Improving Practice and Collaboration to Aid Distressed Rural Communities

April 26, 2011

PI: Cordes, S. (Purdue U.) **Co-PI:** Emery, M. (Iowa State)

Award: $15,000

Rural communities in the North Central region are facing extraordinary challenges, more severe and far reaching than those of the mid-1980s. This project proposes a convening to learn from three related, innovative rural development approaches, know as Home Town Competitiveness (HTC), Entrepreneurship Investigation (ESI) and Energizing Entrepreneurship (e2). The project collaborators will convene a two-day meeting in to bring together land-grant university faculty and community partners with experience in these three related rural community development initiatives. The goal of the convening will be two-fold:

- To review best practices in implementation of these three related initiatives; and
- To explore ways to increase collaboration among Land Grant Universities and rural nonprofit development organizations, as well as, to improve the practices related to these and other similar development initiatives

Studying Food System Approaches in Three Types of Rural Communities

April 26, 2011

PI: Hendrickson, M. (University of Missouri)

Co-PI: Cantrell, R. (University of Nebraska)

Award: $14,000

Project Abstract: Develop a proposal for the USDA Agriculture and Food Research Initiative (AFRI) Rural Development Grant Program. Researchers from the Universities of Missouri and Nebraska will develop a proposal to study food system approaches for rural development in three distinct types of rural communities in Missouri and Nebraska. The communities fall into three of the broad categories laid out by the Carsey Institute's research reported in Place Matters: Challenges and Opportunities in Four Rural Americas. The proposed research focuses on food systems approaches to rural development in three of the four community types, including declining resource-dependent, chronically poor, and communities with amenity-driven growth along with resource-based decline. Communities in Missouri and Nebraska were also chosen to represent the spectrum of rural communities located near urban centers and those relatively isolated from large population centers.

NCRCRD Final Report
For
"Studying Food System Approaches in Three Types of Rural Communities"
Michigan State University Award: 61-4126UMO

By
Mary Hendrickson and Jill Lucht
University of Missouri

The Universities of Missouri and Nebraska conducted a mini-conference on community based local and regional food initiatives in two rural regions on April 21, 2010. Participants from Missouri and Nebraska were connected via Adobe Connect for joint morning and late-afternoon sessions. During the mid-day session, project staff and faculty conducted a focus group on local and regional food systems with the farmers gathered in each location. A total of 24 farmers participated: 12 in Missouri and 12 in Nebraska. (In the original NCRCRD proposal, the mini-conference was going to be an in-person meeting with farmers from three rural communities. However, due to NCRCRD budget constraints and an earlier-than-anticipated USDA AFRI proposal deadline, the meeting was held in an online format with just 2 locations.)

The focus groups and mini-conference provided key preliminary data on the status of local foods initiatives in the research communities, and where interests in local foods currently lie among farmers seeking markets and consumers interested in purchasing food in their local region. In addition, they provided an excellent opportunity to network in the communities where the AFRI-proposed research will also take place.

To prepare for the mini-conference and focus groups, project staff member Jill Lucht identified and began reviewing literature on local and regional food systems in rural community contexts. The literature review process continued after the focus groups. As a key piece of becoming familiar with the literature and research on local foods, Jill Lucht traveled to the Northeast Agricultural and Resource Economics Association Workshop on the Economics of Local Food Markets, June 15-16, 2010. The literature review was integrated into the successful USDA AFRI proposal.

As written in the project team's proposal to NCRCRD in September 2009, the faculty and staff on this project originally intended to apply for a USDA AFRI Rural Development grant with an anticipated due date of September 2010. However, due to program changes at USDA, the group decided to pursue a different AFRI funding source.

The project team submitted a proposal to USDA AFRI Prosperity for Small and Medium Sized Farms and Rural Communities in July 2010. The project team was notified in November 2010 that their proposal was funded, and work on the project began in January 2011. Please see the attached project narrative from the successful proposal for additional information about the research initiative made possible through seed money from NCRCRD.

Title: Explaining Linkages Among Farmers and Consumers in Local and Regional Food Systems to Enhance Rural Development

1. Introduction

As rural communities have struggled to contend with a rapidly declining economic base, population loss and declining quality of life—one of the most promising entrepreneurial solutions has been the creation and expansion of local/regional food systems. Local/regional food systems—in other words, the production, marketing and distribution of locally grown foods— offer tremendous promise both as a strategy to stabilize the number and profitability of at-risk small and medium sized farms and as a means to improve the health and well-being of rural consumers. However, to give these initiatives the best hope of succeeding, research must be conducted to better understand how to align the prosperity of small and medium sized farms, and the quality of life for the families that operate them, with consumer desire for and access to locally produced foods, especially in predominantly rural areas. Local/regional food systems represent a major change from the commodity driven agricultural industry that has dominated for the past few decades —and both producers and consumers are in relatively unexplored territory as they examine buying and selling to each other. For this reason, a collaborative team of researchers representing rural sociology, agricultural economics and community development propose a bi-state research project to examine the following research questions: *What are the community and economic impacts on rural communities of local/regional food systems? How is the prosperity of small and medium-sized farms, and the quality of life of families operating those farms, impacted by participating in local/regional food systems? Are consumers in both rural and urban areas likely to participate in local/regional food systems despite disparities in income?*

The specific questions we seek to understand are:

1. What are the motivations of small and medium-sized farms to produce for local/regional food systems? Are strategies that incorporate local/regional food systems useful for helping farmers with small and medium-sized operations meet their whole life goals?

