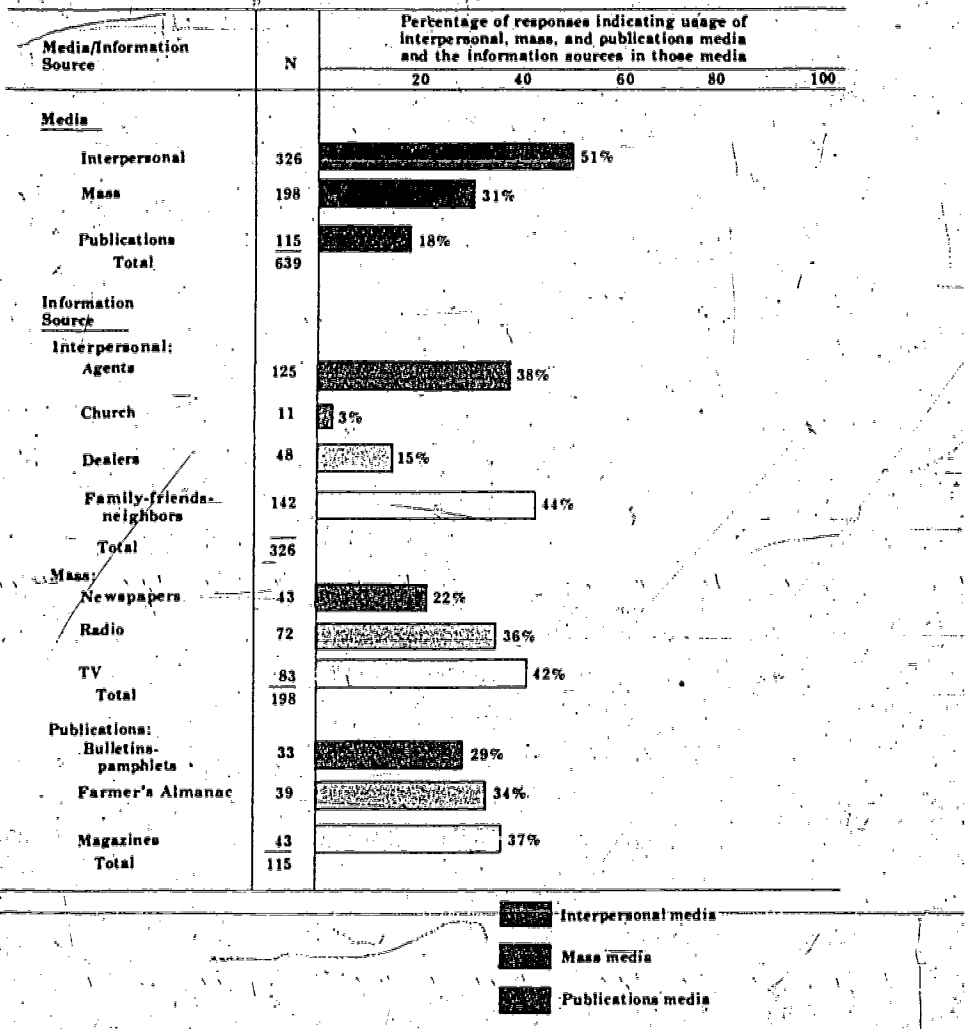


Figure 11. Usage of interpersonal, mass, and publications media and of the information sources in those media (farm operators)

Percentages were calculated on the bases of the total number of information sources cited by DFF and not on the 130 families comprising the sample. Figure 11 shows the resulting usage patterns for farm operators and Figure 12 for homemakers.

In comparing the frequency distributions of usage of the three major media in decision-making, Figures 11 and 12 show that for both farm operators and homemakers the interpersonal media was the most used, the mass media was the second most used, and the publications media was the least used. The decision-making usage patterns were as follows. The 130 farm operators used the three media a total of 639 times. The interpersonal media, the mass

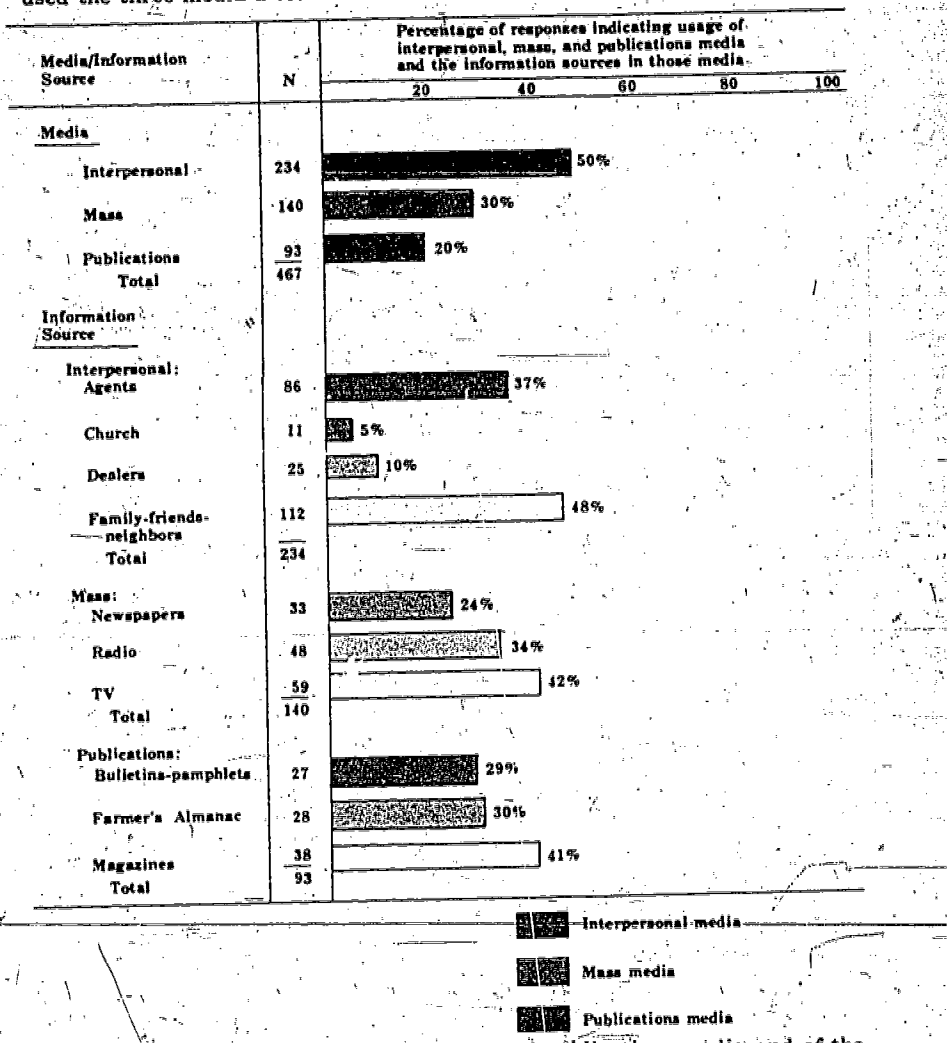


Figure 12. Usage of interpersonal, mass, and publications media and of the information sources in those media (homemakers)

media, and the publications media accounted for 51, 31, and 18 percent of this total, respectively. The 130 homemakers used the three media a total of 467 times. The interpersonal media, the mass media, and the publications media accounted for 50, 30, and 20 percent of this total, respectively.

Turning to the comparison of the information sources within the respective media, farm operators and homemakers demonstrated similar interpersonal media usage patterns. Both used the family-friends-neighbors category the most, followed by change agents, then dealers, and finally, the church. The patterns were as follows. Farm operators used the interpersonal media a total of 326 times. Family-friends-neighbors, agents, dealers, and the church accounted for 44, 38, 15, and 3 percent of this total, respectively. Homemakers used the interpersonal media a total of 234 times. Family-friends-neighbors, agents, dealers, and the church accounted for 48, 37, 10, and 5 percent of this total, respectively.

Figures 11 and 12 indicate that the mass media usage patterns of farm operators and homemakers in making a major decision were again very similar. Both used TV the most, followed by radio and then magazines. The usage patterns of information sources within the news media follow. Farm operators used the mass media a total of 115 times. TV, radio, and newspapers accounted for 42, 36, and 22 percent of this total, respectively. Homemakers used the mass media a total of 140 times. TV, radio, and newspapers accounted for 42, 34, and 24 percent of this total, respectively.

Similar usage patterns by farm operators and homemakers occurred in the publications media. Both used magazines the most, followed by the *Farmer's Almanac* and then by bulletins-pamphlets. Only a slight difference was noted between usage of the three sources as well as between usage by the farm operator and the homemaker, as illustrated in the usage patterns that follow. Farm operators used the publications media a total of 115 times. The *Farmer's Almanac*, bulletins-pamphlets, and magazines accounted for 37, 34, and 29 percent of this total, respectively. Homemakers used the publications media a total of 93 times. Magazines, the *Farmer's Almanac*, and bulletins-pamphlets accounted for 41, 30, and 29 percent of this total, respectively.

Another way of looking at usage patterns is to examine the combinations of media used in making a decision. Table 12 illustrates those combinations of media used by farm operators and homemakers.

Table 12. Combinations of media used by farm operators and homemakers in making a major decision

Combination of Media	Farm Operators		Homemakers	
	N	%	N	%
Interpersonal only	29	22	42	32
Mass only	1	1	0	0
Mass-interpersonal	35	27	19	15
Mass-publications	0	0	3	2
Publications-interpersonal	4	3	12	9
Mass-publications-interpersonal	57	44	47	36
No media used	4	3	7	5
Total	130	100	130	99

Table 12 shows that farm operators used three major combinations. Of the 130 farm operators the largest number (57, or 44 percent) used all three media. The next largest number (35, or 27 percent) used the mass-interpersonal media combination. Ranking third in frequency of usage (33 percent) was the interpersonal media alone. It should be noted that the interpersonal media was present in each of the three most frequently used combinations of media.

The pattern of media combinations used by homemakers deviated somewhat from that of farm operators. As with farm operators, the largest percentage (36 percent) of the 130 homemakers used a combination of all three media. However, 32 percent used the interpersonal media only as compared to 15 percent who used the mass-interpersonal media combination. As with the farm operators, the interpersonal media was present in each of the most frequently used combinations.

Credibility of Media/Information Sources

Educational organizations and agencies consider it vital to determine which information sources farm operators and homemakers perceive as most credible for use in decision-making.

A measure of media/information source credibility was obtained through a forced-choice technique. First, respondents were asked to choose the one most credible of the three information sources in the mass media. Then they chose the one most credible of the three information sources in the publications media, and, finally, the one most credible of the several sources in the interpersonal media. Lastly, they were asked to choose the one most credible of the mass, publications, and interpersonal media. The results of the forced-choice technique are presented in Figures 13 for farm operators and 14 for homemakers.

Figures 13 and 14 show that farm operators and homemakers perceived the interpersonal media to be most credible (by a large margin), and the publications media to be more credible than the mass media. The scores for farm operators were: interpersonal media, 72 percent; publications media, 15 percent; and mass media, 13 percent. Scores for homemakers were: interpersonal media, 76 percent; publications media, 13 percent; and mass media, 11 percent.

With regard to the information sources in each of the three media, Figure 13 shows that farm operators perceived change agents to be the most credible of the interpersonal media, followed by family-friends-neighbors, then by dealers, and finally by the church. Homemakers in Figure 14 also perceived agents to be the most credible, and family-friends-neighbors to be the second-most credible. However, unlike farm operators, they perceived the church to be more credible than dealers. The figures for farm operators were: agents, 50 percent; family-friends-neighbors, 40 percent; dealers, 7 percent; and church, 3 percent. Scores for homemakers were: agents, 45 percent; family-friends-neighbors, 36 percent; church, 14 percent; and dealers, 5 percent.

Among information sources in the mass media, both farm operators and homemakers perceived TV to be the most credible by a wide margin, newspapers the second most credible, and radio the least credible. The actual figures were for farm operators: TV, 60 percent; newspapers, 22 percent; and radio, 18 percent. The scores for homemakers were: TV, 64 percent; newspapers, 24 percent; and radio, 12 percent.

Farm operators and homemakers disagreed on the credibility of the information sources in the publications media. Farm operators perceived the *Farmer's Almanac* to be the most credible, by a wide margin, followed by magazines and then by bulletins-pamphlets. In contrast, homemakers perceived magazines to be the most credible (also by a wide margin), followed by the *Farmer's Almanac* and then by bulletins-pamphlets. The scores for farm operators were: *Farmer's Almanac*, 61 percent; magazines, 27 percent; and bulletins-pamphlets, 12 percent. Scores for homemakers were: magazines, 48 percent; *Farmer's Almanac*, 32 percent; and bulletins-pamphlets, 20 percent.

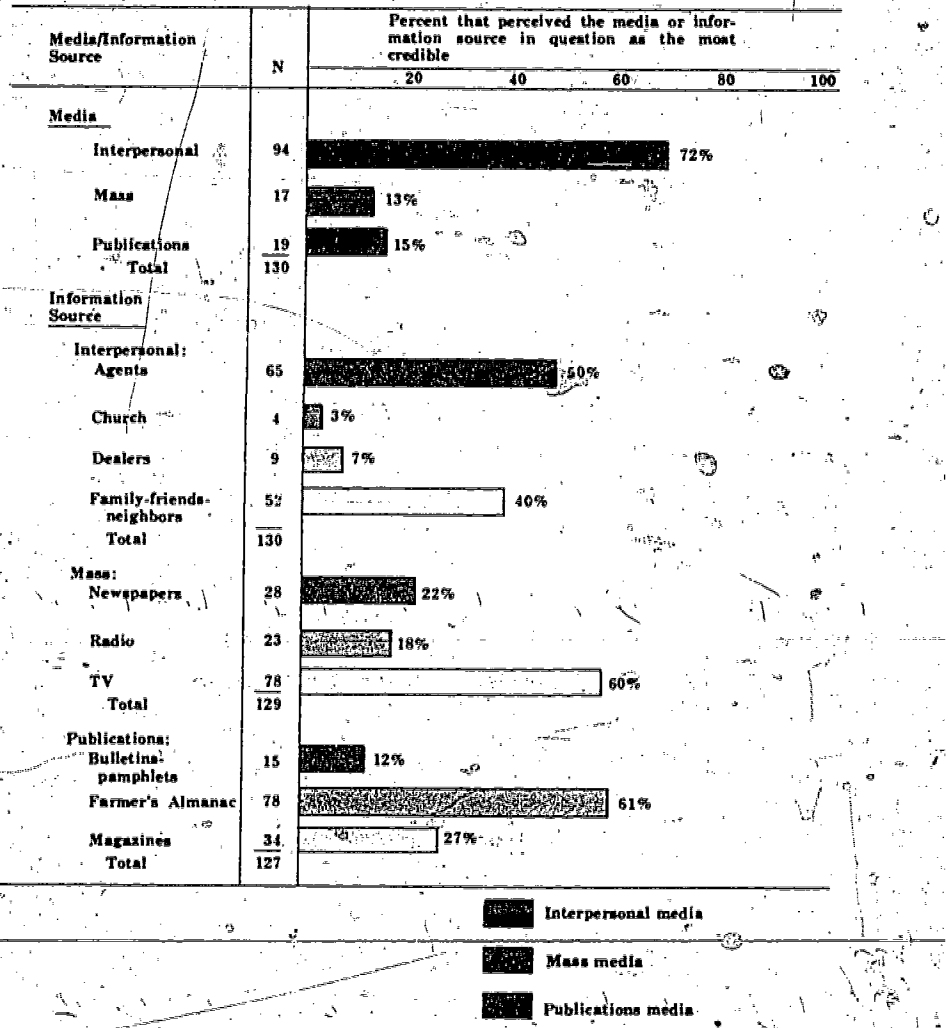


Figure 13. Credibility of the interpersonal, mass, and publications media and of the information sources in those media (farm operators).

Profiles of the Media and Their Corresponding Information Sources, By Availability, Usage, and Credibility

Thus far the availability, usage, and credibility of media and the information sources in them have been examined in isolation. It is now possible to pull together the findings of those examinations to generate profiles by graphically representing the availability, usage, and credibility of media/information sources.