2. What are the economic and social impacts of local/regional food systems for rural communities? What are the opportunities for small and medium-sized farms located in remote rural to capture value for their communities from urban areas?

3. What are the factors that motivate consumer behavior as they relate to locally grown foods in different geographic and socioeconomic contexts? Does access and desire for locally produced foods differ based on income and geographies? Are rural and lower income consumers more likely to be focused on price as a basis for food purchases? Are urban consumers more likely to incorporate preferences for quality, taste and values into food purchasing decisions? Alternately, are rural consumers highly motivated to acquire locally grown foods due to their proximity to farms and farming neighbors, provided their price threshold is not exceeded?

4. How do the values and motivations of farmers producing for local/regional food systems link with consumer values and motivations?

The proposed research is phase two of a project that was begun in 2010 with pilot research funds from the North Central Region Center for Rural Development. The project team identified the need for researching the opportunities and challenges of connecting farmers and consumers together in regional food systems, especially in remote rural regions, based on their long experience in working to develop locally-based food systems in different socioeconomic contexts and varying geographies. The project team completed the first phase of focus group research and formulated this proposal based on the outcomes of the pilot research and their accompanying experience in working with farmers and consumers on food system development.

Goals & objectives

The long-term goal of this project is to fully realize the potential of regional food systems as an entrepreneurial strategy for rural economic development by providing research-based guidance to rural communities on how regional food systems can be developed that bring together the interests of both the producers and the consumers—in ways that mutually benefit them and the rural community in which they live. The specific objectives of the project are:

- *Objective 1:* To develop research-based profiles of small and medium sized producers who do and do not market their products in local/regional food systems.

- *Objective 2:* To calibrate an economic impact model that enables researchers to quantify farm profitability and local economic impact that come from regional food sales.

- *Objective 3:* To specify the institutional, social, cultural, and economic factors that differentiate rural food buyers from urban food buyers, and what differentiates food buyers who buy directly from farmers from those who shop in more conventional venues.

- *Objective 4:* To examine the potential opportunities and challenges for linking producers and consumers together in local/regional food systems.

This project will result in the creation of new data that sheds light on the current disconnect between agricultural producers and consumers in rural communities—and that could help researchers, farmers, practitioners and policy-makers understand the best ways of using local/regional food system development to meet social and economic goals in rural development. The research outputs of the project will be usable tools that rural development specialists can employ to understand and guide local communities considering regional food systems as an economic development strategy. As such, the long term impact of this project will be to improve the financial viability of small and medium sized farms and enhance rural development in the communities where they live.

Summary of Existing Knowledge

Opportunities for small- and medium-sized producers in local and regional food systems
Significant research has taken place on the tremendous changes recently taking place in scale and structure of U.S. agriculture (Heffernan 1999, Hendrickson *et al* 2001, Welsh 2009) Medium-sized farms in particular have found it increasingly difficult to survive under the current economic systems in place in the agricultural sector, and we have seen major declines in the number of farms in this size class over the last few decades (Lyson *et al* 2008, Ahearn *et al* 2005).

From the farm perspective, niche markets, labeling strategies and direct marketing efforts may create market opportunities for small and medium-sized producers to increase profitability and maintain high quality of life (Lyson *et al* 2008). Kirschenmann (2010, slide 15) argued that the farmers who fall in a category defined as "commodity family farmers" (i.e. mid-sized, family owned farm operations engaged in the production of farm commodities) are in a "death zone" which allows four basic strategies: 1. Exit the farm business; 2. Increase in size to take advantage of economies of scale; 3. Specialize through the use of direct marketing techniques like farm stands, farmers' markets and community supported agriculture farms (CSAs); or 4. Differentiate their product in the marketplace through labeling strategies and cooperation with other mid-sized producers. See figure 1 below.)