The flow chart shown in Figure 15 illustrates the application of those profiles; i.e., it contains the questions that EOA should ask before selecting

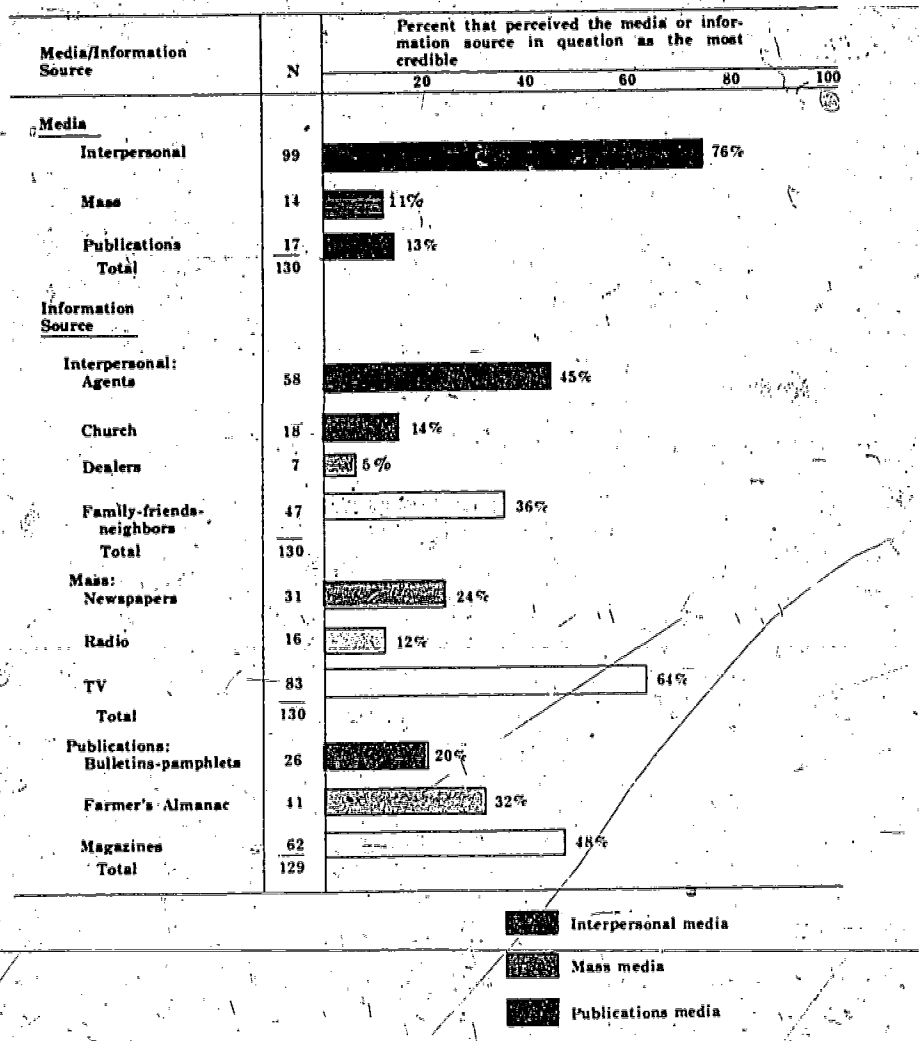


Figure 14. Credibility of the interpersonal, mass, and publications media and of the information sources in those media (homemakers)

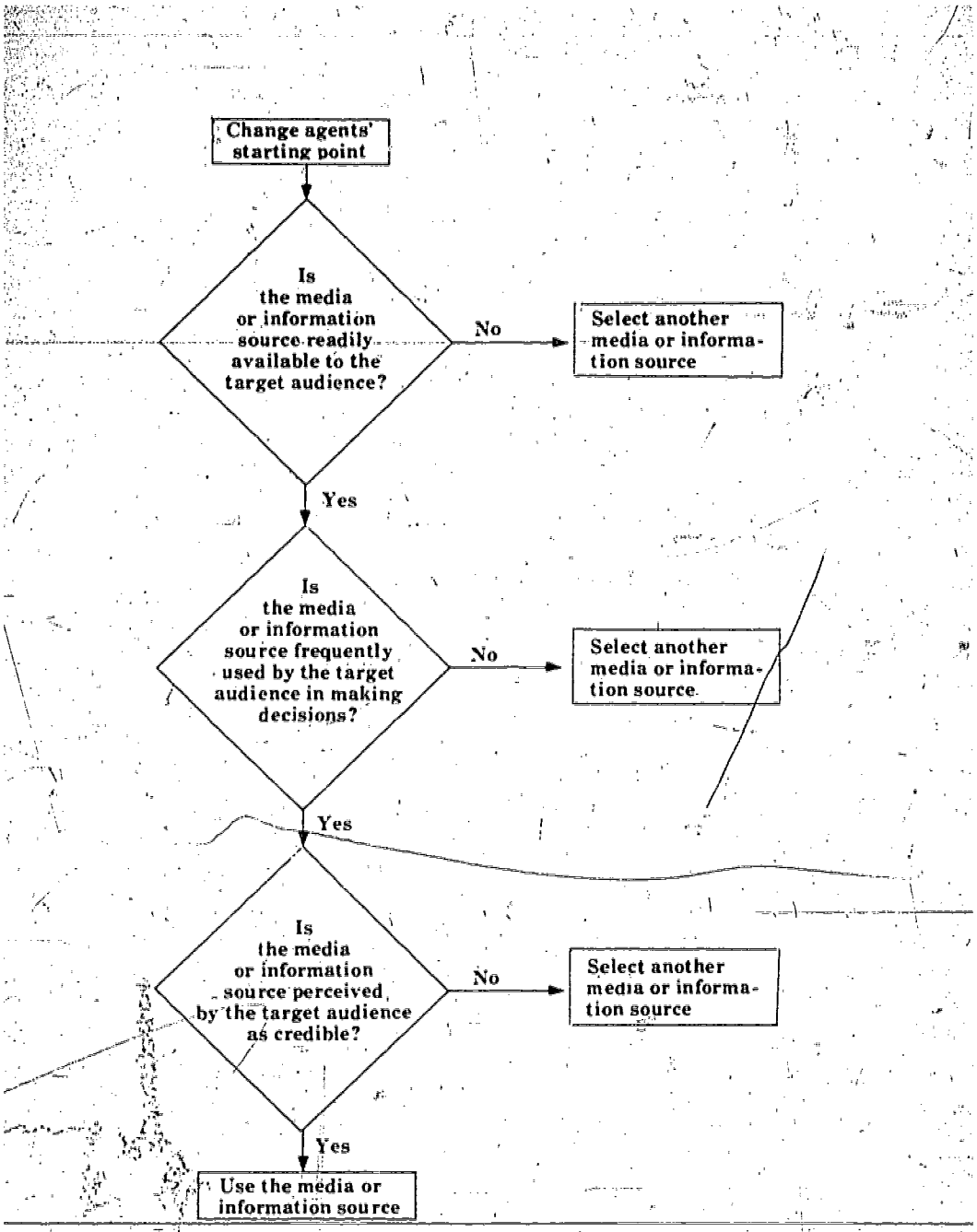


Figure 15. Schematic diagram illustrating a procedure change agents may utilize in selecting media/information sources as channels for disseminating information to DFF or intervening to effect change in their decision-making patterns

media/information sources to use in disseminating information to and intervening to effect change in the decision-making patterns of DFF. The flow chart demonstrates that EOA should use the media or information sources that are most available to DFF only if those media or information sources are perceived by DFF as credible and are frequently used. A media or information source that is frequently used but has little credibility would not be an effective communications channel in reaching the DFF.

Profiles of the availability, usage, and credibility of media/information sources are graphically presented in Figures 16-23. As indicated earlier,

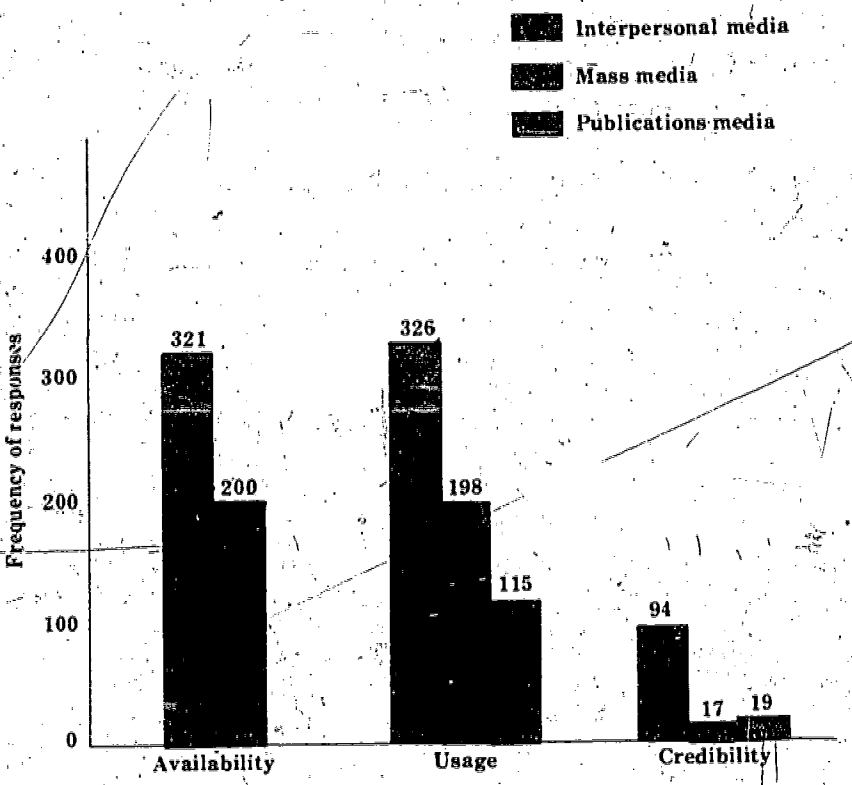


Figure 16. Profiles of the interpersonal, mass, and publications media by availability, usage, and credibility (farm operators)[1]

[1] There are no availability measurements for interpersonal media.

availability of information sources was measured by the number of DFF having a working TV set or radio in the home and receiving daily newspapers, bulletins-pamphlets, and *Farmer's Almanac* or magazines. Usage was measured by having the farm operators indicate the various information sources that they used in making their decision. Credibility was obtained through a forced-choice technique in which respondents were required to rank media/information sources as most credible, second most credible, etc. Comparisons between farm operator and homemaker profiles are summarized in the narrative that follows the graphs.

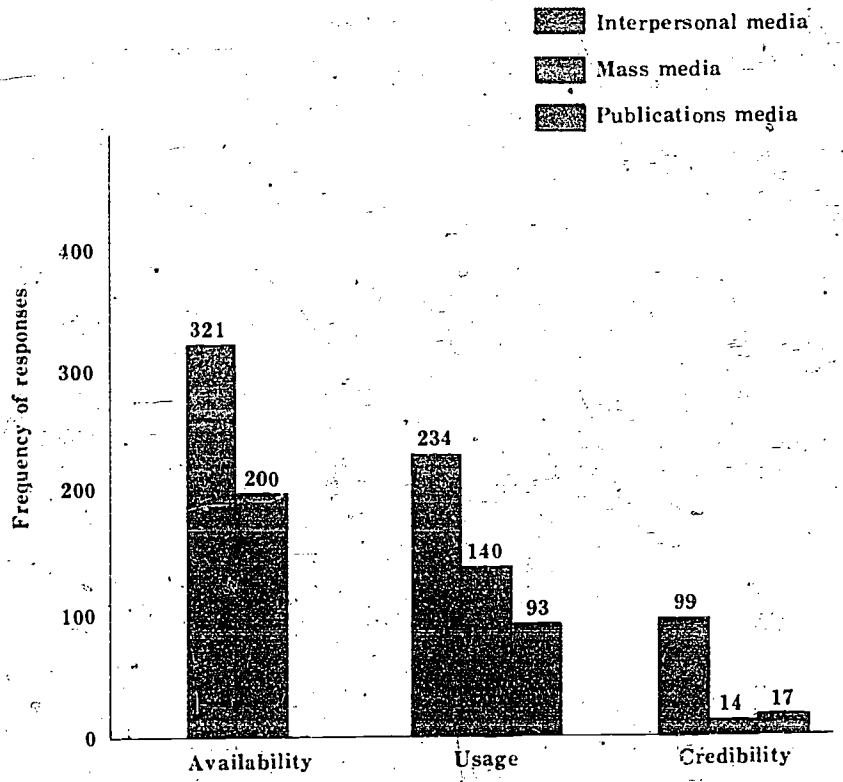


Figure 17. Profiles of the interpersonal, mass, and publications media by availability, usage, and credibility (homemakers)[1]

[1] There are no availability measurements for interpersonal media.

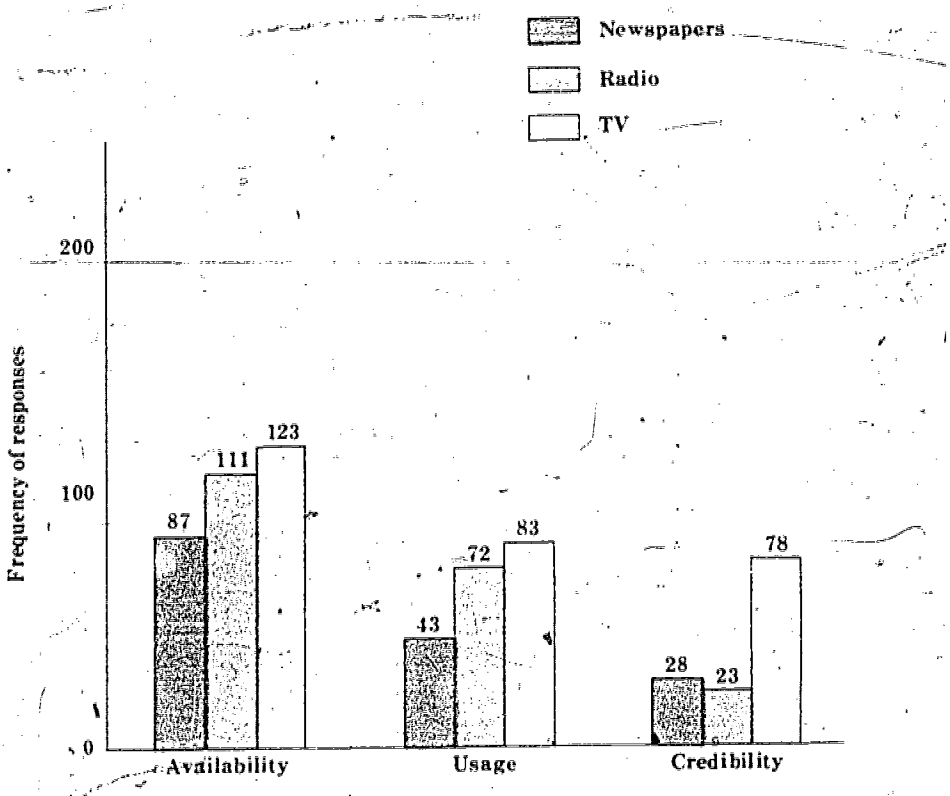


Figure 18. Profiles of the information sources in the mass media by availability, usage, and credibility (farm operators)

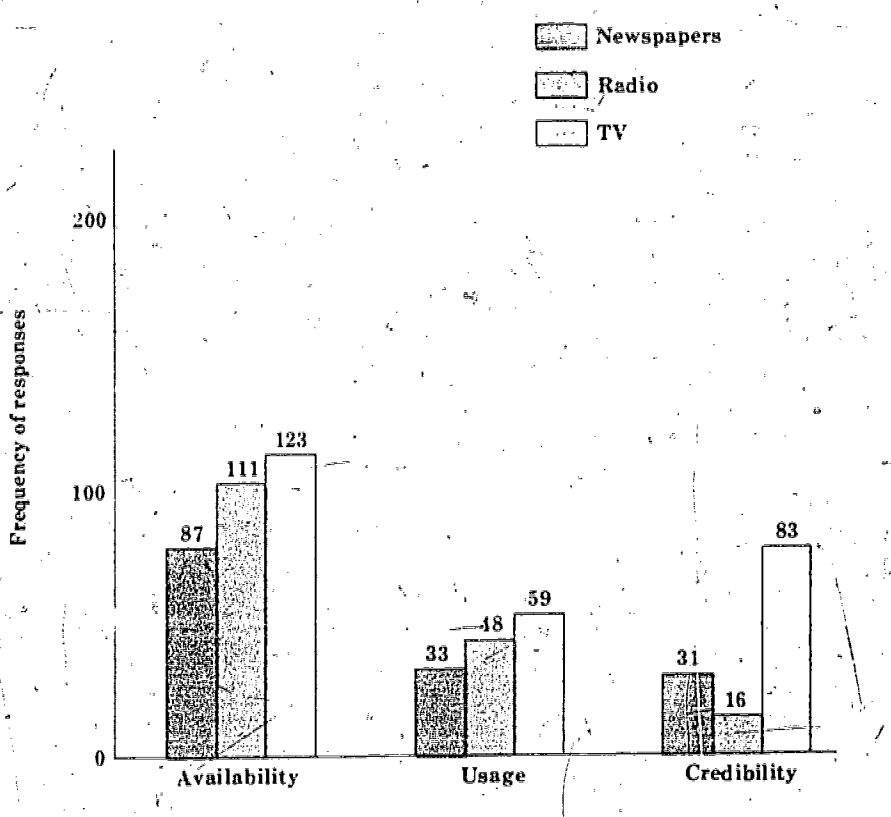


Figure 19. Profiles of the information sources in the mass media by availability, usage, and credibility (homemakers)

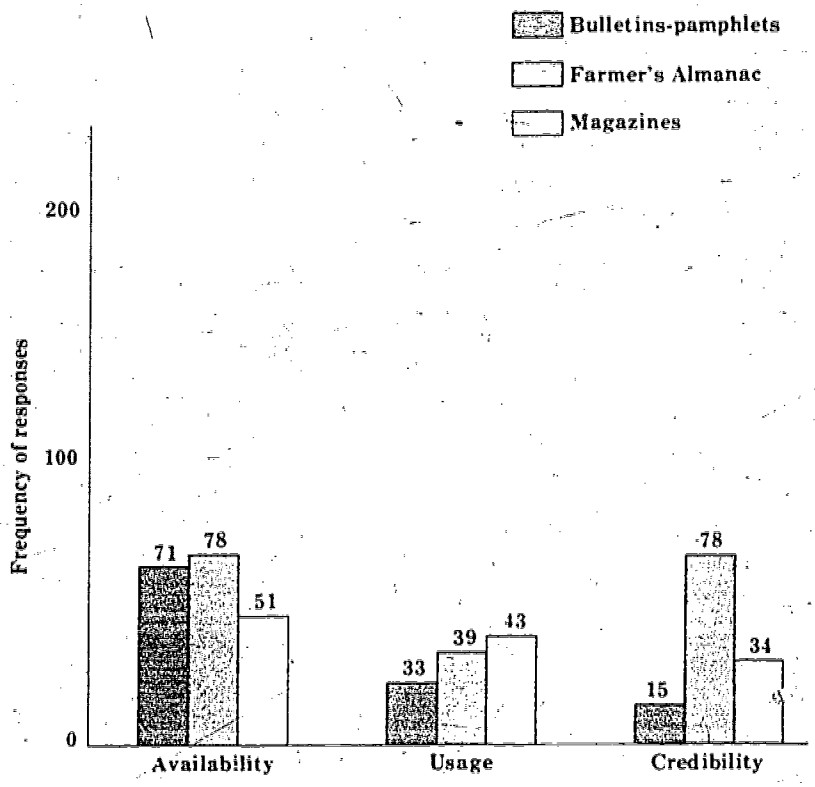


Figure 20. Profiles of the information sources in the publications media by availability, usage, and credibility (farm operators)