Figure 1. Death zone of commodity family farmers
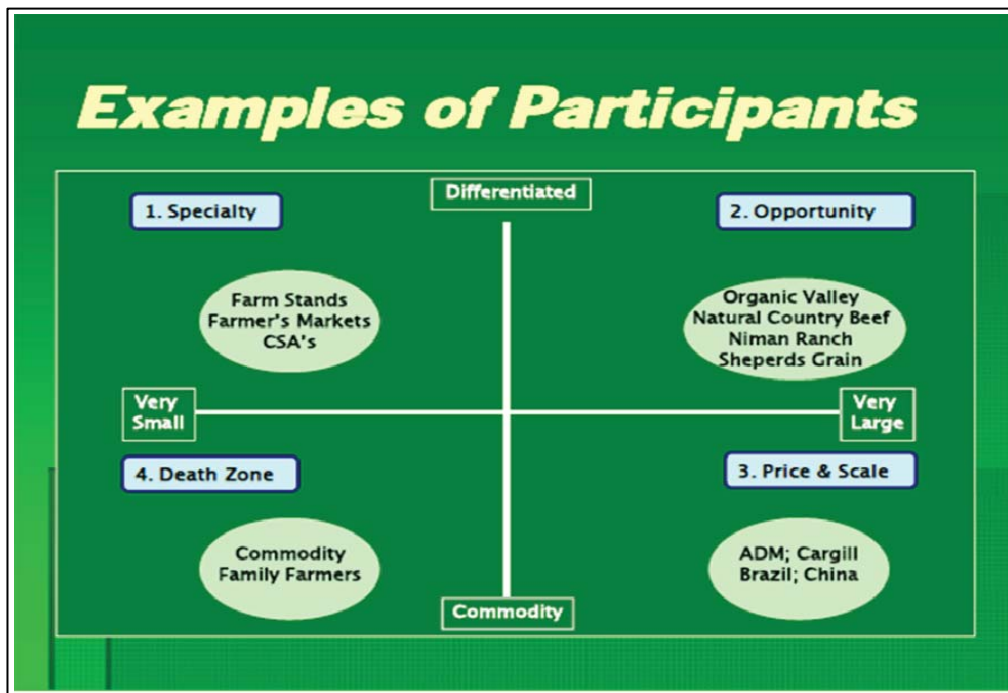
In a report prepared for Oxfam America, Hendrickson (PI on the proposed research) and colleagues echoed Kirschenmann's findings and pointed to consumer mobilization as a potential leverage point for change in the food system that could favor small and medium-sized farms within the global food system context (Hendrickson *et al* 2008, p. 14). By connecting directly with consumers, either as individual firms or as part of a cooperative marketing organization, small and medium-sized farmers may capture a greater share of the consumer food dollar.

Farmers appear to be responding to these market cues. A recent USDA ERS report summarizes the growth in direct-to-consumer marketing in the U.S. (Martinez *et al* 2010). Direct-to-consumer sales increased by 120% between 1997 and 2007 (49% between 2002 and 2007) (p. 5). The number of farms selling commodities directly to consumers also increased between 2002 and 2007 for all categories reported, including vegetables and melons, fruit and tree nut, beef, other animal products and other crops and plants (p. 6).

Some theorists link these emerging market opportunities for farmers with better community and economic development outcomes in the rural areas where these farmers reside (Lyson 2004). Meter (2005) has published a number of important, but non-peer reviewed

economic studies that primarily address the leakages of the current farm and food economy from particular places. His work provides a rationale for "plugging" the leakages by concentrating on developing local food systems where farmers buy inputs and sell local products within the regional market.

Brown and Miller (2008) provide a survey of the literature on the economic impacts of farmers' markets and other direct marketing activities that shows varying, but mostly positive, impacts on local communities in terms of jobs and sales, even when carefully estimating net rather than gross impact. Their survey of research also cites studies that highlight the social impacts of providing diversified arrays of fresh food and a place for the community to meet (Oberholtzer and Grow 2003), and conclude that the intertwined economic and social interactions of farmers' markets make them important community institutions.

Several recent studies have addressed the economics of local foods, including the net impact of local foods by calculating the displacement effects on other economic sectors when consumers re-allocate their spending from conventional sources like supermarkets to 'local' foods. Swenson (2006) and Conner *et al* (2008) look at potential increased consumer spending on local foods if consumers adopted dietary guidelines. Otto and Varner (2005) use a survey of consumers and Hughes *et al* (2008) use a survey of growers to determine the amount spent at farmers' markets. In their study Hughes *et al* (2008) make recommendations that directly inform the research proposed here, including consumer research that better reflects where consumer dollars would be spent if not at the farmers market, and where farmers market consumers may engage in "spillover spending" at businesses nearby their market.

On the producer side, Hughes *et al* recommend better survey data from farmers who produce for farmers markets and other direct marketing avenues, since their input spending may vary significantly from farmers producing for the commodity market. All of the authors estimate a net input-output model of economic impacts, but the production coefficients of the model are not adjusted to reflect the specific production expenditure decisions of the growers of local foods.

Community economic and social impacts of agriculture
Walter Goldschmidt's (1946, 1978) seminal study on the impact of farm scale found that large, industrialized farms had negative impacts on community welfare, especially when compared to smaller scale family farm agriculture. Other studies have come to similar conclusions (Lobao 1990; Lobao and Meyer 2001; Lyson *et al* 2001; Lyson and Welsh 2005). In fact, Lobao and Stofferahn (2008) evaluated 51 studies dating from the 1930s through 2008 in order to examine the impact of industrial farming on community wellbeing. Their meta-analysis found a majority of studies showed detrimental community impacts in indicators ranging from socioeconomic conditions and community social fabric to environmental conditions.

With dramatic changes occurring in the agricultural sector, Welsh (2009) recommends new research in the Goldschmidt tradition that considers farm structure and sector along with scale. In contrast to the negative community impacts of industrial scale agriculture, a number of studies have found economic and social benefits accruing to communities under a more civically oriented agriculture (Lyson, 2008, Brasier *et al* 2007, Green and Dougherty, 2009, and Hultine *et al* 2007).