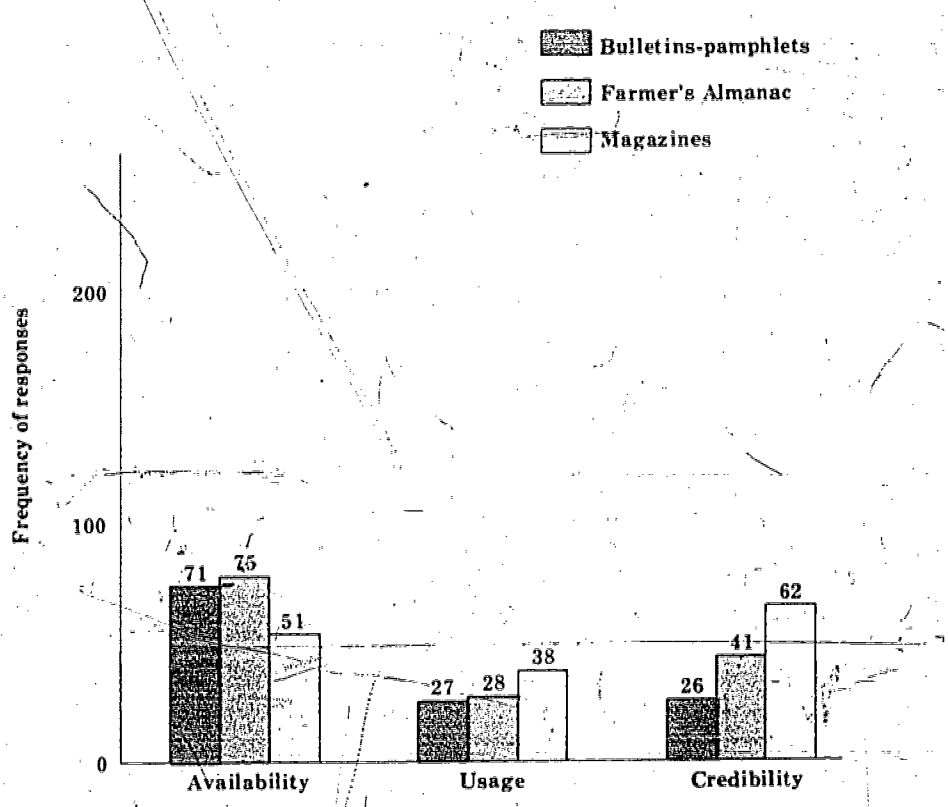


Figure 21. Profiles of the information sources in the publications media by availability, usage, and credibility (homemakers)

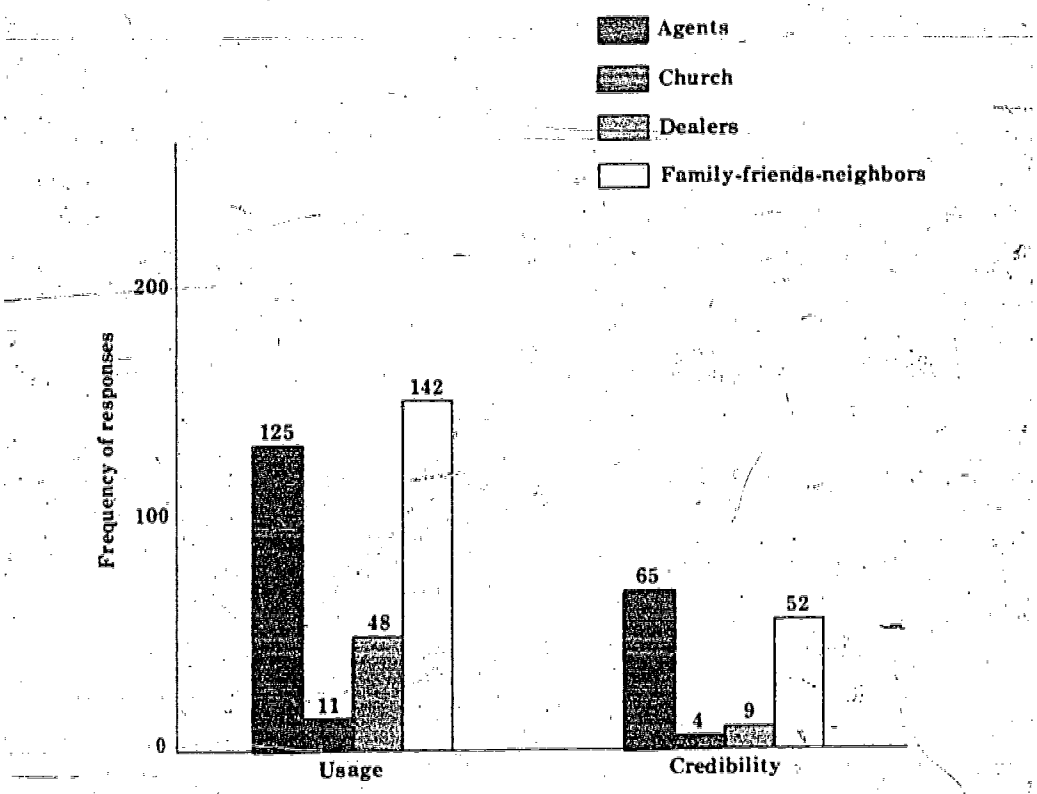


Figure 22. Profiles of the information sources in the interpersonal media by usage and credibility (farm operators)

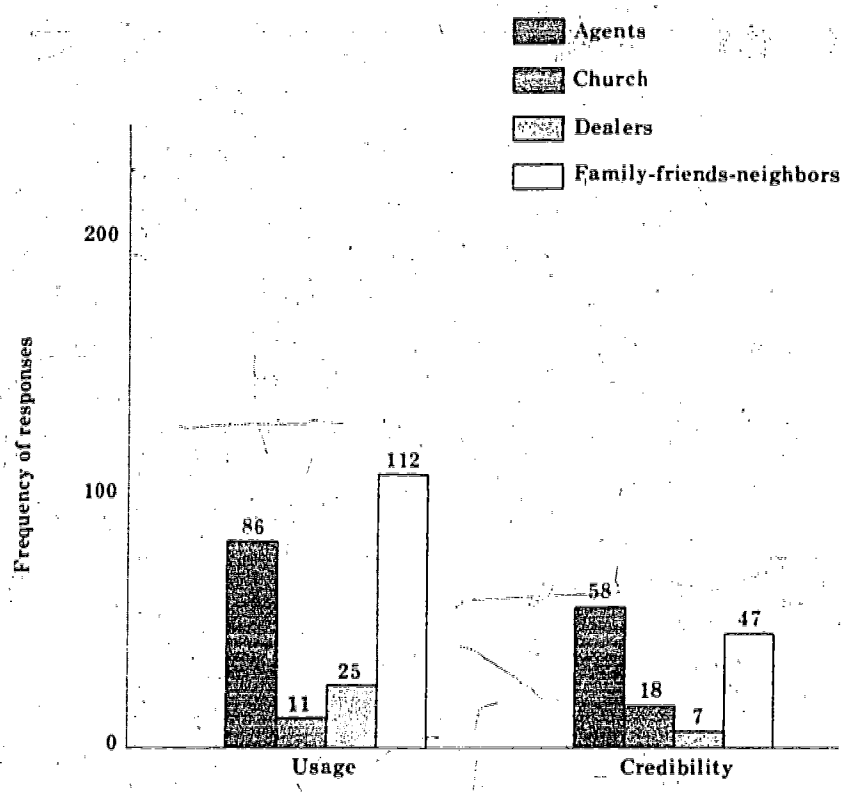


Figure 23. Profiles of the information sources in the interpersonal media by usage and credibility (homemakers)

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The profiles of the interpersonal, mass, and publications media for farm operators (Figure 16) and homemakers (Figure 17) were the same. For both groups of respondents the interpersonal media ranked very high in credibility and usage (there is no availability measurement for the interpersonal media). Mass media ranked high in availability, in the middle range in usage, and (relative to the interpersonal media) low in credibility. The publications media ranked in the middle range of availability, and ranked low in credibility and usage.

The profiles of the information sources in the mass media again were the same for farm operators (Figure 18) and homemakers (Figure 19). Relative to other sources in the mass media, TV ranked very high in availability, credibility, and usage. Radio ranked high in availability and usage, but low in credibility. Newspapers ranked low in availability, credibility, and usage.

The profiles of the information sources in the publications media for farm operators (Figure 20) and homemakers (Figure 21) were the same for availability, similar in proportion of usage, but differed considerably in credibility ranking. Relative to other information sources in the publications media, bulletins-pamphlets ranked high in availability, but low in credibility and usage by both groups of respondents. The *Farmer's Almanac* ranked high in availability, usage, and credibility among the farm operators. Homemakers gave the same ranking for availability, but use the *Farmer's Almanac* less and gave it less credibility than the farm operators. Although both farm operators and homemakers ranked magazines as medium in availability and high in usage, homemakers ranked their credibility much higher than did the farm operators. Among the three information sources, farm operators gave the highest credibility to the *Farmer's Almanac*, whereas homemakers ranked magazines highest. Both respondent groups gave low credibility ratings to bulletins-pamphlets.

The profiles of information sources in the interpersonal media for farm operators (Figure 22) and homemakers (Figure 23) were the same in that family-friends-neighbors ranked highest in usage and agents were second highest in usage by both respondent groups. The church and dealers ranked low in both credibility and usage. However, farm operators indicated using dealers much more often than did homemakers, and homemakers gave a higher credibility rating to the church than did farm operators.

Leading in availability to DFF was the mass media, of which TV was the most used source, with radio a close second. The most available publications information source was the *Farmer's Almanac*, yet magazines ranked highest in usage. Availability of interpersonal sources was not measurable; however, family-friends-neighbors ranked highest in usage.

Ranked highest in credibility were: interpersonal media, TV, *Farmer's Almanac*, and agents—with family-friends-neighbors a close second. The least credible sources were: mass media, radio, bulletins-pamphlets, and dealers.

5. Degree of Linkage Between Interpersonal Information Sources Used by Disadvantaged Farm Families in Making Decisions and Research-Based Information Sources

Objective five speaks to the broad concept of linkage. More specifically, this study was concerned with three questions regarding linkage between information sources, i.e.: (1) How far removed are DFF from research-based

information sources? (2) Is there a heterophilic relationship between DFF and their direct interpersonal sources of information? (3) What are the characteristics of those persons who channel information to DFF?

Research-based information source in this study refers to a person (specialist or researcher in a specific subject matter area) who represents a profession or institution recognized by the scientific community as possessing impartial research information that has been validated empirically by application of the scientific method as opposed to value, moral, or ethical judgments. In addition, any research information transmitted by these individuals in written or publication form will be considered a research-based source of information.

The determination of how far removed DFF are from research-based information sources should indicate the extent to which EOA are currently reaching DFF. The determination as to whether or not DFF are heterophilic to their direct interpersonal information sources (and whether or not interpersonal sources A, B and C are heterophilic to each other) will allow conclusions to be drawn about the pattern of information flow to DFF. A knowledge of those patterns should be helpful to EOA in determining the most productive information sources to use in disseminating information to DFF.

Turning first to examining the extent to which DFF are removed from research-based information sources, a review of the literature indicated that in general DFF have no close linkage to research-based information sources. Diffusion research (the study of the process by which new ideas spread to members of a social system) has shown that all members of a social system do not adopt an innovation at the same time, and DFF are often "laggards," or the last to adopt innovations. The North Central Rural Sociology Subcommittee (1961, p. 6) described laggards as

> . . . not only . . . the last to adopt new ideas; they put faith in agricultural magic and folk beliefs and have a fear of debt; they have a low level of education and thus have difficulty in dealing with abstractions and relationships; they hold few memberships in social organizations other than church; they are of the lowest social class; they have small farms; and their main source of information is their laggard friends and neighbors.

This description of the laggard category (and by and large the disadvantaged rural population) strongly suggests that information used by the DFF in making decisions is likely to be far removed from a research-based source.

To determine the extent to which information used by DFF is linked to research-based sources, this study traced, through five chains if necessary, the interpersonal sources of information used by disadvantaged farm operators and homemakers. If either the first or second source of information used was research-based, the linkage was categorized as "closely linked." If the third source of information used was research-based, the linkage was categorized as "distantly linked." If a research-based source of information was not detected among the first three sources, the linkage was categorized as "not linked." Figure 24 illustrates this procedure, and Table 13 presents the results yielded by that procedure.

The data show that 38 and 39 percent of the farm and home decisions, respectively, were closely linked through interpersonal sources to research-based information. The remainder of the communication chains were either distantly linked or not linked to the farm and home decisions made.

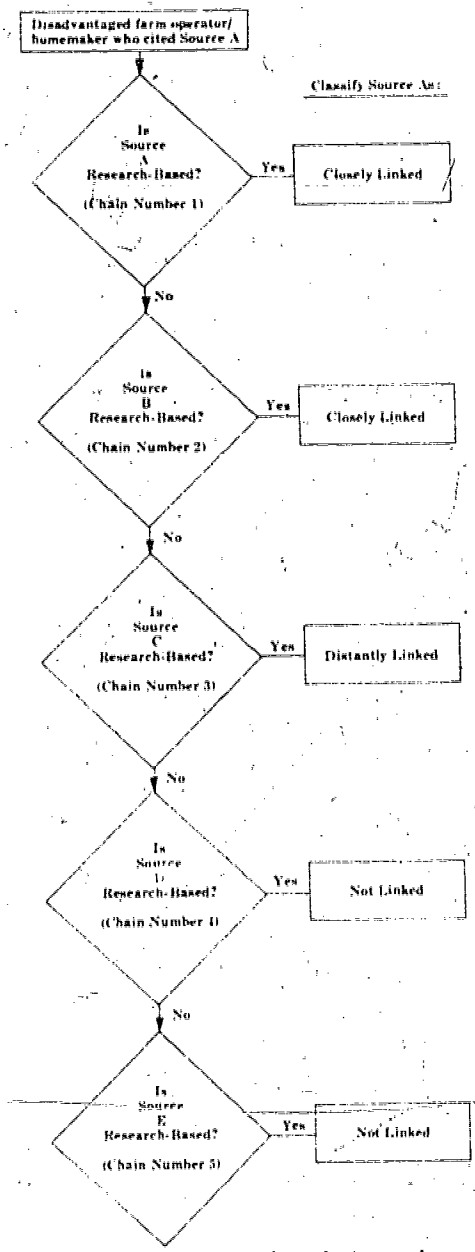

Figure 24. Schematic diagram illustrating the procedure used to determine degree of linkage between interpersonal information sources cited by disadvantaged farm operators/homemakers and research-based sources

The second specific concern of the research on linkage was to determine if there is a heterophilic relationship between DFF and their direct interpersonal source of information. Characteristics used in testing the relationship were: (1) age, (2) education, (3) ethnic background, (4) income, (5) present/future value orientation, and (6) social participation.

Table 13. The degree of linkage between research-based information sources and those interpersonal sources used by disadvantaged farm families as a basis for making farm or home decisions

Interpersonal Information Sources Used	Closely Linked		Distantly Linked		Not Linked		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Farm decisions	11	38.0	10	34.5	8	27.5	29	100
Home decisions	7	39.0	3	17.0	8	44.0	18	100

Chi-square analysis was used to test for significant differences (0.5 level or greater) between the characteristics. This analytical procedure requires the use of ordinate categories (e.g., low, medium and high) with sizable numbers in each category. However, the low, medium, and high categories used previously for age and social participation were skewed to the extent that in some instances there were empty cells in the low and high categories. To cope with that difficulty new low, medium, and high categories for age and social participation were established in such a way as to cause approximately equal numbers to occur in each category. These categories arrived at are used in the tables that follow.

Visual observation of Table 14 indicates pronounced differences between farm operators and their stage A interpersonal information sources for all characteristics other than age and present/future value orientation. Chi-square tests (Table 15) support that observation by indicating significant differences for all characteristics other than age and present/future value orientation. Thus, a heterophilic relationship between farm operators and their direct interpersonal source of information (stage A) is indicated.

Turning next to a comparison of the characteristics of farm operators' A, B, and C interpersonal information sources, visual observation of Table 14 reveals little because of the unequal N's in the three sources. However, chi-square tests (Table 16) clearly show that there are no significant differences between the characteristics of sources A, B, and C. Therefore, the relationship between sources A, B, and C is labeled as homophilic.

In regard to homemakers, Table 17 illustrates their characteristics and those of their interpersonal information sources. Considering first the differences between homemakers and source A, Table 17 shows differences in several characteristics. When chi-square tests were made (Table 18), significant differences were found for education, income, present/future value orientation, and social participation. Thus, a heterophilic relationship between homemakers and their direct interpersonal source of information (stage A) is indicated.

Table 14. Frequency distribution of disadvantaged farm operators and their interpersonal information sources by selected characteristics

Characteristic	Disadvantaged farm operators N=29		Stage A Sources N=29		Stage B Sources N=15		Stage C Sources N=4	
	N	%	N	%[1]	N	%[1]	N	%
Age, yr:								
49 or less	13	45	12	41	9	60	3	75
50-59	11	38	10	35	3	20	1	25
60 or more	5	17	7	24	3	20	0	0
Total	29	100	29	100	15	100	4	100
Education, yr:								
4 or less	15	52	3	10	2	13	0	0
5-7	9	31	3	10	1	6	0	0
8 or more	5	17	23	79	12	81	4	100
Total	29	100	29	99	15	100	4	100
Ethnic background:								
Black	26	90	7	24	2	13	4	100
White	3	10	22	76	13	87	0	0
Total	29	100	29	100	15	100	4	100
Income:								
$3,999 or less	19	66	3	10	2	13	0	0
$4,000 to 6,999	9	31	3	10	0	0	0	0
$7,000 to 9,999	1	3	9	31	2	13	1	25
$10,000 or more	0	0	14	48	11	73	3	75
Total	29	100	29	99	15	99	4	100
Present/future value orientation score:								
Low = 7-12	8	28	6	21	3	20	0	0
Medium = 13-16	11	38	5	17	1	7	0	0
High = 17-21	10	34	18	62	11	73	4	100
Total	29	100	29	100	15	100	4	100
Social participation score:								
Low = 0-3	13	45	1	3	1	7	0	0
Medium = 4-8	6	21	2	7	1	7	0	0
High = 9-36	10	34	26	90	13	86	4	100
Total	29	100	29	100	15	100	4	100

[1] Total percentages do not always equal 100 due to rounding error.