Despite the benefits of a more civic and locally minded agriculture, however, lower incomes and limited employment opportunities in many rural areas may restrict rural consumers' ability to access the food produced within their own region, especially when compared with their urban counterparts (Hinrichs 2000 and Andreatta *et al* 2008). Limited employment opportunities

in rural areas also reduce off-farm income opportunities for small and medium-sized producers, which in turn may limit their ability to maintain family income while pursuing their farming goals .

These realities in rural areas are reflected in Census of Agriculture data, where proximity to urban markets appears essential to increasing farm income through direct sales to consumers. "Direct sales per farm decreased for farms located progressively further from metropolitan counties; averaging $10,987 for farms located in metro counties, $6,767 for farms in rural counties adjacent to metro counties, and $6,090 for farms in remote rural counties" (Martinez *et al* 2010, p. 18). Proximity to urban areas is often considered an important variable when looking at opportunities for farm income and rural development. It is one of the factors considered in the Carsey Institute's research report *Place Matters: Challenges and Opportunities in Four Rural Americas.* This report identifies four types of rural places, including 1) amenity-rich, 2) declining resource-dependent, 3) chronically poor regions, and 4) communities with amenity-driven growth along with resource-based decline. The report recommends different rural development strategies based on the type of rural community considered, and include strategies as varied as land use planning and cluster development in amenity rich areas like the Rocky Mountain West, and basic education and workforce development in chronically poor regions.

In contrast to the assumption that viable local and regional food systems must be centered on a metropolitan area, Hultine *et al* (2007) highlight a successful local food project in a rural Illinois community. By linking consumer and producer research, the study is able to provide a concrete model of what local food systems may look like in a rural area. In the case of Fairbury, Illinois, the activity was focused around creating access to locally grown food through a locally owned retail outlet.

In a similar vein, the proposed research focuses on an emerging farm sector: farms who market at least some of their production in the local and regional food system, often through direct relationships with consumers. Recognizing that not all rural communities are geographically close enough to an urban market to make a profit by transporting food there, the proposed project will research the other strategies and characteristics that can make small and medium sized farmers successful selling produce directly to consumers.

Prior research activity of project team

Small and medium-sized farms seeking to maximize their profitability and improve their quality of life often have different interests than rural consumers who are seeking access to healthy, locally produced foods at reasonable prices. In many years of research and outreach, project team members have worked to help small and medium-sized farms find profitable alternatives to more conventional agriculture, and to help consumers in rural and urban areas access healthy, sustainable foods. In over a decade of this work, the project team members have found that producers often need to market in large urban areas where a critical mass of consumers seeking locally produced foods exists. However, our project team also has experience with farmers, rural consumers, and rural communities who have been working to find ways to create local/regional food systems that provide access for both urban and rural consumers, as well as to create markets for farmers closer to home. Therefore, we come to the current research with the knowledge that the challenges and opportunities inherent in creating local/regional food systems that work for small and medium-sized farms as well as meet the needs of consumers in varying socioeconomic contexts and geographies must be better understood to enhance our rural development toolbox.

The collaborative team began exploring this issue in focus groups conducted in a persistently poor rural Missouri community and a declining resource dependent region in Nebraska through a grant from the North Central Region Center for Rural Development. In this research, farmers reported preferences for traveling about 60 miles round trip to a farmers' market located in a micropolitan region with a small public university or 250 miles round trip into St. Louis in order to get the higher prices needed to ensure farm profitability, rather than sell at lower prices in the rural farmers market within their own county.

Local consumers in one focus group expressed a desire to purchase food and other products from their local producers – especially for health reasons -- but lacked the income to pay the price for that produce. The community had recently started their own farmers market, but was finding it challenging to attract vendors other than high school students engaged in FFA projects or retirees who garden as a hobby. Without an adequate variety of vendors, it is also difficult to attract a reasonable number of customers. As an alternative strategy, this particular county implemented community gardens in their largest rural town as a way to increase the availability of fresh produce to community members. Development of community gardens in rural areas is a strategy used in other rural and urban communities as a means of increasing access to fresh fruits and vegetables among low income populations (Morton *et al* 2008).

As you can see, the proposed research project is a continuation of the work the project team is undertaking to assess local/regional food systems in rural development. The project team consists of:

Dr. Mary Hendrickson (PI) has spent over a decade helping farmers find alternative markets, and supporting communities in developing local food systems. Her research and extension activities have focused on placing local food system development in the context of the changing structure of the global food system where farmers, eaters, and communities can create profitable alternatives. As director of University of Missouri Extension's Food Circles Networking Project, she oversaw a five year Kellogg-funded project to strengthen the capacity of the community-based food system in the Kansas City area. Based on her 15 years of experience with local food systems, Hendrickson (2009; Hendrickson and Heffernan 2002) has documented the opportunities and challenges in developing regional food systems in the Kansas City area as well as exploring structural changes in agriculture (Hendrickson *et al* 2001; Hendrickson, James and Heffernan 2008; Hendrickson *et al* 2008; Archer *et al* 2008). James and Hendrickson (2010) have examined the structural impact of farming systems on the ethical proclivities of Missouri farmers, finding that medium-sized farm families were considerably more anxious about their future in farming than small or large farms. Hendrickson will oversee the development, administration and analysis of the producer survey (with support from Johnson and other team members) and the consumer focus groups (with Cantrell).