Table 15. Chi-square tests for significant differences between selected characteristics of disadvantaged farm operators and their stage A interpersonal source of information

Characteristic	Disadvantaged Farm Operator	Stage A Source	Total N	df	X^2
Age, yr:					
49 or less	13	12	25		
50-59	11	10	21		
60 or more	5	7	12		
Total	29	29	58	2	.42
Education, yr:					
4 or less	15	3	18		
5-7	9	3	12		
8 or more	5	23	28		
Total	29	29	58	2	22.56**
Ethnic background:					
Black	26	7	33		
White	3	22	25		
Total	29	29	58	1	25.38**
Income:					
$3,999 or less	19	3	22		
$4,000-6,999	9	3	12		
$7,000-9,999	1	9	10		
$10,000 or more	0	14	14		
Total	29	29	58	3	35.04**
Present/future value orientation score:					
Low = 7-12	8	6	14		
Medium = 13-16	11	5	16		
High = 17-21	10	18	28		
Total	29	29	58	2	4.80
Social participation score:					
Low = 0-3	13	1	14		
Medium = 4-8	6	2	8		
High = 9-36	10	26	36		
Total	29	29	58	2	19.40**

** Significant at the .01 level.

Table 16. Chi-square tests for significant differences between selected characteristics of disadvantaged farm operators' stage A, B, and C interpersonal information sources

Characteristic	Stage			Total		
	A	B	C	N	df	X^2
Age, yr:						
49 or less	12	9	3	24		
50-59	10	3	1	14		
60 or more	7	3	0	10		
Total	29	15	4	48	4	2.96
Education, yr:						
4 or less	3	2	0	5		
5-7	3	1	0	4		
8 or more	23	12	4	39		
Total	29	15	4	48	4	1.25
Ethnic background:						
Black	7	2	0	9		
White	22	13	4	39		
Total	29	15	4	48	2	1.76
Income:						
$3,999 or less	1	0	0	1		
$4,000-6,999	5	2	0	7		
$7,000-9,999	9	2	1	12		
$10,000 or more	14	11	3	28		
Total	29	15	4	48	6	3.91
Present/future value orientation score:						
Low = 7-12	6	3	0	9		
Medium = 13-16	5	1	0	6		
High = 17-21	18	11	4	33		
Total	29	15	4	48	4	3.05
Social participation score:						
Low = 0-3	1	1	0	2		
Medium = 4-8	2	1	0	3		
High = 9-36	26	13	4	43		
Total	29	15	4	48	4	.764

Table 17. Frequency distribution of disadvantaged homemakers and their interpersonal information sources by selected characteristics

Characteristic	Disadvantaged Homemakers N=18		Stage A Sources N=18		Stage B Sources N=8		Stage C Sources N=3	
	N	%[1]	N	%	N	%	N	%[1]
Age, yr:								
49 or less	6	33	11	61	5	63	1	33
50-59	8	44	4	22	2	25	1	33
60 or more	4	22	3	17	1	12	1	33
Total	18	99	18	100	8	100	3	99
Education, yr:								
4 or less	3	17	1	6	0	0	0	0
5-7	7	39	2	11	0	0	0	0
8 or more	8	44	15	83	8	100	3	100
Total	18	100	18	100	8	100	3	100
Ethnic background:								
Black	14	78	8	44	6	75	1	33
White	4	22	10	56	2	25	2	67
Total	18	100	18	100	8	100	3	100
Income:								
$3,999 or less	12	67	5	28	1	12	1	33
$4,000 to 6,999	5	28	4	22	0	0	0	0
$7,000 to 9,999	1	5	4	22	3	38	1	33
$10,000 or more	0	0	5	28	4	50	1	33
Total	18	100	18	100	8	100	3	99
Present/future value orientation score:								
Low = 7-12	6	33	0	0	0	0	0	0
Medium = 13-16	3	17	7	39	0	0	0	0
High = 17-21	9	50	11	61	8	100	3	100
Total	18	100	18	100	8	100	3	100
Social participation score:								
Low = 0-3	7	39	0	0	0	0	0	0
Medium = 4-8	5	28	1	6	1	13	0	0
High = 9-36	6	33	17	94	7	87	3	100
Total	18	100	18	100	8	100	3	100

[1] Total percentages do not always equal 100 due to rounding error.

Table 18. Chi-square tests for significant differences between selected characteristics of disadvantaged homemakers and their stage A interpersonal source of information

Characteristic	Disadvantaged Homemaker	Stage A Source	Total N	df	X^2
Age, yr:					
49 or less	6	11	17		
50-59	8	4	12		
69 or more	4	3	7		
Total	18	18	36	2	2.94
Education, yr:					
4 or less	3	1	4		
5-7	7	2	9		
8 or more	8	15	23		
Total	18	18	36	2	5.92*
Ethnic background:					
Black	14	8	22		
White	4	10	14		
Total	18	18	36	1	4.22 (2.92)[1]
Income:					
$3,999 or less	12	5	17		
$4,000-6,999	5	4	9		
$7,000-9,999	1	4	5		
$10,000 or more	0	5	5		
Total	18	18	36	3	9.80*
Present/future value orientation score:					
Low = 7-12	6	0	6		
Medium = 13-16	3	7	10		
High = 17-21	9	11	20		
Total	18	18	36	2	7.80*
Social participation score:					
Low = 0-3	7	0	7		
Medium = 4-8	5	1	6		
High = 9-36	6	17	23		
Total	18	18	36	2	14.92**

[1] The chi-square value of 2.92 is a corrected figure, made necessary because the chi-square table is a 2x2 contingency table, and because the chi-square value of 4.22 yields a borderline level of significance.

* Significant at .05 level.

** Significant at .01 level.

Table 19. Chi-square tests for significant differences between selected characteristics of disadvantaged homemakers' stage A, B, and C interpersonal information sources

Characteristic	Stage			Total		
	A	B	C	N	df	X^2
Age, yr:						
49 or less	11	5	1	17		
50-59	4	2	1	7		
60 or more	3	1	1	5		
Total	18	8	3	29	4	1.06
Education, yr:						
4 or less	1	0	0	1		
5-7	2	0	0	2		
8 or more	15	8	3	26		
Total	18	8	3	29	4	2.04
Ethnic background:						
Black	10	2	1	13		
White	8	6	2	16		
Total	18	8	3	29	4	2.39
Income:						
$3,999 or less	5	1	1	7		
$4,000-6,999	4	0	0	4		
$7,000-9,999	4	3	1	8		
$10,000 or more	5	4	1	10		
Total	18	8	3	29	6	4.40
Present/future value orientation score:						
Low = 7-12	1	1	1	3		
Medium = 13-16	7	0	0	7		
High = 17-21	10	7	2	19		
Total	18	8	3	29	4	7.11
Social participation score:						
Low = 0-3	0	0	0	0		
Medium = 4-8	2	1	0	3		
High = 9-36	16	7	3	26		
Total	18	8	3	29	4	.398**

** Significant at the .01 level.

As for the differences between the characteristics of homemakers' A, B, and C sources, Table 17 is inconclusive because of the unequal N's in the A, B, and C sources. However, Table 19 clearly shows that, except for social participation, sources A, B, and C share the same characteristics. Therefore, the relationship between sources A, B, and C is labeled as homophilic.

A Profile of Interpersonal Farm Information Sources Cited

Finally, this research on linkage considered it important to identify, by selected variables, the typical A, B, and C interpersonal information sources. Selected socioeconomic variables are age, education, employment status, ethnic background, income, length of residence in county, occupation, and place of childhood residence. For the variables to be considered characteristic of the interpersonal information source, they must have been possessed by the largest percentage of the sources (A/B/C).

A profile of the typical interpersonal farm sources cited will be discussed first in the following subsections. This discussion will be followed with a similar description of the typical home sources cited.

The Typical Stage A Source

Based on an examination of those characteristics most often possessed by the stage A farm sources, the researchers were able to describe the individual who most typically represented this group. The data presented in Table 20 indicate that this person was most often a white farm operator (66 percent), less than 50 years of age, having 8 or more years of education and a farm background, working full-time for an annual income of $10,000 or more and having resided in the county his entire life.

The Typical Stage B Source

In reviewing the stage B farm sources shown in Table 20, this person may be described as one who is a white farm operator (53 percent) or private dealer (47 percent) and possessing the same descriptive characteristics as his typical stage A counterpart.

The Typical Stage C Source

Table 20 shows that the typical stage C farm source was no different from his stage A and B counterpart except for occupation. Private dealers accounted for 75 percent of stage C sources and farm operators for 25 percent as contrasted to 47 and 53 percent of stage B sources and 10 and 66 percent of stage A sources, respectively.

A Profile of Interpersonal Home Information Sources Cited

The typical interpersonal home sources cited by disadvantaged homemakers are described in the subsections below. Data used to arrive at A, B, and C profiles are found in Table 21.

Table 20. Frequency distribution of interpersonal farm information sources cited by disadvantaged farm operators according to selected socioeconomic characteristics

Characteristic	Stage A Sources N=29		Stage B Sources N=15		Stage C Sources N=4	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Age, yr:						
49 or less	12	41	9	60	3	75
50-59	10	34	3	20	1	25
60 or more	7	24	3	20	0	0
Total	29	99	15	100	4	100

Table 20. (Continued)

Characteristic	Stage A Sources N=29		Stage B Sources N=15		Stage C Sources N=4	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Education, yr:						
4 or less	3	10	2	13	0	0
5-7	3	10	1	7	0	0
8 or more	23	79	12	80	4	100
Total	29	99	15	100	4	100
Employment status:						
Full time (40 hr/week)	27	93	15	100	4	100
Unable to work	1	3	0	0	0	0
Retired	1	3	0	0	0	0
Total	29	99	15	100	4	100
Ethnic background:						
Black	7	24	2	13	0	0
White	22	76	13	87	4	100
Total	29	100	15	100	4	100
Income:						
$3,999 or less	1	3	0	0	0	0
$4,000-6,999	5	17	2	13	0	0
$7,000-9,999	9	31	2	13	1	25
$10,000 or more	14	48	11	73	3	75
Total	29	99	15	99	4	100
Length of residence in county, yr:						
1-9	2	7	0	0	0	0
10-19	1	3	1	7	0	0
20-29	2	7	2	13	1	25
30 or more	7	24	0	0	0	0
Entire life	17	59	12	80	3	75
Total	29	100	15	100	4	100
Occupation[2]:						
Farm operator	19	66	8	53	1	25
Government agency	3	10	0	0	0	0
Private dealer	3	10	7	47	3	75
Research	2	7	0	0	0	0
Other	2	7	0	0	0	0
Total	29	100	15	100	4	100
Childhood residence:						
Farm	22	76	14	93	3	75
Town	6	21	1	7	1	25
City	1	3	0	0	0	0
Total	29	100	15	100	4	100

[1] Total percent does not always equal 100 due to rounding error.
[2] Farm operator = farm operator; Government agency = ASCS office manager, FHA supervisor, PCA loan officer; Private dealer = banker, dealer or salesman (food, seed, fertilizer, chemicals, farm supplies, farm equipment), peanut shelling company manager; Research = Extension specialist, Extension agents (agriculture and home economics), soil conservation technician, doctors; and Other = deputy sheriff and funeral home director.

Table 21. Frequency distribution of interpersonal home information sources cited by disadvantaged homemakers according to selected socio-economic characteristics

Characteristic	Stage A Sources N=18		Stage B Sources N=8		Stage C Sources N=3	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Age, yr:						
49 or less	11	61	5	63	1	33
50-59	4	22	2	25	1	33
60 or more	3	17	1	12	1	33
Total	18	100	8	100	3	99
Education, yr:						
4 or less	1	6	0	0	0	0
5-7	2	11	0	0	0	0
8 or more	15	83	8	100	3	100
Total	18	100	8	100	3	100
Employment status:						
Full time (40 hr/week)	10	55	6	75	2	67
Housewife	5	28	1	12	1	33
Unable to work	1	6	0	0	0	0
Retired	2	11	1	13	0	0
Total	18	100	8	100	3	100
Ethnic background:						
Black	10	56	2	25	1	33
White	8	44	6	75	2	67
Total	18	100	8	100	3	100
Income:						
$3,999 or less	5	28	1	12	1	33
$4,000-6,999	4	22	0	0	0	0
$7,000-9,999	4	22	3	38	2	67
$10,000 or more	5	28	4	50	0	0
Total	18	100	8	100	3	100
Length of residence in county, yr:						
1-9	1	5	3	38	0	0
10-19	1	6	0	0	0	0
20-29	0	0	1	12	1	33
30 or more	5	28	1	12	1	33
Entire life	11	61	3	38	1	33
Total	18	100	8	100	3	99
Occupation:						
Housewife	7	39	1	12	2	67
Government agency	5	28	5	63	1	33
Private dealer	3	16	1	12	0	0
Research	1	6	0	0	0	0
Other	2	11	1	13	0	0
Total	18	100	8	100	3	100

Table 21. (Continued)

Characteristic	Stage A Sources N=18		Stage B Sources N=8		Stage C Sources N=3	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Childhood residence:						
Farm	14	78	4	50	3	100
Town	4	22	3	38	0	0
City	0	0	1	12	0	0
Total	18	100	8	100	3	100

[1] Total percent does not always equal 100 due to rounding error.
[2] Housewife = housewife; Government agency = ASCS office manager, FHA supervisor, PCA loan officer; Private dealer = banker, dealer or salesman (feed, seed, fertilizer, chemicals, farm supplies, farm equipment), peanut shelling company manager; Research = Extension specialist, Extension agents (agriculture and home economics), soil conservation technician, doctors; and Other = deputy sheriff and funeral home director.

The Typical Stage A Source

Data in Table 21 indicate that the stage A home source was most often a black housewife (39 percent), less than 50 years of age, having 8 or more years of education and a farm background, working full-time and having resided in the county her entire life. Distinction by annual income is not as easily made for stage A individuals. Twenty-eight percent of stage A sources had an annual income of $3,999 or less. Another 28 percent had incomes of $10,000 or more.

The Typical Stage B Source

Table 21 shows that the typical stage B home source was less than 50 years of age (63 percent), a white government agent with 8 or more years of education, with a farm background, and employed full-time for an annual salary of $10,000 or more. Thirty-eight percent had resided in the county 1-9 years, an additional 38 percent their entire lives.

The Typical Stage C Source

Only three stage C home sources were cited in the home phase of the study (Table 21). Two were housewives and one a vocational agriculture teacher. All three had 8 or more years of education and a farm background. Two were white, employed full-time, one with an annual income of $3,999 or less and two with incomes of $7,000-$9,999.

The three individuals in stage C were distributed among three different categories for age and length of residence in county. Thus, no typical source could be established in relation to those two characteristics.

6. The Relationships of Selected Sociopsychological Variables to Degree of Rationality in Decision-Making; Availability, Usage, and Credibility of Media (Interpersonal, Mass, and Publications); and Degree of Linkage Between Interpersonal Information Sources Used and Research-Based Information Sources

This study suspected that certain sociopsychological variables would be related to rationality in decision-making (RDM); to availability, usage, and

credibility of media; and to degree of linkage between interpersonal information sources and research-based information sources. Those variables are age, education, present/future value orientation, and social participation.

The Relationships of Age, Education, Present/Future Value Orientation, and Social Participation to Rationality in Decision-Making

Each of the selected sociopsychological variables was measured and used to characterize the target population. The results of those measurements were indicated in Tables 6 and 7. Two multiple regression equations, one for farm operators and one for homemakers, were used to determine the cumulative and individual effects of the selected variables on RDM. Multiple correlation coefficients (R^2-values) were generated for each equation. Table 22 presents the R^2-value, and its F-value, for the two equations. A .10 level of significance was used to test for relationships of selected variables to RDM.

Table 22. The amount of variance in rationality of decision-making among disadvantaged farm families explained by the selected independent variables (N = 120)

Dependent Variable	R^2-value	F-Value
Farm operator	.060	1.98*
Homemaker	.096	3.30**

* Significant at .10 level.
** Significant at .01 level.

The farm operators' F-value (1.98) was significant at the .10 level. The homemakers' F-value (3.30) was significant at the .01 level. The farm operators' R^2-value of .06 indicated that 6 percent of the total variability of RDM for farm operators was accounted for in the specific variables selected for testing. Although significant, the amount of variation is small. The homemakers' R^2-value of .096 indicated that approximately 10 percent of the total measured variability of RDM for homemakers was accounted for in the selected variables of age, present/future value orientation, level of education, and participation in organizations.

To assess the relative importance of the four independent variables, their partial regression coefficients were examined for the direction and significance of their relationship with RDM. Table 23 shows the results of that examination.

Table 23. Relationship between selected variables and the variability in rationality of decision-making of farm operators and homemakers

Variable	Farm Operators (N=130)	Homemakers (N=130)
	t-value	t-value
Age	−0.007	0.310
Education	−0.906	1.842*
Present/future value orientation	1.438	1.874*
Social participation	2.311[1]	1.114

* Significant at .10 level; two-tailed test; t(130) = 1.66.

The t-test value (t) of the regression coefficient shows that the relationship between age and RDM was not statistically significant for either farm operators or homemakers (Table 23). For level of education the t-value was significant (.10 level) and positive for homemakers only. The t-value for present/future value orientation was positive for both farm operators and homemakers but was significant (.10 level) only for homemakers. Finally, for social participation the t-value was positive for farm operators and homemakers, but significant (.10 level) only for farm operators.

The Relationship of Selected Sociopsychological Variables to Availability, Usage, and Credibility of Information Media

Chi-square tests of significance were made to test for relationships between selected characteristics to availability, usage, and credibility of media. A .05 level of significance was selected to test for relationships. The data in Table 24 revealed no significant relationships between the selected sociopsychological variables and the availability of media for either farm operators or homemakers. Similarly, the data in Table 25 indicate no significant relationships between the selected sociopsychological variables and media usage for either farm operators or homemakers. Finally, the data in Table 26 show that no significant relationships existed between the selected sociopsychological variables and farm operators' perception of media credibility. However, homemakers' age was significantly (.05 level) related to their perception of media credibility. No significant relationshi were revealed for the remainder of the sociopsychological variables (homemakers' characteristics).

Table 24. Chi-square tests for significant relationships between selected sociopsychological variables and media availability

Characteristic	Media Availability					
	Mass	Pub.	Mass-Pub.	N	df	X^2-value
Farm Operator:						
Age, yr:						
49 or less	12	0	37	49		
50-59	11	1	29	41		
60 or more	7	0	33	40		
Total	30	1	99	130	4	3.37
Education, yr:						
4 or less	16	0	30	46		
5-7	9	0	42	51		
8 or more	5	1	27	33		
Total	30	1	99	130	4	8.34
Present/future value orientation score:						
Low = 7-12	12	0	29	41		
Medium = 13-16	11	0	35	46		
High = 17-21	7	1	35	43		
Total	30	1	99	130	4	3.89

Table 24. (Continued)

Characteristic	Media Availability			N	df	X^2-value
	Mass	Pub.	Mass-Pub.			
Social participation score:						
Low = 0-3	19	1	33	53		
Medium = 4-8	7	0	32	39		
High = 9-36	4	0	34	38		
Total	30	1	99	130	4	10.64
Homemaker:						
Age, yr:						
49 or less	14	1	48	63		
50-59	13	0	32	45		
60 or more	3	0	19	22		
Total	30	1	99	130	4	3.04
Education, yr:						
4 or less	4	0	6	10		
5-7	8	0	28	36		
8 or more	18	1	65	84		
Total	30	1	99	130	4	2.27
Present/future value orientation score:						
Low = 7-12	9	0	33	42		
Medium = 13-16	11	1	30	42		
High = 17-21	10	0	36	46		
Total	30	1	99	130	4	3.64
Social participation score:						
Low = 0-3	19	1	21	41		
Medium = 4-8	5	0	29	34		
High = 9-36	6	0	49	55		
Total	30	1	99	130	4	21.28

The Relationship of Selected Sociopsychological Variables to Degree of Linkage

Analysis of variance was used to test for the relationships between selected sociopsychological variables and degree of linkage. A .05 level of significance was used to test for relationships. Table 27 indicates the results of the analysis of variance procedure. According to these data, there were no significant relationships between the selected sociopsychological variables and the degree of linkage.

Table 25. Chi-square tests for significant relationships between selected sociopsychological variables and media usage

Characteristic	Media Usage										
	None	Pub.	Mass	Pub.-Mass	Pub.-Int.	Pub.-Int.	Mass-Int.	All	N	df	X^2 value
Farm Operators:											
Age, yr:											
49 or less	2	—	1	—	9	3	13	21	49		
50-59	1	—	0	—	9	1	14	16	41		
60 or more	1	—	0	—	11	0	8	20	40		
Total	4	—	1	—	29	4	35	57	130	10	7.58
Education, yr:											
4 or less	1	—	0	—	10	1	18	16	46		
5-7	2	—	1	—	14	1	11	22	51		
8 or more	1	—	0	—	5	2	6	19	33		
Total	4	—	1	—	29	4	35	57	130	10	10.75
Present/future value orientation score:											
Low = 7-12	2	—	1	—	11	1	13	13	41		
Medium = 13-16	1	—	0	—	10	1	11	23	46		
High = 17-21	1	—	0	—	8	2	11	21	43		
Total	4	—	1	—	29	4	35	57	130	10	6.52
Social participation score:											
Low = 0-3	1	—	0	—	10	2	22	18	53		
Medium = 4-8	3	—	1	—	8	0	6	21	39		
High = 9-36	0	—	0	—	11	2	7	18	38		
Total	4	—	1	—	29	4	35	57	130	10	18.72

Table 25. (Continued)

Characteristic	Media Usage										
	None	Pub.	Mass	Pub.-Mass	Pub.-Int.	Pub.-Mass-Int.	Mass-Int.	All	N	df	X^2-value
Homemakers:											
Age, yr:											
49 or less	4	—	—	1	21	4	9	24	63		
50-59	2	—	—	0	15	5	7	16	45		
60 or more	1	—	—	2	6	3	3	7	22		
Total	7	—	—	3	42	12	19	47	130	10	7.42
Education, yr:											
4 or less	1	—	—	0	3	1	3	2	10		
5-7	2	—	—	2	14	4	6	8	36		
8 or more	4	—	—	1	25	7	10	37	84		
Total	7	—	—	3	42	12	19	47	130	10	9.92
Present/future value orientation score:											
Low = 7-12	2	—	—	1	18	3	7	11	42		
Medium = 13-16	2	—	—	2	12	4	7	15	42		
High = 17-21	3	—	—	0	12	5	5	21	46		
Total	7	—	—	3	42	12	19	47	130	10	7.83
Social participation score:											
Low = 0-3	4	—	—	2	14	3	7	11	41		
Medium = 4-8	1	—	—	0	10	5	4	14	34		
High = 9-36	2	—	—	1	18	4	8	22	55		
Total	7	—	—	3	42	12	19	47	130	10	7.60

Table 26. Chi-square tests for significant relationships between selected sociopsychological variables and media credibility

Characteristic	Media Credibility			N	df	X^2 value
	Mass	Pub.	Int.			
Farm Operator:						
Age, yr:						
49 or less	8	8	33	49		
50-59	4	5	32	41		
60 or more	5	6	29	40		
Total	17	19	94	130	4	1.37
Education, yr:						
4 or less	3	10	33	46		
5-7	10	5	36	51		
8 or more	4	4	25	33		
Total	17	19	33	130	4	5.82
Present/future value orientation score:						
Low = 7-12	5	4	32	41		
Medium = 13-16	7	8	31	46		
High = 17-21	5	7	31	43		
Total	17	19	94	130	4	1.58
Social participation score:						
Low = 0-3	9	9	35	53		
Medium = 4-8	2	6	31	39		
High = 9-36	6	4	28	38		
Total	17	19	94	130	4	3.95
Homemaker:						
Age, yr:						
49 or less	8	10	45	63		
50-59	4	1	40	45		
60 or more	2	6	14	22		
Total	14	17	99	130	4	9.84*
Education, yr:						
4 or less	2	1	7	10		
5-7	4	3	29	36		
8 or more	8	13	63	84		
Total	14	17	99	130	4	2.14
Present/future value orientation score:						
Low = 7-12	3	6	33	42		
Medium = 13-16	4	6	32	42		
High = 17-21	7	5	34	46		
Total	14	17	99	130	4	1.75

TABLE 26 (Continued)

Characteristic	Media Credibility: Mass	Pub.	Int.	N	df	X^2-value
Social participation score:						
Low = 0-3	5	3	33	41		
Medium = 4-8	2	7	25	34		
High = 9-36	7	7	41	55		
Total	14	17	99	130	4	3.69

* Significant at the .05 level.

Table 27. Mean values by degree of linkage, by selected sociopsychological variables

Variable	Degree of linkage ($\bar{X}$): Closely Linked	Distantly Linked	Not Linked	P
Farm operators (N = 29):				
Age	52	48	48	NS
Education	5	4	7	NS
Present/future value orientation	14	15	15	NS
Social participation	7	5	10	NS[1]
Homemakers (N = 18):				
Age	59	50	51	NS
Education	7	9	6	NS
Present/future value orientation	15	16	15	NS
Social participation	7	12	7	NS

[1] The social participation scores were so low that they really do not distinguish between low and high participation. Thus, no conclusions can be drawn regarding the relationship between social participation score and degree of linkage.

PART III. LIST OF REFERENCES AND GLOSSARY

A. LIST OF REFERENCES

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B. GLOSSARY

Agents: those persons concerned with the dissemination of information and/or the alteration of behavior of people with whom they interact, e.g., county Extension agents (agricultural and home economics), nutrition aides, vocational-agricultural teachers, home economics teachers, representatives of governmental agencies, and lending institutions.

Anomia: a psychological term referring to the state of mind of one who has been pulled up from his moral roots and no longer has any standards—only disconnected urges.

Anomie: a sociological term referring to a group of people who have been pulled up from their moral roots and who have lost their sense of direction.

Communication: a process by which messages are transferred from a source to a receiver. The transfer of ideas from a source with a viewpoint of modifying the behavior of receivers.

Communication patterns: those media (interpersonal, mass, or publications) used by disadvantaged farm families as sources of information for farm and home decision-making; the combinations of media they appear to use.

Credibility: the state of (Meine, 1965, p. 174) "being worthy of credit, reliance, or confidence as to truth and correctness: applied to persons or things."

Decision-making: conceived in this study as the process of arriving at a preferred end by the subprocesses of (1) orientation, (2) observation, (3) analysis, (4) implementation, and (5) feedback and responsibility as the basis for future action.

Disadvantaged farm family (DFF): a man, wife, and children (if any) domiciled together and meeting the criteria of: (1) farming a production unit of 10 acres or more from which total annual receipts are $50 or more, or farming a production unit of 9 acres or less from which a total annual return of $250 or more is realized; (2) having an income below the eligibility standard set for the North Carolina Social Services Food Stamp Program (i.e., $4320 per year for a family of four).

Disadvantaged farm operator: any individual who earns a living by farming and meets the criteria established in the definition of disadvantaged farm family.

Disadvantaged homemaker: any individual whose major responsibility is that of caring for or managing the home in which she lives and who meets the criteria established in the definition of disadvantaged farm family.

Extended family: those persons defined as being kin and their nuclear families (Bertrand, 1967).

Heterophily: the degree to which pairs of individuals differ in particular attributes, such as beliefs, values, educational level, and age.

Homophily: the degree to which pairs of individuals are similar in particular attributes, such as beliefs, values, educational level, and age.

Linkage: the actual chain of interpersonal relations that facilitiates the transfer or relay of information from a source to a destination. Such a communication chain, or network, consists of any number of individuals, starting with a source person and sequentially continuing through all of the related individuals who are his direct and indirect receivers. Essentially, a communication chain or network consists of a number of linked dyads in which the receiver in one is the source in the next.

Media: a generic term encompassing several distinct information sources that share common attributes. The various media and the information sources in them are communication channels through which a message is transmitted, conveyed, or carried on. In this study, media are classified as either interpersonal, mass or publications. Information sources within each category are: interpersonal—agents, church, dealers, and family-friends-neighbors; mass—newspapers, radio, and TV; and publications—bulletins-pamphlets, *Farmer's Almanac*, and magazines.

Nuclear family: a husband and wife plus those children they identify as their own and for whom they assume the role of parent (Bertrand, 1967).

Opinion leader: a person who informally influences other individuals' attitudes or overt behavior with relative frequency (Rogers and Shoemaker, 1971).

The poor: those in a condition of poverty (i.e., the disadvantaged).

Poverty: conceived in this study as a multi-faceted phenomenon which has many distinct social, psychological, economic and political ramifications. Operationalized in this study by the criteria used to identify disadvantaged farm families.

Rationality of decision-making (RDM): conformity to the decision-making process developed for this study.

Research-based information source: a person (specialist or researcher in a specific subject matter area) who represents a profession or institution recognized by the scientific community as possessing impartial research information that has been validated empirically by application of the scientific method as opposed to value, moral, or ethical judgments. In addition, any research information transmitted by these individuals in written or publication form will be considered a research-based source of information.

Sources A, B, and C: represent those persons who serve as links in the chain of information flow to disadvantaged farm families. "A" is the interpersonal information source used by the disadvantaged farm families; "B" is the interpersonal information source used by "A"; and "C" is the interpersonal information source used by "B."

Subculture: the total way of life of the disadvantaged farm family, including the legacy of past human behavior, and representing the historical accumulation of artifacts, knowledge, beliefs, and values by which they cope with their world.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Research Questionnaires

Name _____

Address _____

Interviewer _____

Map Number _____

A STUDY OF DECISION-MAKING AND COMMUNICATION PATTERNS OF DISADVANTAGED FARM FAMILIES IN THE NORTH CAROLINA COASTAL PLAINS AREA

Experiment Station Rural Development Project
North Carolina State University, 1971-75

SCHEDULE NO. I
HUSBAND AND WIFE

Identification Number

Card Number

County: (MARK (X) COUNTY IN WHICH FAMILY LIVES)

1 ___ Halifax

2 ___ Northampton

3 ___ Bertie

SECTION I - SCREENING QUESTIONS

The purpose of this section is to determine if the family is to be interviewed, that is, if the definitions of "farm," "family," and "income" formulated for this study apply.

(USE CROSS MARKS (X) FOR RESPONSES. IF "NO" IS MARKED IN EITHER QUESTION NO. 2 OR QUESTION NO. 3 BELOW, THE FAMILY DOES NOT QUALIFY. HOWEVER, CONTINUE THROUGH QUESTION NO. 8 BEFORE TERMINATING THE INTERVIEW.)

First of all, I would like to ask you a few questions about your farm and family.

1. How many acres do you farm?

   1 ___ 0 - 9 (IF MARKED, ASK QUESTION NO. 2 AND SKIP QUESTION NO. 3.)

   2 ___ 10 or more (IF MARKED, SKIP TO QUESTION NO. 3.)

2. Did you sell as much as $250.00 worth of farm products during the year?

   1 ___ YES ($250.00 or more)

   2 ___ NO (Less than $250.00)

3. Did you sell as much as $50.00 worth of farm products during the year?

   1 ___ YES ($50.00 or more)

   2 ___ NO (Less than $50.00)

4. Are you married?

   1 ___ YES

   2 ___ NO

5. Do you and your wife both live here?

   1 ___ YES

   2 ___ NO

6. Do you have children or grandchildren living with you in this house?

   ___ YES (IF YES, ASK) How many?

   ___ Children

   ___ Grandchildren

   ___ NO

(ADD NUMBER OF CHILDREN, GRANDCHILDREN, AND PARENTS TO ARRIVE AT THE SIZE OF HOUSEHOLD. BASED ON SIZE OF HOUSEHOLD, FIND APPROPRIATE MONTHLY INCOME LIMIT IN SCHEDULE BELOW AND ASK QUESTION NO. 7, FILLING IN THE BLANK WITH MONTHLY INCOME ALLOWABLE FOR THE RESPONDENT'S SIZE OF FAMILY.)

Maximum Allowable Monthly Net Food Stamp Income Standards[1]

Size of household	Monthly income	Yearly income
2	222	2664
3	293	3516
4	360	4320
5	427	5124
6	493	5916
7	547	6564
8	600	7200
9	653	7836
10	706	8472

Household having more than 10 family members, for each additional member add $53.00 per month.

7. Would you say that your total family income falls below _____ dollars a month or _____ a year?

1 ___ YES

2 ___ NO

[1]Based on eligibility standards for 1972.

8. Would you say that the total family income received by all members of your family living at home is:

1 ___ Less than $1,000

2 ___ $1,000 - $1,999

3 ___ $2,000 - $2,999

4 ___ $3,000 - $3,999

5 ___ $4,000 - $4,999

6 ___ $5,000 - $5,999

7 ___ $6,000 - $6,999

8 ___ $7,000 - $9,999

9 ___ $10,000 or more

(IF RESPONDENT MEETS THE CRITERIA FOR "FARM," "FAMILY," AND "INCOME" FORMULATED FOR PURPOSES OF THIS STUDY, PROCEED TO SECTION II. IF NOT, THANK RESPONDENT FOR THE INFORMATION AND TERMINATE THE INTERVIEW.)

SECTION II - PERSONAL AND SOCIAL DATA

(ENTER RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS INCLUDED IN THE FOLLOWING PARAGRAPH ON FORM-1 FOR ALL PERSONS LIVING IN HOUSEHOLD. HUSBAND OR WIFE MAY RESPON).)

I would like for you to tell me something about yourself, members of your family, and all other people living with you in this house. Starting with yourself (husband), by what name do your friends call you? Do you mind giving me your age on your last birthday? What about your school days -- give me the highest grade you completed in school? Now tell me about your work -- What have you been doing for the last month; that is, have you been (READ CODE 2) working off the farm full time (40 hr week), working off the farm part time (less than 40 hr week), out of work and looking for nonfarm employment, keeping house, going to school (include TI), unable to work, retired, or other? In addition to your farming, do you give time to any other type of work for which you receive money?

Now how about your wife (CONTINUE ACROSS FILLING IN FORM SAME AS FOR HUSBAND) -- What is her name, age, highest grade completed in school, availability for work.

I would like to talk with you next about your children and others living with you. (CONTINUE ACROSS, FILLING IN FORM FOR EACH CHILD, GRANDCHILD, AND ALL PERSONS LIVING IN HOUSE. RECORD FOR EACH OF THESE, "SEX" AND "RELATIONSHIP TO FAMILY.")

9. FORM-1

PERSONS IN HOUSEHOLD* Name	Relationship to family Code (1)	Sex (M or F)	Age at last birthday	Highest grade completed in school	Availability for work Code (2)
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					
8					
9					
10					
11					

Code 1

1 = Child (son or daughter)
2 = Grandchild
3 = Other child
4 = Son or daughter-in-law
5 = Parent of husband or wife
6 = Other adult

Code 2

1 = Work off farm full time (40 hr/week or more)
2 = Work off farm part time (Less than 40 hr/week)
3 = Out of work and looking for nonfarm employment
4 = Keep house
5 = Go to school (include TI)
6 = Unable to work
7 = Retired
8 = Other (specify) _____
9 = Inadequate information

*Include as persons in household all people living in the household with the family at the time of interview and taking part in household activities (sleeping and eating) during the last 6 months. (These persons need not be related by blood to the family.) Include children who are away in college or boarding school.

(USE CROSS MARKS (X) FOR RESPONSES TO ALL QUESTIONS THROUGHOUT THE INSTRUMENT EXCEPT WHERE FIGURES, NAMES, OR CIRCLES ARE REQUESTED.)

Next, I would like to talk with you about your present farming operation and where you have lived. (HUSBAND TO ANSWER QUESTIONS 10, 11, AND 12.)

10. How would you describe your present farming arrangements; that is, are you an operator, tenant, or do you have other farming arrangement ?

(MARK (X) TENURE STATUS "a" OR "b" BELOW AND ARRANGEMENTS WHERE APPROPRIATE)

a. ___ Operator (including partnership)

___ All owned; Number acres owned: _____ A.

___ Part owned; Number acres owned: _____ A.

Number acres not owned: _____ A.

(IF "PART OWNED" IS MARKED (X), ARRANGEMENTS BELOW MUST BE MARKED.)

Arrangements regarding part non-owned:

___ Cash renting

___ Share renting (including sharecropper)

___ Other (Describe) _____

_____

b. ___ Tenant (Non-owned)

Arrangements: (Total acres _____)

___ Cash renting

___ Share renting (including sharecropper)

___ Other (Describe) _____

_____

11. How many years have you operated or worked under your present farming arrangements?

1. ___ Less than 2 years

2 ___ 2 - 4 years

3 ___ 5 - 9 years

4 ___ 10 years or more

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

12. About how long have you lived on this farm? (MARK (X) BOTH HUSBAND AND WIFE IN QUESTIONS WHERE SPACE IS PROVIDED.)

Husband	Wife	
1 ____	1 ____	Less than 2 years
2 ____	2 ____	2 - 4 years
3 ____	3 ____	5 - 9 years
4 ____	4 ____	10 - 19 years
5 ____	5 ____	20 - 29 years
6 ____	6 ____	30 years or more
9 ____	9 ____	Inadequate information

13. Social Participation - Now, I would like to ask about organizations to which each of you belong, or take part in. Do you belong to or attend church, etc.? (RECORD "1, 2, 3" FOR EACH "YES" RESPONSE. LEAVE "BLANK" IF RESPONSE IS "NO.") (RECORD FOR BOTH HUSBAND AND WIFE.)