Dr. Tom Johnson (Co-Principal Investigator) is a renowned scholar on regional economics and determining economic impacts of industries in new and creative ways. Johnson directs the Community Policy Analysis Center (CPAC) at the University of Missouri. CPAC's work focuses on providing decision support tools to communities nationwide. One common decision support tool provided by CPAC is economic impact analysis of targeted industrial or government sectors. For example, CPAC recently completed studies on the economic impact of the livestock industry in Missouri, the child care sector in the state of Kansas, various proposed bio-fuel projects, and

the economic impact of the University of Missouri on the City of Columbia. In 2007, CPAC received the USDA Group Honor Award for Excellence for their work developing the Socioeconomic Benefits Assessment System (SEBAS), a tool to assess the local economic impacts of Rural Business Service loans, loan guarantees, and grant and technical assistance programs, using various quantitative measures of local and regional economic performance. CPAC is well-poised to modify the SEBAS tool and utilize IMPLAN to determine the economic impacts of farmers participating in local and regional food systems. Johnson will oversee the analysis of the economic impact data collected through the in-depth interviews, and will help to calibrate a model of economic impacts of local/regional food systems.

Dr. Randolph Cantrell (Co-Principal Investigator) works with the University of Nebraska Rural Initiative, which has significant interest and capacity in working with the producers and consumers of locally produced food. The Rural Initiative's efforts in this area are led by two programs: Nebraska MarketMaker, directed by ***Kim Peterson (other personnel*)** and the Nebraska Local Foods Network, coordinated by Ms. Peterson. Nebraska MarketMaker is a free interactive web-based service that connects food producers, distributors and sellers to consumer markets, and helps entrepreneurs identify and develop new and profitable markets in order to improve the efficiency and profitability of the food system in.

The Nebraska Local Foods Network (NLFN) is a collaboration of Nebraskans working together to encourage and facilitate the increased production and consumption of local foods. The NLFN began in 2008 when the University of Nebraska Rural Initiative recognized there was a large, mostly unmet demand for local food products. Partnering with other University departments and Nebraska organizations, the Rural Initiative began an effort to build a network of service providers, consumers, and food producers interested in developing local and/or regional food systems.

In this project, Cantrell will oversee the development of the consumer focus groups (with Hendrickson) and Cantrell and Peterson will recruit producers to participate in the survey and in-depth interviews as well as consumers to participate in the focus groups.

Jill Lucht (Project Manager at the University of Missouri) has extensive research experience utilizing both quantitative and qualitative data gathering and analysis tools in her work with CPAC. She is currently involved in a survey project with clients of food pantries in Missouri, where she has worked with an interdisciplinary team to develop a survey instrument being used to conduct 1,200 face-to-face interviews on sensitive topics relating to family wellbeing and food insecurity. She will be a key person conducting analysis on the data gathered for that project. Lucht has also been involved in a number of mail and email administered surveys and focus group and case study research. As part of her work with CPAC, she has been involved with economic impact studies and projects that use econometric modeling to make projections about key economic, demographic and social variables. Her research focus has been rural community and economic development, sustainable agriculture and food insecurity. Lucht will act as Project Manager and assist in developing and analyzing the producer survey, conducting consumer focus groups and providing support for the economic impact modeling.

2. Rationale and Significance

Research based strategies are needed to guide the development of local/regional food systems as a tool for rural development and enhancing the prosperity of small and medium sized farms. Local/regional food systems demonstrate the potential to positively impact rural communities and farmers by improving fresh food access, creating jobs and generating revenue, but evidence is scarce of the actual impacts and strategies of food system development. The proposed project seeks to advance the state of research tools used to characterize the interests and profiles of farmers producing for these local/regional systems and the consumers who purchase their production, as well as to specify the economic and social impact local/regional food systems can have on the surrounding community.