RESPONSE SCALE

Code: Membership = 1; Attend = 2; Hold office, serve on committee = 3

Name or type of organization	Are you a member?		Do you attend a fourth of the time?		Do you hold office or serve on committees?	
	H = Husband				W = Wife	
CODE	H 1	W 1	H 2	W 2	H 3	W 3
Church						
Sunday School						
Farm organizations (Farm Bureau, NFO, Grange, etc.)						
School organizations (PTA, Boosters Club, etc.)						
Community clubs (Homemakers Club, Volunteer Firemen, etc.						
Other (LIST BELOW)						

AT THIS POINT IN THE INTERVIEW, THE HUSBAND AND WIFE WILL SEPARATE TO ANSWER REMAINING QUESTIONS IN THE INSTRUMENT.

Questions in Schedule No. II, pages 119 through 128, are to be answered by the husband.

Questions in Schedule No. III, pages 131 through 147, are to be answered by the wife.

Page 148 is to be completed jointly by the two interviewers AFTER leaving the residence of family interviewed and BEFORE interviewing the next family.

S E P A R A T E

HUSBAND

AND

WIFE

BEFORE PROCEEDING TO

QUESTIONS ON

SCHEDULE NO. II: HUSBAND ONLY

Interviewer_____

SCHEDULE NO. II
HUSBAND - ONLY

SECTION III - DECISION-MAKING, COMMUNICATION, AND LINKAGE DATA FOR FARM - INTERVIEW HUSBAND

Next, I would like to talk with you about your farming.

14. What are 2 or 3 of the most important decisions about your farming that you have made during the past 12 months? (WRITE IN. CODE TO BE DETERMINED LATER.)

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

15. Of these (READ DECISIONS CITED ABOVE), which one decision do you consider to be the most important that you had to make; that is, which was the toughest or hardest one for you to make?

(CIRCLE LETTER WHICH REPRESENTS THE ONE DECISION CHOSEN FROM ANSWERS GIVEN TO QUESTION NO. 14 ABOVE.)

a. b. c.

16. Did you talk with anyone outside your family about this problem before you actually made your decision? (MARK (X) YES OR NO)

1 ___ YES

2 ___ NO (IF NO, SKIP TO QUESTION NO. 18)

9 ___ NO RESPONSE

17. Did this person help you to make up your mind? (MARK (X) YES OR NO)

1 ___ YES (IF YES, ASK QUESTIONS a, b, c BELOW AND PROBE FOR ONLY ONE PERSON'S NAME.)

a. What is this person's name? (WRITE IN NAME)

_____

b. Where does he/she live? (WRITE IN ADDRESS)

_____

c. What type of work does he/she do? (WRITE IN)

_____

2 ___ NO

3 ___ Not applicable

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

18. Rationality Measurement - (Relative to "farm" decision cited in question No. 15)

There are a few more questions which I would like for you to answer for me regarding this important farm decision which you made; that is: (REPEAT FARM DECISION CIRCLED IN QUESTION NO. 15.)

	MARK (X) ONE			
	YES	NO	DON'T KNOW	
1.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	a. Did you know what you wanted to do before you made this decision?
2.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	b. Did you put off making this decision?
3.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	c. Were you forced to make this decision before you were ready?
4.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	d. Did you talk to anyone outside your family about the problem before you actually made your decision?
5.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	e. Did looking at magazines or newspapers (including ads), college information bulletins, TV or radio give you ideas about what to do?

	YES	NO	DON'T KNOW		
6.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	f.	Did you think about any other way that you could solve this problem?
7.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	g.	Did you take longer than a week to decide what to do?
8.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	h.	Did you feel you were taking a chance when you made up your mind to handle the problem this way?
9.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	i.	Did you talk this over a lot with your wife or children?
10.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	j.	Do you take full credit for making this decision?
11.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	k.	After doing what you decided, have you talked to, or heard of, other persons who have made the same kind of decision?
12.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	l.	Would you do things differently if you could do it all over again?

Now I would like to get a clearer picture of any other source of help which you got in making up your mind about this most important "farm" decision we just talked about; that is: (REPEAT FARM DECISION CIRCLED IN QUESTION NO. 15)

19. Media/Information Source Usage - Did you get any help in any other way or from any other source in making up your mind about this "farm" problem?

(MARK (X) YES OR NO IN COLUMN.)

SOURCE	COLUMN YES	NO
Newspapers	1 ___	2 ___
Farm magazines	1 ___	2 ___
Bulletins or pamphlets	1 ___	2 ___
Farmer's Almanac	1 ___	2 ___
Radio	1 ___	2 ___
TV	1 ___	2 ___
Government agencies (Welfare, FHA, SCS, ASCS, etc.)	1 ___	2 ___
Agricultural Extension Agent	1 ___	2 ___
Vo-Ag Teacher	1 ___	2 ___
Dealer or salesman (fertilizer, seed, feed)	1 ___	2 ___
Lending institutions (PCA, banks, etc.)	1 ___	2 ___
Friend or neighbor	1 ___	2 ___
Family member or relative	1 ___	2 ___
Minister of church	1 ___	2 ___
Other (Identify) _____	1 ___	2 ___

(QUESTION NO. 20 IS NOT RELATED TO A SPECIFIC FARM PROBLEM, BUT IS DESIGNED TO DETERMINE HOW MUCH FAITH THE RESPONDENT HAS IN VARIOUS SOURCES OF INFORMATION.)

20. Credibility of Farm Information Sources - (Mass Media, Publications, and Interpersonal)

I would like to ask you a few more questions about where you get farming information and how you feel about the truthfulness of it.

a. Between TV, radio, and newspapers, which one source would you say gives the most truthful and right, that is, accurate farming information? (MARK (X) ONLY ONE SOURCE.)

Mass media sources

1 ___ TV

2 ___ Radio

3 ___ Newspapers

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

b. For information on farming, which one of the following sources would you say gives the most truthful and right, that is, accurate information - farm magazines, bulletins, or the Farmer's Almanac? (MARK (X) ONLY ONE SOURCE.)

Publication sources

1 ___ Farm magazines

2 ___ Bulletins and pamphlets

3 ___ Farmer's Almanac

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

c. For help in making farm decisions, which one source would you say gives the most truthful and right, that is, accurate information -- friends and neighbors, Agricultural Extension Agent, Vo-Ag teacher, farm dealers, family members, representatives of other governmental agencies (Welfare, FHA, ASCS, SCS, etc.), minister of church, or leading institutions? (MARK (X) ONLY ONE SOURCE.)

Interpersonal sources

1 ___ Friends and neighbors

2 ___ Agricultural Extension Agent

3 ___ Vo-Ag teacher

4 ___ Farm dealers or salesmen

5 ___ Family members

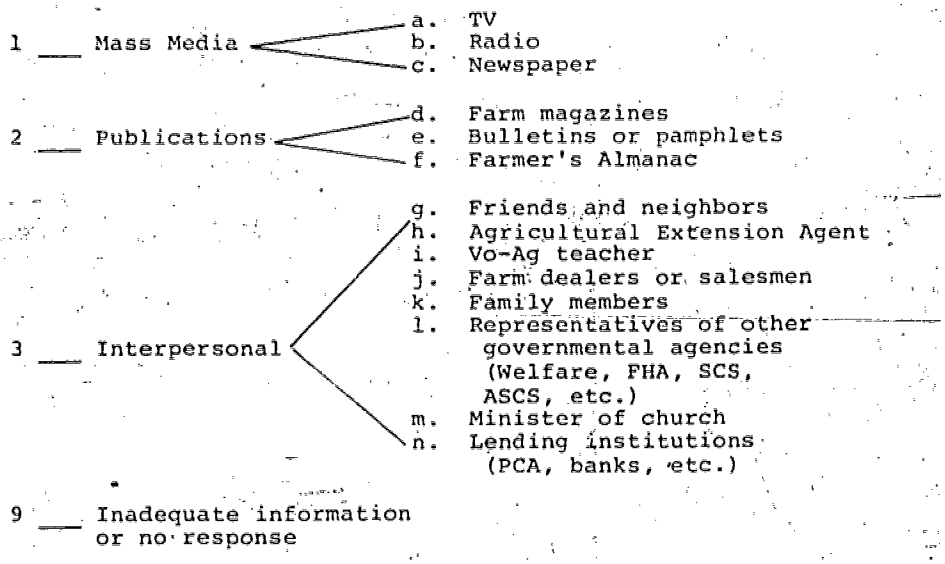
6 ___ Representatives of other governmental agencies (Welfare, FHA, ASCS, SCS, etc.)

7 ___ Minister of church

8 ___ Lending institutions (PCA, banks, etc.)

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

d. Of the different information sources you have named, that is (REPEAT NAME OF SOURCES CHECKED IN QUESTIONS a, b, AND c), which one of these three do you believe is the most overall truthful source of information for you? (MARK (X) ONLY ONE SOURCE.)



SECTION IV - POLITICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL DATA - FOR HUSBAND

I would like to know something about your participation and feelings regarding the political life in your community. (MARK (X) RESPONSES, EXCEPT WHERE NAMES ARE TO BE WRITTEN IN.)

21. Are you registered to vote?

1 ___ YES

2 ___ NO (IF NO, SKIP TO QUESTION NO. 23)

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

22. Did you vote in the November, 1972, election?

1 ___ YES

2 ___ NO (IF NO, ASK) Why not? (WRITE IN)

_____

3 ___ Not applicable

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

23. Do you know who represents you in the North Carolina Senate?

1 ___ YES (IF YES, ASK) What is his name?

(WRITE IN) _____

2 ___ NO

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

24. Do you know who represents you in the North Carolina House of Representatives?

1 ___ YES (IF YES, ASK) What is his name?

(WRITE IN) _____

2 ___ NO

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

25. Do you know the County Commissioners who represent your county? (CODE "YES" IF RESPONDENT IDENTIFIED AT LEAST ONE CORRECTLY.)

1 ___ YES (IF YES, ASK) What are their names? (WRITE IN)

2 ___ NO

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

26. Anomia Measurement - Different people often see life differently. I am going to make a few statements which show some of the ways of looking at life. From the way you feel about things, would you please say whether you AGREE, DISAGREE, OR DON'T KNOW with the following statements. (CIRCLE "1," "2," OR "3" UNDER THE RESPONSE.)

RESPONSE CODE

1 = Agree	2 = Don't Know or Not Applicable	3 = Disagree

	Response			Statements
1.	1	2	3	Nowadays a person has to live pretty much for today and let tomorrow take care of itself.
2.	1	2	3	In spite of what some people say, the lot of the average man is getting worse, not better.
3.	1	2	3	It's hardly fair to bring children into the world with the way things look for the future.
4.	1	2	3	These days a person doesn't really know whom he can count on.
5.	1	2	3	There's little use writing to public officials because often they aren't really interested in the problems of the average man.
6.	1	2	3	Things have usually gone against me in life.

27. Present-Future Value Orientation - People have different attitudes toward time, that is, about how they feel about the present and the future. From your point of view, would you say that you AGREE, UNCERTAIN, OR DISAGREE with the seven statements which I will read. (CIRCLE THE NUMBER "1," "2," OR "3" UNDER RESPONSE THAT BEST DESCRIBES RESPONDENT'S REACTION TO STATEMENTS ON PRESENT vs FUTURE VALUE ORIENTATION.)

RESPONSE CODE

1 = Agree	2 = Uncertain	3 = Disagree

	Response			Statements
1.	1	2	3	It is best to give most attention to what is happening now in the present rather than being concerned with the future.
2.	1	2	3	Man's life should be guided more by his hopes for the future.
3.	1	2	3	With things as they are today, a sensible person ought to think only about the present, without worrying about what is going to happen tomorrow.
4.	1	2	3	It is useless to plan, since one's plans hardly ever work out.
5.	1	2	3	Nowadays a person who plans doesn't really know how to enjoy the present.
6.	1	2	3	The future is too uncertain for a person to plan.
7.	1	2	3	The best way to live is to look a long time ahead, work hard, and give up many things now so that the future will be better.

THANK THE RESPONDENT FOR HIS TIME AND ANSWERS.

A STUDY OF DECISION-MAKING AND COMMUNICATION PATTERNS OF DISADVANTAGED FARM FAMILIES IN THE NORTH CAROLINA COASTAL PLAINS AREA

Experiment Station Rural Development Project,
North Carolina State University, 1971-75

SCHEDULE NO. III: WIFE ONLY

NAME _____

ADDRESS _____

Interviewer _____

SCHEDULE NO. III
WIFE - ONLY

SECTION V - DECISION-MAKING, COMMUNICATION, AND LINKAGE DATA FOR HOME - INTERVIEW WIFE

For the next few minutes I would like to talk with you about your home.

28. What are 2 or 3 of the most important decisions about your home that you have made during the past 12 months? (WRITE IN. CODE TO BE DETERMINED LATER.)

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

29. Of these (READ DECISION CITED ABOVE), which one decision do you consider to be the most important that you had to make; that is, which was the toughest or hardest one for you to make?

(CIRCLE LETTER WHICH REPRESENTS THE ONE DECISION CHOSEN FROM ANSWERS GIVEN IN QUESTION NO. 28 ABOVE.)

a. b. c.

30. Did you talk with anyone outside your family about this problem before you actually made your decision? (MARK (X) YES OR NO.)

1 ___ YES

2 ___ NO (IF NO, SKIP TO QUESTION NO. 32)

9 ___ No response

31. Did this person help you to make up your mind? (MARK (X) YES OR NO)

1 ___ YES (IF YES, ASK QUESTIONS a,b,c BELOW AND PROBE FOR ONLY ONE PERSON'S NAME.)

a. What is this person's name? (WRITE IN NAME)

_____

b. Where does he/she live? (WRITE IN ADDRESS)

_____

c. What type of work does he/she do? (WRITE IN)

_____

2 ___ NO

3 ___ Not applicable

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

32. Rationality Measurement - (Relative to "home" decision cited in question No. 29)

There are a few other questions which I would like for you to answer for me regarding this important home decision which you made; that is: (REPEAT HOME DECISION CIRCLED IN QUESTION NO. 29.)

MARK (X) ONE

	YES	NO	DON'T KNOW		
1.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	a.	Did you know clearly what you wanted to do before you made this decision?
2.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	b.	Did you put off making this decision for a while?
3.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	c.	Were you forced to make this decision before you were ready?
4.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	d.	Did you talk to anyone outside your family about the problem before you actually made your decision?
5.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	e.	Did looking at magazines or newspapers (including ads), college information bulletins, TV and radio give you ideas about what to do?
6.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	f.	Did you think about any other way that you could solve this problem?
7.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	g.	Did you take longer than a week to decide what to do?
8.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	h.	Did you feel you were taking a chance when you made up your mind to handle the problem this way?
9.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	i.	Did you talk this over a lot with your husband or children?
10.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	j.	Do you take full credit for making this decision?
11.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	k.	After doing what you decided, have you talked to, or heard of, other persons who have made the same kind of decision?
12.	1 ___	2 ___	3 ___	l.	Would you do things differently if you could do it all over again?

Now I would like to get a clearer picture of any other source of help which you got in making up your mind about this most important "home" decision we just talked about; that is: (REPEAT HOME DECISION CIRCLED IN QUESTION NO. 29.)

33. Media/Information Source Usage - Did you get any help in any other source in making up your mind about this "home" problem?

(MARK (X) YES OR NO IN COLUMN.)

SOURCE	COLUMN YES	NO
Newspapers	1 ___	2 ___
Home magazines	1 ___	2 ___
Bulletins or pamphlets	1 ___	2 ___
Farmer's Almanac	1 ___	2 ___
Radio	1 ___	2 ___
TV	1 ___	2 ___
Government agencies (Welfare, FHA, ASCS, etc.)	1 ___	2 ___
Home Economics Extension Agent	1 ___	2 ___
Nutrition Aide	1 ___	2 ___
Home Economics teacher	1 ___	2 ___
Home dealer or salesman (appliances, furniture, etc.)	1 ___	2 ___
Lending institutions (PCA, banks, etc.)	1 ___	2 ___
Friend or neighbor	1 ___	2 ___
Family member or relative	1 ___	2 ___
Minister of church	1 ___	2 ___
Other (Identify) _____	1 ___	2 ___

_____

(QUESTION NO. 34 IS NOT RELATED TO A SPECIFIC HOME PROBLEM, BUT IS DESIGNED TO DETERMINE HOW MUCH FAITH THE RESPONDENT HAS IN VARIOUS SOURCES OF INFORMATION.)

34. Credibility of Home Information Sources - (Mass Media, Publications, and Interpersonal)

I would like to ask you a few more questions about where you get homemaking information and how you feel about the truthfulness of it.

a. Between TV, radio, and newspapers, which one source would you say gives the most truthful and right, that is, accurate homemaking information? (MARK (X) ONLY ONE SOURCE.)

Mass media sources

1 ___ TV

2 ___ Radio

3 ___ Newspaper

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

b. For information on homemaking, which one of the following sources would you say gives the most truthful and right, that is accurate information -- home magazines, bulletins, or the almanac? (MARK (X) ONLY ONE SOURCE.)

Publication sources

1 ___ Home magazines

2 ___ Bulletins or pamphlets

3 ___ Farmer's Almanac

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

c. For help in making home decisions, which one source would you say gives the most truthful and right, that is, accurate information -- friends and neighbors, Home Economics Extension Agent, Nutrition Aide, Home Economics teacher, home dealers, family members, representatives of other governmental agencies (Welfare, FHA, etc.), minister of church, or lending institutions. (MARK (X) ONLY ONE SOURCE.)

Interpersonal sources

1 ___ Friends and neighbors

2 ___ Home Economics Extension Agent

3 ___ Nutrition Aide

4 ___ Home Economics teacher

5 ___ Home dealers or salesmen

6 ___ Family members

7 ___ Representatives of other governmental agencies (Welfare, FHA, etc.)

8 ___ Minister of church

9 ___ Lending institutions (Home Finance, banks, etc.)

10 ___ Inadequate information or no response

d. Of the different information sources you have named, that is (REPEAT NAME OF SOURCES CHECKED IN QUESTIONS a, b, and c), which one of these three do you believe is the most overall truthful source of information for you? (MARK (X) ONLY ONE SOURCE.)