Need for project

Further research is needed to document the best practices in local/regional food systems that can maximize both the profitability of small and medium-sized farms and lower-income consumers' access to locally grown foods; improve quality of life for small and medium sized farm families; and encourage beneficial outcomes for rural communities in terms of their economic, environmental, social, cultural and health contexts (see Figure 2). Food system strategies for rural development, and particularly the use of local and regional food system strategies, may provide an opportunity to promote rural community and economic development while enhancing prosperity and quality of life for farmers and improving health and social connectivity for rural and urban consumers.
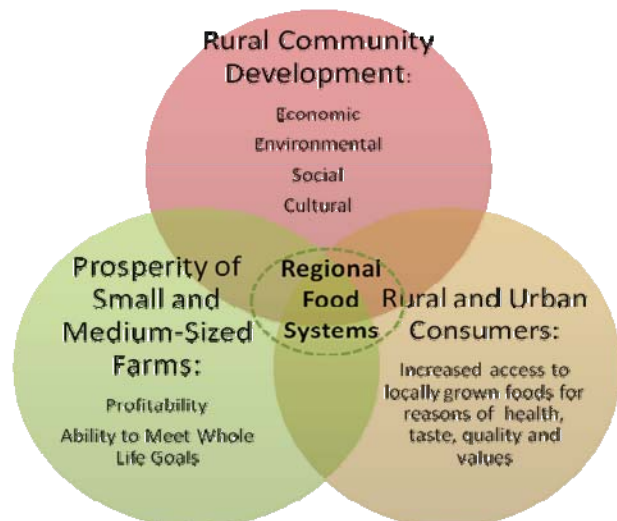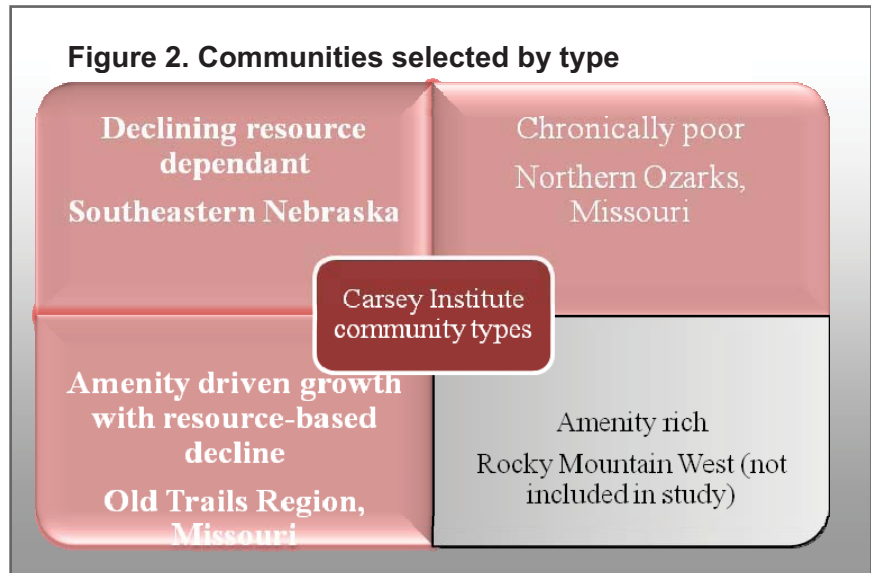

The proposed research focuses on food systems approaches to rural development in three of the four community types laid out in the Carsey Institute report, including declining resource-dependent, chronically poor, and communities with amenity-driven growth along with resource-based decline. The communities also represent the spectrum of rural communities located near urban centers and those relatively isolated from large population centers.

Chronically poor rural area

Centered on Dent County, a small, rural county of approximately 15,000 residents, the **Northern Ozarks Region in Missouri** is an area relatively isolated from a major population center, and is defined as a chronically poor rural area. The region includes 7 counties, with 2008 poverty rates ranging from 18.0 % in Phelps County to 26.0% Shannon County, compared to a state average of 13.5%. Median household incomes in 2008 were also significantly lower than the state average of $46,847, with Phelps County having the highest at $37,080. Shannon County's median

household income was $28,559. Dent County's poverty rate and median household income falls between the two extremes at 19.0% and $34,482 respectively (U.S. Census Bureau).

The region's economy was traditionally focused on extraction activities including timber, mining and agriculture. Dent County recently formed the Council for a Healthy Dent County in efforts to support a healthy lifestyle in the area, and was selected to participate in the University of Missouri-Extension's Healthy Lifestyle Initiative. The Council has set the goal to increase community access to affordable locally-produced healthy food. Part of this initiative is to create access for local farmers to serve institutional markets like the schools in the county. The Northern Ozarks region includes the micropolitan city of Rolla, home to Missouri University of Science and Technology. Part of our study will take place here to better understand the local and regional food system opportunities that may exist in micropolitan regions.

Figure 2. Communities selected by type

Declining resource dependant

Southeastern Nebraska

Chronically poor

Northern Ozarks, Missouri

Carsey Institute community types

Amenity driven growth with resource-based decline

Old Trails Region, Missouri

Amenity rich

Rocky Mountain West (not included in study)

Declining resource dependant rural area

Southeastern Nebraska represents the declining resource-dependent category of rural areas. The five southeastern counties of Johnson, Otoe, Nemaha, Pawnee and Richardson have developed a regional identity and have participated in a number of development activities as a region. Their combined population of 38,000 has declined by 6% since the 2000 Census and all five counties saw their peak population prior to 1930. Median household income in the region averaged 12% below the State average in 2007. The 2,990 area farms identified by the last Census of Agriculture have been declining at the rate of about 1% annually for several decades, despite recent growth in the number of lifestyle farms. The average age of the principal farm operator is 57.9, 2 years older than the State average. Declining populations and farm numbers have led to increased development efforts. The University of Nebraska's Extension and Rural Initiative along with the regionally focused Kimmel Research Center (located in Otoe County) and the Five Rivers RC&D District (which includes the five counties) have identified the region's potential for providing horticultural crops and agritourism experiences to the nearby metropolitan Omaha and Lincoln areas. The RC&D Director has been an active participant in the Nebraska Local Foods Network, which is a collaboration of individuals working together to encourage and facilitate the increased production and consumption of local foods in Nebraska.

Amenity driven growth with resource-based decline rural area

The **Old Trails Region of Missouri** represents communities with amenity-driven growth along with resource-based decline. The region includes counties on both sides of the Missouri

River in West Central Missouri. Located near the Kansas City metropolitan area, the Old Trails Region traditionally included row crop production in the Missouri river bottoms and commodity cattle production and orchards in the hillier regions. Commodity production in the region is facing the same profitability challenges as commodity production in other parts of the country, with the added stressor of population pressure in certain locations due to the region's proximity to the Kansas City Metro.

Today, orchards, wineries, unique shops, restaurants and bed and breakfasts make this area a destination for travelers, and provide an opportunity for amenity driven growth. The Old Trails Regional Tourism Partnership has been formed to preserve and share the region's unique assets and values, encourage entrepreneurial investment and build regional identity and pride (http://www.oldtrails.net/), and will partner with the researchers to identify farmers and consumers in the region to participate in the study. Poverty rates in the region range from 10.0% (median income $51,965) in Ray County (a metropolitan county adjacent to Jackson County, core of the Kansas City metropolitan area) to 18.0% in rural Saline County. The lowest median income in the region is in Chariton County with $38,455 (U.S. Census Bureau).

Relationship to Program Area Priorities

The proposed research directly addresses USDA Agricultural, Food and Research Initiative Priority Six on Agricultural Economics and Rural Communities. In its effort to study consumer behavior in a variety of geographic and socioeconomic contexts, the research also relates to Priority Three on Food Safety, Health and Nutrition. The proposal aligns with Agricultural Economics and Rural Communities Program Area priorities in the following ways.

Program Area Priority 3. *Promote the sustainability of small and medium-sized farms and rural communities, by enhancing knowledge of appropriate entrepreneurship and small business development strategies, including the use of emerging information technology systems, e-commerce, local and regional partnerships, entrepreneurial networks, value-added processing, workforce development, etc.*

Local food systems are often identified by practitioners as a small business development strategy that provides small and medium-sized farms and rural communities an opportunity for rural economic development. Local, direct markets are often promoted as a means for farmers to capture a greater portion of the consumer food dollar. They are also promoted as a means for consumers to support their local economy. We seek to understand if participation in local/regional food system by ***both*** farmers and consumers can provide an economic boost to rural communities and if that participation helps farmers in small and medium-sized operations be profitable and meet their whole life goals.

Program Area Priority 4. *Evaluate the institutional, social, cultural, economic and psychological factors that affect consumer and producer behavior in rural communities and in turn, enhance the efficiency and equity of public and private sector investment in agriculture and rural communities.*

Based on the recently released ERS report on Local Food Systems (pp. 18-19), it is clear that there are differences in opportunities for direct market sales depending on the proximity of the farm to a an urban market (metro vs. rural counties adjacent to metros vs. remote rural counties). There is also some evidence to suggest that there are regional differences in local

food/direct market sales as well (Northeast and West Coast vs. Midwest, etc.) Our project is designed to explore the institutional, social, cultural, economic and psychological factors that affect consumer behavior in rural areas in comparison with those same factors in a higher income urban setting, a lower income urban setting and a micropolitan setting. It also looks at differences between consumers who are currently buying directly from farmers and those who purchase food in more conventional venues.

Contribution to Sustainability of U.S. Agriculture and Food Systems

Regional food systems have emerged in recent years as an economic development strategy through which rural communities can help themselves turn around a declining economic situation. Regional food systems are not a panacea—their success is difficult to maneuver and that difficulty is, at least in part, what motivates the present research. However, regional food systems do offer promise as a sustainable means of positively impacting rural areas because they often make innovative use of existing assets in rural communities. The problem of persistent rural poverty is deep and not likely to be turned around through any amount of programmatic intervention—sustainable strategies for rural development must focus on increasing the capacity of local residents to exploit resources to which they have ready access. The proposed research will be translatable into important information that cooperative extension and other outreach specialists need who are engaging with local communities to develop regional food systems.

The research is also timely because it takes place during a window of opportunity when consumer preferences are favoring the purchase of more locally produced and fresh produce. However, food buying habits have been forged for most people through decades of shopping in conventional venues (e.g., large grocery stores) where the produce available is the product of large producers operating in an agricultural sector anchored in commodity driven pricing. The purchasing behavior of these consumers is in flux and not well understood. The proposed research will contribute to the sustainability of US agriculture by developing specific profile information of local foods buyers, with particular attention to contrasting the characteristics of those people willing to buy directly from producers (e.g., farmer's markets) and those who still prefer conventional venues. This information will translate to a higher likelihood of success for producers.

3. Approach

Activities

There are three distinct research activities in this project, as well as a fourth integrative objective, with several resulting peer-reviewed publications and presentations of the findings.

Objective 1: To develop research-based profiles of small and medium sized producers who do and do not market their products in local/regional food systems.