1 ___ Mass media
- a. TV
- b. Radio
- c. Newspapers

2 ___ Publications
- d. Home magazines
- e. Bulletins or pamphlets
- f. Farmer's Almanac

3 ___ Interpersonal
- g. Friends and neighbors
- h. Home Economics Extension Agent
- i. Nutrition Aide
- j. Home Economics teacher
- k. Home dealers or salesmen
- l. Family members
- m. Representatives of other governmental agencies (Welfare, FHA, ASCS, etc.)
- n. Minister
- o. Lending institutions (Home Finance, banks, etc.)

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

SECTION VII - POLITICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL DATA - FOR WIFE

I would like to know something about your participation and feelings regarding the political life in your community. (MARK (X) RESPONSES, EXCEPT WHERE RESPONSES AND NAMES ARE TO BE WRITTEN IN.)

35. Are you registered to vote?

1 ___ YES

2 ___ NO (IF NO, SKIP TO QUESTION NO. 37)

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

36. Did you vote in the November, 1972, election?

1 ___ YES

2 ___ NO (IF NO, ASK) Why Not? (WRITE IN) _____

_____

3 ___ Not applicable

37. Do you know who represents you in the North Carolina Senate?

1 ___ YES (IF YES, ASK) What is him name? (WRITE IN)

_____

2 ___ NO

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

38. Do you know who represents you in the North Carolina House of Representatives?

1 ___ YES (IF YES, ASK) What is his name? (WRITE IN)

_____

2 ___ NO

3 ___ Inadequate information or no response

39. Do you know the County Commissioners who represent your county? (CODE "YES" IF RESPONDENT IDENTIFIED AT LEAST ONE CORRECTLY.)

1 ___ YES (IF YES, ASK) What are their names? (WRITE IN)

_____

_____

_____

_____

2 ___ NO

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

40. Anomia Measurement - Different people often see life differently. I am going to make a few statements which show some of the ways of looking at life. From the way you feel about things, would you please say whether you AGREE, DISAGREE, OR DON'T KNOW with the following statements. (CIRCLE "1," "2," or "3" UNDER RESPONSE.)

RESPONSE CODE

1 = Agree	2 = Don't Know or Not Applicable	3 = Disagree

	Response			Statements
1.	1	2	3	Nowadays a person has to live pretty much for today and let tomorrow take care of itself.
2.	1	2	3	In spite of what some people say, the lot of the average man is getting worse, not better.
3.	1	2	3	It's hardly fair to bring children into the world with the way things look for the future.
4.	1	2	3	These days a person doesn't really know whom he can count on.
5.	1	2	3	There's little use writing to public officials because often they aren't really interested in the problems of the average man.
6.	1	2	3	Things have usually gone against me in life.

41. Present-Future Value Orientation - People have different attitudes toward time, that is, about how they feel about the present and the future. From your point of view, would you say that you AGREE, are UNCERTAIN, or DISAGREE with the seven statements which I will read. (CIRCLE THE NUMBER "1," "2," OR "3" UNDER RESPONSE THAT BEST DESCRIBES RESPONDENT'S REACTION TO STATEMENTS ON PRESENT vs FUTURE VALUE ORIENTATION.)

RESPONSE CODE

1 = Agree	2 = Uncertain	3 = Disagree

	Response			Statements
1.	1	2	3	It is best to give most attention to what is happening now in the present rather than being concerned with the future.
2.	1	2	3	Man's life should be guided more by his hopes for the future.
3.	1	2	3	With things as they are today, a sensible person ought to think only about the present, without worrying about what is going to happen tomorrow.
4.	1	2	3	It is useless to plan, since one's plans hardly ever work out.
5.	1	2	3	Nowadays a person who plans doesn't really know how to enjoy the present.
6.	1	2	3	The future is too uncertain for a person to plan.
7.	1	2	3	The best way to live is to look a long time ahead, work hard, and give up many things now so that the future will be better.

THANK THE RESPONDENT FOR HER TIME AND ANSWERS.

SECTION VI - FAMILY LIVING AND HEALTH MEASUREMENT

Now I would like to ask you a few questions about your home.

42. Which of the following items, that are in working order, do you have? (MARK (X) ALL THAT APPLY.)

___ Electric or gas refrigerator

___ Gas or electric stove

___ Cold running water in the home

___ Hot running water in the home

___ Bath or shower

___ Kitchen sink

___ Vacuum cleaner

___ Washing machine

___ Home freezer

___ Window air conditioner

___ Sewing machine

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY
Item Code
Code 1, if marked Code 2, if blank

43. Do you have, in working order, a: (MARK (X) ALL THAT APPLY.)

___ Television

___ Radio

___ Telephone

___ Automobile (Number ___)

44. Which of the following do you receive regularly?

___ Daily newspaper (Name _____)

___ Weekly newspaper (Name ___ _____)

___ Farm magazine

___ Other weekly or monthly magazines (Name _____

_____)

45. Do you rent or own your home?

1 ___ Own

2 ___ Rent

3 ___ Don't know

46. How many rooms (not including bathroom) do you have in your home?

___ (CODE ACTUAL NUMBER - EXCEPT IF MORE THAN NINE, CODE 9.)

47. How many rooms are used for sleeping?

___ (CODE ACTUAL NUMBER.)

48. What type of heat do you have? (IF COMBINATION RESPONSE IS GIVEN, RECORD BOTH.)

1 ___ Wood

2 ___ Coal

3 ___ Oil or gas heater

4 ___ Oil floor furnace

5 ___ Other (Specify) _____)

FOR INTERVIEWER'S USE ONLY

(MARK (X) CONDITION OF HOME REPAIR)

1 ___ Good (sound)

2 ___ Fair (deteriorating)

3 ___ Poor (dilapidated)

9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

Now I would like to ask you some questions about your family's health.

49. Do you or your husband have an illness that troubles you all of the time? (Chronic)

Husband	Wife	
1 ___	1 ___	YES
2 ___	2 ___	NO

50. What about your children; do any of those living at home have an illness that troubles them all the time? (Chronic)

1 ___ YES

2 ___ NO

3 ___ Not applicable (have no children)

51. Do either you or your husband have any handicaps or disabilities that interfere with your working?

Husband	Wife	
1 ___	1 ___	YES
2 ___	2 ___	NO (IF BOTH NO, SKIP TO QUESTION NO. 54)
9 ___	9 ___	No response

52. Does this/do these need continued treatment?

1 ___ YES

2 ___ NO (IF NO, SKIP TO QUESTION NO. 54)

3 ___ Not applicable

53. Is it being treated?

1 ___ YES

2 ___ NO (IF NO, ASK) Why isn't it? (WRITE IN) _____

_____

3 ___ Not applicable

54. About how many weeks during the past year did sickness or injuries keep you from working? (USE CODE BELOW)

___ Husband

___ Wife

FOR INTERVIEWER'S USE ONLY

Code for loss of time

1 = None

2 = Less than 1 week

3 = 1 week, but less than 2 weeks

4 = 2-3 weeks

5 = More than 3 weeks

6 = Not applicable

9 = Inadequate information or no response

55. What about your children; do any of those living at home have any handicaps or disabilities?

1 ___ YES

2 ___ NO (IF NO, SKIP TO QUESTION NO. 58)

3 ___ Not applicable (no children)

56. Do these need continued treatment?

1 ___ YES

2 ___ NO (IF NO, SKIP TO QUESTION NO. 58)

3 ___ Not applicable

57. Are they being treated?

1 ___ YES

2 ___ NO (IF NO, ASK) Why Not? (WRITE IN) _____

_____

3 ___ Not applicable

58. Do you have a family doctor?

1 ___ YES

2 ___ NO

59. Who usually treats your family when they are sick?

1 ___ No one

2 ___ Members of the family

3 ___ Doctor

4 ___ Neighbor

5 ___ Druggist

6 ___ County Health Department

7 ___ Other (Specify) _____

60. When was the last time you and your husband had a physical checkup or examination?

Husband	Wife	
1 ____	1 ____	Never
2 ____	2 ____	Less than 1 year ago
3 ____	3 ____	1 year, but less than 2 years ago
4 ____	4 ____	2-4 years ago
5 ____	5 ____	More than 4 years ago

61. Have any members of your family living at home had any trouble with their teeth during the last 2 years?

1 ___ YES

2 ___ NO

62. When was the last time that some member of your family living at home went to a dentist?

1 ___ Never

2 ___ Less than 1 year ago

3 ___ 1-2 years ago

4 ___ 2-4 years ago

5 ___ More than 4 years ago

63. Do you have hospitalization insurance?

1 ___ YES

2 ___ NO

64. About how much money have you paid for medical and dental care (that is, doctors, dentists, drugs, hospitalization, etc.) during the last 12 months? Would you say that you have spent or paid:

1 ___ Nothing

2 ___ Less than $50

3 ___ $ 50 - $ 99

4 ___ $100 - $199

5 ___ $200 - $299

6 ___ $300 - $499

7 ___ $500 - $749

8 ___ $750 or more

9 ___ Inadequate information

65. Would you tell me about how much you presently owe doctors, hospitals, drugstores, etc.?

1 ___ Nothing

2 ___ Less than $50

3 ___ $ 50 - $ 99

4 ___ $100 - $199

5 ___ $200 - $299

6 ___ $300 - $499

7 ___ $500 - $749

8 ___ $750 or more

9 ___ Inadequate information

66. Have you had any contact with the County Health Department or the County Health Nurse in the past 12 months?

1 ___ YES (IF YES, ASK) For what purpose?

___ Vaccinations or shots

___ Prenatal care

___ Chest X-ray

___ Blood test

___ Information (Nutrition classes, etc.)

___ Other (Specify) _____

2 ___ NO

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY
Code for contact
Code 1, if marked
Code 2, if blank

INTERVIEWERS TO COMPLETE JOINTLY AFTER LEAVING THE RESIDENCE OF THE FAMILY INTERVIEWED AND BEFORE INTERVIEWING THE NEXT FAMILY

1. Name of family _____

2. Address _____

3. Ethnic background: (MARK (X) BY PROPER RESPONSE)

   1 ___ White

   2 ___ Negro

   3 ___ Indian

   4 ___ Other

   9 ___ Inadequate information or no response

4. County _____

5. Interviewers' names _____

6. Date of 1st call _____

   2nd call _____

   3rd call _____

7. Were the respondents - (CIRCLE MOST APPROPRIATE NUMBER)

Unfriendly	1 2 3 4 5	Friendly
Evasive and cool	1 2 3 4 5	Open, honest, warm
Did not speak up freely	1 2 3 4 5	Spoke up freely

8. Please add any comments you think might have any bearing on the soundness of the information contained in this interview schedule.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

A STUDY OF DECISION-MAKING AND COMMUNICATION
PATTERNS OF DISADVANTAGED FARM FAMILIES
IN THE NORTH CAROLINA COASTAL PLAINS AREA

Experiment Station Rural Development Project,
North Carolina State University, 1971-75

SCHEDULE NO. IV:

INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION LINKAGE

NAME _____

ADDRESS _____

Interviewee _____

Address _____

SCHEDULE NO. IV
INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION LINKAGE

Introductory Statement

My name is (interviewer). I am representing the Extension Division of North Carolina State University in a Rural Development Research Study. We recently talked to a number of families in Halifax, Bertie, and Northampton counties, North Carolina, to determine the types of farm and home decisions (i.e., problems, purchases, choices, etc.) they were having to make. Also we were interested in the sources of personal information they considered to be most helpful in making these decisions.

You were cited by a previous participant in this study as the person who provided him/her with information which he/she used in making certain farm or home decisions. Talking with you for just a few minutes will be most helpful to me in obtaining some additional information needed to complete our study. Of course, what we talk about will be kept confidential and will in no way be used in connection with your name.

Identification Number

Card Number

Type of Decision: (Code: 1 = Farm Decision
2 = Home Decision)

SECTION I - Communication and Linkage Data

First of all, I would like to talk with you about the information you provided a previous participant in this study concerning

_____

_____

(subject matter or original decision cited)

1. From whom did or do you receive information in order to form your opinions concerning this type of decision on problem area? (WRITE IN ANSWERS)

   A. What is this person's name?

   _____

   B. What is the address of this person?

   _____

   C. What is this person's occupation?

   _____

   D. By whom is this person employed?

   _____

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY	
Code:	1=Nonresearch-Based Source Cited 2=Research-Based Source Cited 3=No Interpersonal Source Cited

IMPORTANT! IF NO INTERPERSONAL SOURCE IS CITED IN QUESTION NUMBER 1, ASK QUESTION NUMBER 2.

2. From where did or do you receive information in order to form your opinions concerning such subject matter? (WRITE IN ANSWER)

_____

_____

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY
Code: 1=Nonresearch-Based Source Cited 2=Research-Based Source Cited 3=Not Applicable

3. Did you or do you get help from any other source or in any other way in forming your opinions concerning such matters?

(MARK (X) YES OR NO)

Source	COLUMN YES	NO
Newspapers	1 ___	2 ___
Farm magazines	1 ___	2 ___
Home magazines	1 ___	2 ___
Bulletins or pamphlets	1 ___	2 ___
Farmer's Almanac	1 ___	2 ___
Radio	1 ___	2 ___
TV	1 ___	2 ___
Government agencies (Welfare, FHA, SCS, ASCS, etc.)	1 ___	2 ___

- continued -

Source	COLUMN YES	NO
Agricultural Extension Agent	1 ___	2 ___
Home Economics Extension Agent	1 ___	2 ___
Nutrition aid	1 ___	2 ___
Vo-Ag teacher	1 ___	2 ___
Home Economics teacher	1 ___	2 ___
Home dealer or salesman (appliances, furniture, etc.)	1 ___	2 ___
Dealer or salesman (fertilizer, seed, feed)	1 ___	2 ___
Lending institutions (PCA, banks, etc.)	1 ___	2 ___
Friend or neighbor	1 ___	2 ___
Family member or relative	1 ___	2 ___
Minister of church	1 ___	2 ___
Other (Identify)_____	1 ___	2 ___

_____

SECTION II - PERSONAL AND SOCIAL DATA

MARK (X) FOR RESPONSES TO ALL QUESTIONS THROUGHOUT THE REMAINDER OF THIS INSTRUMENT EXCEPT WHERE NAMES ARE REQUESTED.

4. How long have you lived in this county?

   1. ____ Less than 2 years
   2. ____ 2-4 years
   3. ____ 5-9 years
   4. ____ 10-19 years
   5. ____ 20-29 years
   6. ____ 30 years or more
   7. ____ Entire life

IF "ENTIRE LIFE" IS MARKED, SKIP TO QUESTION NUMBER 6.
IF NOT, ANSWER QUESTION NUMBER 5.

5. Where else have you lived? (WRITE IN ANSWER)

   What states? _____

   (If in North Carolina) What counties? _____

   _____

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY	
Code 1 = Other states	Code 6 = Combination 1, 2 & 3
Code 2 = Adjoining counties	Code 7 = Combination 2 & 3
Code 3 = Other N.C. counties	Code 8 = Not applicable
Code 4 = Combination 1 & 2	
Code 5 = Combination 1 & 3	

6. How old were you on your last birthday? ____ years

7. What was the last grade of elementary or high school that you completed? ____ grade

8. Where did you live most of the time during the first 16 years of your life?

1. ____ Farm or open country
2. ____ Town (under 2500)
3. ____ City (2500 or over)

9. Which one of the following categories best describes your employment status?

1. ____ Employed full time (40 hrs/week)
2. ____ Employed part time (less than 40 hrs/week)
3. ____ Out of work and looking for a job
4. ____ Keep house
5. ____ Unable to work
6. ____ Retired
7. ____ Other (Specify) _____

10. Would you describe the kind of work you do? (Code, p. 160)

(IF RETIRED, OUT OF WORK OR UNABLE TO WORK, LIST LAST OCCUPATION AND EMPLOYER.)

A. Occupation _____

B. Name of employer _____

11. Which of the following best describes your family income level?

1. ____ Less than $1,000
2. ____ $1,000 - $1,999
3. ____ $2,000 - $2,999
4. ____ $3,000 - $3,999
5. ____ $4,000 - $4,999
6. ____ $5,000 - $5,999
7. ____ $6,000 - $6,999
8. ____ $7,000 - $9,999
9. ____ $10,000 or more

12. Which of the following organizations do you attend or belong to? (Response Scale: Membership = 1; Attend = 2; Hold office or serve on committee = 3)

	Are you a member?	Do you attend a fourth of the time?	Do you hold office or serve on committees?
		CODE	
	1	2	3
Church			
Sunday School			
Farm organizations (Farm Bureau, NFO, Grange, etc.)			
School organizations (PTA, Boosters Club, etc.)			
Community clubs (Homemakers Club, Volunteer Firemen, etc.)			
Other: (LIST BELOW)			

Present-Future Value Orientation

13. People have different attitudes toward time, that is about how they feel about the present and the future. From your point of view, would you say that you AGREE, ARE UNCERTAIN, OR DISAGREE with the seven statements which I will read? (CIRCLE THE NUMBER 1, 2, OR 3 ON THE LEFT THAT BEST DESCRIBES RESPONDENT'S REACTION.)

RESPONSE CODE

1 = Agree	2 = Uncertain	3 = Disagree

Response	Statements
1 2 3	It is best to give most attention to what is happening now in the present rather than being concerned with the future.
1 2 3	Man's life should be guided more by his hopes for the future.
1 2 3	With things as they are today, a sensible person ought to think only about the present, without worrying about what is going to happen tomorrow.
1 2 3	It is useless to plan, since one's plans hardly ever work out.
1 2 3	Nowadays a person who plans doesn't really know how to enjoy the present.
1 2 3	The future is too uncertain for a person to plan.
1 2 3	The best way to live is to look a long time ahead, work hard, and give up many things now so that the future will be better.

THANK THE RESPONDENT FOR HIS TIME AND ANSWERS.

INTERVIEWER TO COMPLETE AFTER LEAVING RESIDENCE OF PERSON BEING INTERVIEWED AND BEFORE INTERVIEWING THE NEXT COMMUNICATION SOURCE.

1. Race of person interviewed: (MARK (X) BY PROPER RESPONSE)

   1 ____ White

   2 ____ Negro

   3 ____ Indian

   4 ____ Other

2. Were the respondents - (CIRCLE MOST APPROPRIATE NUMBER)

Unfriendly	1 2 3 4 5	Friendly
Evasive and cool	1 2 3 4 5	Open, honest, warm
Did not speak up freely	1 2 3 4 5	Spoke up freely

3. Communication Linkage Score: FOR OFFICE USE ONLY

   1. ____ Closely linked

   2. ____ Distantly linked

   3. ____ Not linked

   4. ____ Not applicable

4. Please add any comments you think might have any bearing on the soundness of the information contained in this interview schedule.

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

5. Interviewer's Name _____

Code Schedule for Occupation of Persons Cited as Information Sources for Farm and Home Decisions

Code	Occupation[1]
F	Farm operator
FH	Housewife
G	ASCS Office Manager
G	County Health Department Home Economist
G	Elementary school teacher
G	Farmers' Home Administration County Supervisor
G	Production Credit Association Loan Officer
G	Social Service Worker
G	Vo-Ag teacher
O	Deputy sheriff
O	Funeral home director
O	Grounds keeper or gardener
O	Housekeeper or maid
O	Other (specify) _____
O	Secretary
P	Banker
P	Credit Corporation Loan Officer
P	Dealer or salesman (appliances, furniture, etc.)
P	Dealer or salesman farm equipment co.
P	Dealer or salesman (feed, seed, fertilizer, chemicals, farm supplies, etc.)
P	Manager peanut shelling co.
P	Plumber
R	Doctors (Dentists, Medical, and Veterinarians)
R	Agricultural Extension Agent
R	Home Economics Extension Agent
R	Extension Nutrition Aide
R	Soil Conservation Technician

[1] F = farm operator; FH = farm housewife; G = government agencies; O = other; P = private agency or dealer; R = research-based source.

Appendix B: Kinds of Decisions Made by Disadvantaged Farm Families

I. Farm and home decisions--categories and definitions of each

Summary of Farm Categories and Definition of Each

Category	Definition
Capital investment	Any decision related to or concerning actual principal investments in capital assets such as machinery, equipment, buildings, fences, drainage, etc.
Farm management	Those decisions related to or concerning general farm management practices and activities. This includes decisions made prior to engaging in an enterprise or arrangement (e.g., whether to farm or not, whether to purchase equipment, etc.) and those made to terminate or continue an enterprise or agreement (e.g., terminate a contract or tenant arrangement, quit farming, etc.). It does not deal with the management aspects of an enterprise after the original decision has been made to engage in it (e.g., when to plan peanuts, where to sell tobacco, etc.). This category also includes repairs to machinery, equipment, buildings, etc.
Financial	Decisions related to or concerning noncapital purchases, budgeting matters, borrowing money, or other financial aspects of the farming operation not included under the capital investment category.
Leasing arrangements	Decision related to land rental and allotment agreements (e.g., to rent more tobacco acreage, rent farm out, etc.).
Production and marketing	All decisions related to or concerning the production and marketing of a particular crop, or livestock enterprise, or activity. It does not include those initial farm management decisions of whether or not to engage in an enterprise or activity.

Other or miscellaneous	Refers to all decisions that cannot be classified under any of the preceding five farm decision categories, or respondent failed to provide enough information for a specific subject area to be identified.
Inadequate information or no response	This category was provided to take care of all respondents who did not cite a decision or gave a "don't know" response.

Summary of Home Categories and Definition of Each

Category	Definition
Clothing	All decisions related to or concerned with clothing the human body. It encompasses decisions made relative to the selection, construction, and care of family clothing. It does not include decisions concerned with budgeting or managing the clothing dollar.
Health	All decisions concerned with the care, well being, and health of the family--both physically and mentally.
Home furnishings	Those decisions related to or concerned with establishing a more favorable environment for family living within the home. Includes decisions, e.g., about interior design, planning color schemes, draperies, slip covers, rugs, furniture, and equipment for the home (stove, refrigerator, washing machine, etc.). It does not include decisions relative to the management of the family's house-furnishing dollar, i.e., whether to purchase equipment or furnishings, deciding on kind to buy, and how to get items, etc. These are considered part of the decision-making process, hence, must be coded under the home management category.

Home management	Those decisions relating to the use of available family resources to accomplish family goals (values) and the way these goals can be reached. It pertains to the decision-making process or management principles that apply to the home as a whole. For example, it includes such items as whether to replace, repair, or purchase equipment; obtaining credit; how to budget the family clothing, house furnishings, housing, food, education, and health dollar; and whether to make or prepare items at home or buy them already prepared.
Housing	All decisions concerned with designs, plans, materials, finishes, maintenance, etc., of the family dwelling. It includes both arrangement, water and sewage systems, heating, wiring, painting, repairs, remodeling, etc.
Nutrition	Those decisions that deal with the food the body needs and how the body uses it. It encompasses decisions made relative to the production, preparation, and conservation of food.
Other or miscellaneous	All decisions that cannot be classified under any of the preceding six home decision categories, or respondent failed to provide enough information for a specific subject area to be identified.
Inadequate information or no response	This category is provided to take care of all respondents who did not cite a decision, or gave a "don't know" response.

II. Summary of important farm and home decisions by categories

Farm

Capital Investment

Bought a tractor
Building a new bulk barn for tobacco curing

Pick-up truck
Buy second tractor
Buy new tractor (1)[1]
New storage facility
Repayment to FHA for equipment
Trading for tractor
Equipment payment

Farm Management

Terminate contract--trouble with second-hand tractor
Continue tenant arrangement
May decide to get still another tenant
Whether to have a vegetable garden
Whether to repair or buy new tractor
Not to put out a tobacco plant bed
Decide against buying a tractor
Not to purchase equipment
To continue farming or take factory job
Whether or not to raise tobacco
Whether or not to raise pigs
Whether to keep farming or not (4)
What crops to plant for the year
Repair tractor (1)
To give up farm work
What crops to plant
Whether to buy sprayer or not (1)
To stop farming because of allergy to insecticides
Whether to rent out land or farm
Decision as to putting in ditches
Secure some form of transportation (no car or truck)
How much money he could get from land rent
Not to plant cotton this year
To sell equipment or mortgage farm
Whether to change equipment
Whether or not to plant tobacco due to labor
Whether or not to put in drainage
Whether to plant cotton
Repair truck
Whether to buy another tractor
Not to set aside land in government program
Whether to rent far or let son farm
Whether to buy or use own peanut seed
Whether to farm on his own or remain a tenant
Whether to tend tobacco in order to keep allotment

[1]Numbers in parentheses indicate the number of times the item was repeated.

Financial

Paying bills and loans
Purchase livestock
Borrowing funds to farm
Budgeting in order to have money to pay for farm supplies
How to pay farm expenses and meet family requirements
Make a decision about making farm payment
How to pay for land preparation with hired tractor
Where to borrow operating capital
How to cut farming expenses and chemicals to use on peanuts
Cut living cost in family
Borrow money to farm with
Not enough crops or income from present farm to meet expenses
Land needs draining; doesn't have money
Borrow to rebuild tobacco barn
Not enough money (1)
Decide about repairing equipment
Operating capital
How to finance fertilizer
Finance decisions (1)
Finances hard to get
Whether to rent more land (2)
Decide to rent tobacco out
To rent more tobacco (1)
Rented more tobacco
Whether to rent farm (1)
Whether to rent additional tobacco

Production and Marketing

When to begin pulling tobacco
No way to take produce to market
Labor for harvesting
Lack of tobacco plants
Decide which tobacco to put up first, landlord's or mine
Variety of tobacco to plant (1)
Where to sell tobacco
Decision on when peanuts were ready to dig
Whether to raise more hogs (had a shortage)
When to set out tobacco
When to house tobacco
Variety of tobacco to plant
What fields to plant tobacco in
Obtaining tobacco seedlings
Use of insecticides for boll weevil in cotton
How to cope with wet weather in planting crops

Labor problem in fall and spring
How to get crops planted with limited equipment
Kind and amount of fertilizer to use
When to plant cotton
Whether to plant peanuts in wet soil or wait until dry weather
Production of peanuts
Land drying for cultivation
How to get a good stand; whether to plant
What to do about pod rot on peanuts
What chemicals to use on each crop
How to make biggest yield possible
Time to plant and harvest peanuts
Decision concerning production of peanut varieties, chemicals, etc.
How many acres of each crop to plant
Peanut variety to plant
Don't have enough help; workers hard to get for taking in tobacco
Need help or additional labor in taking in tobacco
Late plant bed
Treat peanuts for nematodes
Labor for harvesting tobacco
Use of herbicides on crops
Variety of peanuts to plant
Analysis of fertilizer to use on tobacco
Chemical for weed control in peanuts
Ways to increase peanut yield
When to harvest

Other or Miscellaneous

Whether to put in a good road
Remodeling home
How he was going to farm after eye operation

Inadequate Information or No Response

None

Home

Clothing

House burned--clothing for family
Clothing for children
How to buy and what kind of clothing for children

Health

Taking care of blind mother
Getting medical help for child
Whether to have teeth fixed
Whether to get teeth pulled
Which doctor to see for illness
Pay big medical bills
Not going to doctor because no money available; thinks she may have tumor
Not to put retarded child in home

Home Furnishings

Bought dishes
Replaced stove (4)
Bought beds
To have washing machine repaired
Buy refrigerator (2)
Purchase a new washing machine (I)
Getting stove repaired
Get new freezer (1)
Get new mattress
Buy a sewing machine
Colors of paint
Buy washing machine and freezer
Buying rug for sitting room
Buy dining room set
Replacing two rugs
How to decorate and remodel living room
Buying rug for kitchen
Purchase a gas range and refrigerator
Repair washing machine
Buy a TV

Home Management

Obtaining credit
Hiring someone to keep house
Getting money to buy clothes for children
Deciding on what kind of foods to buy
What type of new refrigerator to buy
Deciding on painting
Whether to pay utility bills on time
How to get TV to replace old one
How to cut food budget
Paying family bills on time
How to pay bills
Planning for son's education
Not to buy ice box

To buy or repair hot water heater
What to do about garden; didn't come up good
Obtaining money for clothing for school
Budgeting family income
To do without many household items
How to budget money
Which child to buy clothes for when I get a little money (budgeting)
To continue to burn wood or change to oil
Whether to buy clothes for children
Whether to buy a cook stove
Whether to buy washing machine
Whether to buy spreads and curtains
Gave up idea of enlarging kitchen to use money for new truck for farm work
Selecting and financing a new refrigerator
To sew or buy ready-made clothes
Spending money; how to make ends meet
How to keep food budget in line
Whether to buy home or farm items
How to get money for furniture for home
Whether to paint house
Whether to build a new home
Whether to put in bathroom
How to cut down on grocery bill
How to make house payment
Whether to go in debt for furniture for bedroom
Setting up a family budget
How to get a home
Family food budget
Whether to contact finance company and borrow money to pay off bills
Food budgeting
Borrowing money to fix up house
Not to work outside of house while children in elementary school
How much new furniture to buy
Whether to work outside home to supplement income
Wife has to manage farm
Husband sick; whether she could keep the farm going

Housing

Concerned about space--no closets
Type of roof for house
How to repair home ceiling
Not to put roof on house

Get water at home (well)
Looking into the decision of building a home
Building a new room to house
Running water
Paint inside of house
Renovation of kitchen
Make home repairs
Had a leak under house
Fix a small patio
To put in running water
Add window air-conditioner unit
Put in a bathroom (2)
Remodel kitchen
Remodel house (1)
Spraying house for termites
Remodel bedroom (paneling)
Where to put bathroom
Needed housing repairs
Buying hot-water heater
Made decision to save for running water and bathroom
Repairing home
To have floors sanded
To have all rooms painted
Building shelter for equipment in yard
Plumbing needed to be done
Water pump needed repair

Nutrition

Begin using food stamps
Decided to have a garden
Obtaining garden food for freezing
Food--amount to consume
Food cost going up
What beef to cook
When to plant garden

Other or Miscellaneous

To purchase automobile

Inadequate Information or No Response

None

Appendix C. Rationality of Decision-Making - Additional Data

Appendix Table 1. Correlation matrices for farm operators' and homemakers' RDM items[a] (N = 130)

Item[b]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Husbands												
1	--	-09	-11	00	03	04	-06	-08	02	04	02	-12
2		--	14	-02	-07	12	37	06	23	11	16	06
3			--	12	01	05	01	02	04	-04	02	03
4				--	40	02	01	11	00	00	-10	00
5					--	-03	-03	04	01	-09	-08	-22
6						--	42	23	15	-18	25	03
7							--	29	18	01	11	17
8								--	13	01	03	25
9									--	27	14	13
10										--	01	-02
11											--	09
12												--
Wives												
1	--	-06	00	-15	05	-12	-11	-09	15	-17	09	24
2		--	-10	-12	06	15	-04	04	15	00	03	13
3			--	-09	13	-16	-00	10	07	-06	-16	20
4				--	-05	-12	-03	-03	-03	04	-14	-02
5					--	-06	06	07	02	-11	-10	11
6						--	09	27	00	20	07	26
7							--	09	15	22	08	11
8								--	04	11	00	30
9									--	04	17	02
10										--	28	04
11											--	-04
12												--

[a]Decimals omitted.

[b]Items correspond with those listed in Appendix C, Tables 3 and 4.

Appendix Table 2. Factor analysis factors with eigenvalues, variances, and percentages

Factor	Eigenvalue		Variance		Percentages	
	Operator	Homemaker	Operator	Homemaker	Operator	Homemaker
1	2.13	2.02	1.8	1.7	18	17
2	1.52	1.57	1.5	1.7	11	13
3	1.25	1.43	1.4	1.4	11	12
4	1.16	1.24	1.3	1.3	10	10
5	1.12	1.06	1.2	1.3	9	9

Appendix Table 3. Farm operators' RDM scale item loadings for varimax rotated factors

Item	Factor[a] 1	2	3	4	5
1. Did you know what you wanted to do before you made this decision?	.170	.006	.313	.016	.602
2. Did you put off this decision?	.639	-.068	.064	.177	-.475
3. Were you forced to make this decision before you were ready?	.075	.108	.107	.104	.706
4. Did you talk to anyone outside your family about the problem before you actually made your decision?	-.034	.784	-.109	.038	.105
5. Did looking at magazines or newspapers (including ads), college information bulletins, TV and radio give you ideas about what to do?	-.052	.811	.146	-.086	.011
6. Was this the only way you figured out to solve your problem?	.644	.097	-.166	-.272	.222
7. Did you take longer than a week to decide what to do?	.694	.079	-.369	.049	.028
8. Did you feel you were taking a chance when you made up your mind to handle the problem this way?	.220	.221	-.735	.008	.078
9. Did you talk this over a lot with your wife or children?	.346	-.035	.073	-.599	.148
10. Do you take full credit for making this decision?	.086	-.056	.001	.886	.009

Appendix Table 3 (continued)

Item	Factor[a]				
	1	2	3	4	5
11. After doing what you decided, have you talked to or heard of other persons who have made about the same kind of decisions?	.528	-.234	.115	-.106	.041
12. Would you do things differently if you could to it all over again?	-.021	-.281	-.726	-.087	.149

[a]Underlined loadings determined items that define the factors.

Appendix Table 4. Homemakers' RDM scale item loadings for varimax rotated factors

Item	Factor[a]				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Did you know what you wanted to do before you made this decision?	-.108	-.351	-.043	.631	.193
2. Did you put off this decision?	.886	.068	.074	.096	-.053
3. Were you forced to make this decision before you were ready?	-.206	.225	.181	-.031	.716
4. Did you talk to anyone outside your family about the problem before you actually made your decision?	-.069	-.186	-.020	-.774	.056
5. Did looking at magazines or newspapers (including ads), college information bulletins, TV and radio give you ideas about what to do?	.182	.124	.373	.144	.372
6. Was this the only way you figured out to solve your problem?	.106	.646	-.164	.190	-.423
7. Did you take longer than a week to decide what to do?	.839	.065	-.142	-.110	.034
8. Did you feel you were taking a chance when you made up your mind to handle the problem this way?	-.021	.698	-.074	.035	.136
9. Did you talk this over a lot with your husband or children?	.266	-.092	-.412	.166	.563
10. Do you take full credit for making this decision?	.071	.225	-.697	-.272	-.067

Appendix Table 4 (continued)

Item	Factor[a]				
	1	2	3	4	5
11. After doing what you decided, have you talked to or heard of other persons who have made about the same kind of decision?	.038	-.031	-.740	.261	.026
12. Would you do things differently if you could do it all over again?	.118	.709	.098	-.167	.207

[a]Underlined loadings determined items that defined the factors.

Appendix D: Linkage Patterns

I. Instructions given and form used in determining research-based sources by selected panel members

The Agricultural Experiment Station funded a research project designed to determine the degree of linkage[1] between research-based sources of information and those interpersonal sources being used as a basis for making farm and home decisions by disadvantaged farm families.

A research-based source has been defined for purposes of this study as a person (specialist or researcher specializing in a specific subject matter area) representing a profession or institution recognized by the scientific community as possessing impartial research information which has been validated empirically by application of the scientific method as opposed to value, moral, or ethical judgements. In addition, any research information transmitted by these individuals in written form or publication will also be considered a research based-source of information.

Based on the specifications of this definition, please review the following list of role descriptions and determine which ones you consider to be research-based sources of information. Place an x in the blank by each role descriptions which you consider to fit the specifications but do not find in the list.

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[1] For purposes of this study, linkage is defined as the actual chain of interpersonal relations that facilitates the transfer or relay of information from a source to a destination. Such a communication chain, or network, consists of a number of linked dyads in which the receiver in one is the source in the next.

List of Role Descriptions from Which Research-Based Sources Are to Be Selected

____ 1. Subject matter specialists for the Cooperative Extension Service or Agriculture Experiment Station.

____ 2. Subject matter specialists representing a university or college which engages in major research activities or projects.

____ 3. Subject matter specialists for the U.S.D.A.

____ 4. Medical doctors, dentists, or other specialists with an equivalent degree in the medical field.

____ 5. Veterinarians or other specialists with an equivalent degree in the veterinary medicine field.

____ 6. Engineers for the Soil Conservation Service.

____ 7. Representatives or specialists for a farm equipment company.

____ 8. Representatives or specialists for a seed, fertilizer, or chemical company.

____ 9. Loan officers for a bank or loan company.

____10. Farmers' Home Administration loan officer.

____11. Production Credit Association loan officer.

Please list any other role descriptions not found above which you consider to be a research-based source of information.

12. _____

13. _____

14. _____

15. _____

_____
Your name

_____
Your position

II. List of Sources Selected as Research-Based

1. Doctors (Dentist, Medical, and Veterinarian)
2. Extension Agriculture Agent
3. Extension Home Economics Agent
4. Extension Nutrition Aid
5. Soil Conservation Technician