To identify the motivations for small and medium-sized farms to produce for local/regional food systems, we will **survey 150-180 producers marketing in local/regional food systems** to determine the characteristics of their farm operation, market outlets (both direct and non-direct),

participation in local/regional food systems – particularly focusing on connections between farmers, consumers and community members – and motivations/justifications for participating in the local markets. This will answer the questions:

- *What are the motivations of small and medium-sized farms to produce for local/regional food systems?*
- *What are the opportunities for small and medium-sized farms located in remote rural areas to capture value for their communities from urban areas?*
- *Are local food strategies successful at helping farmers with small and medium-sized farms meet their whole life goals (e.g. basic profit and quality of life)?*

Objective 2: To calibrate an economic impact model that enables researchers to quantify farm profitability and local economic impact that come from regional food sales.

To examine the economic and social impacts of local/regional food system participation in their local rural community, we will conduct **in-depth interviews with 20-30 of the producers surveyed** to identify their forward and backward linkages in the food system that will inform an **input-output analysis** of the economic impacts of local/regional food systems. This will answer the questions:

- *What is the economic impact of local food systems on rural economic systems?*
- *Is the economic impact of production for local/regional food systems significantly different than other, more conventional, forms of agriculture?*
- *Can local food systems create a means for rural areas to capture value from metro areas?*

Objective 3: To specify the institutional, social, cultural, economic and psychological factors that differentiate rural food buyers from urban food buyers, and what differentiates food buyers who buy directly from farmers from those who shop in more conventional venues.

To investigate the factors that motivate consumer behavior as they relate to locally grown foods in different geographic and socioeconomic contexts, we will conduct **19 focus groups that reach low-income and high-income urban consumers and rural consumers** to determine their interest in and access to locally produced foods. This will answer the questions:

- *What are the factors that motivate consumer behavior as they relate to locally grown foods in different geographic and socioeconomic contexts?*
- *Does access and desire for locally produced foods differ based on income and geographies?*
- *Are rural and lower-income consumers more likely to be focused on price as a basis for food purchases?*
- *Are urban consumers more likely to incorporate preferences for quality, taste and values into food purchasing decisions? Alternately, are rural consumers highly motivated to acquire locally grown foods due to their proximity to farms and farming neighbors, provided their price threshold is not exceeded?*

Objective 4: To examine the potential opportunities and challenges for linking producers and consumers together in local/regional food systems.

Producer level data will be linked with consumer data through an analysis of "worlds of justification," an important component of Conventions theory as described by Sage (2010) and Rosin and Campbell (2009). The following worlds of justification will be used to identify motivations for producer and consumer behavior and analyze the potential for linkages between farmers and consumers:

1. Market: price motive
2. Industrial: focus on efficiency
3. Civic: contribution to good of civil society
4. Green: environmental improvements
5. Domestic: personal relationships
6. Inspired: expression of creativity
7. Renown: public opinion and general social standing.

Methods

Objective 1—Producer survey

The proposed study uses a survey instrument with 150-180 producers in the three locations identified above (Southeast Nebraska, Northern Ozarks, and Old Trails Region). The survey will gather data on input purchases, marketing strategies, profitability, and farm level quality of life, characteristics of the farm operation, market outlets (both direct and non-direct), participation in local/regional food systems – particularly focusing on connections between farmers, consumers and community members – and motivations/justifications for participating in local/regional markets. The latter will be premised on Conventions theory "worlds of justification" as explored in Sage (2010) and Rosin and Campbell (2009). Since farmers producing for local/regional food systems are often overlooked in official statistics, several recruitment strategies will be employed to generate enough producer participation in the survey. Producers will be recruited through extension networks (including limited resource farmers served by Lincoln University extension), contacts with local foods retail outlets (farmers' markets, grocery stores, road-side stands), farmer associations (e.g. Nebraska Local Foods Network, Missouri Vegetable Growers Association, Good Natured Family Farms), grower listservs and state agencies.

Once a sampling frame has been developed from these networks in the three regions, a stratified random sample will be taken to ensure adequate participation from each location. Sampling will take place until 150-180 responses have been gathered. The survey will be distributed via Survey Monkey for those farmers who have an email address and access to broadband internet service. Surveys will be mailed to farmers without an email address and to those who request a hard copy. Participants in the email/mail survey will be paid $25 to compensate them for their time in filling out the survey.

Objective 2—Economic Impact Analysis

An in-depth interview guide will be developed based on preliminary results of the email/mail survey. Between 20-30 farmers (spread over the three regions) will participate in the in-depth interviews, which will gather highly detailed information about forward and backward linkages of their farm operations, such as input costs (including point of purchase), geographical location of input suppliers and market outlets, and marketing strategies (including precise sales information for each sales channel). Farmers in this group will be paid $100 for their

participation in the interview. The data from these interviews will be used to calibrate the economic impact model, and to analyze farm profitability and local economic impact.

Interview data will be used to construct input-output coefficients for small and medium-sized farmers in Southeast Nebraska, the Northern Ozarks and the Old Trails Regions in Missouri. These coefficients will then be used to calculate the direct, indirect and induced effects (i.e. multiplier effects) of farmers marketing in their local and regional market. These multiplier effects will be compared to the standard multiplier effects reported for agricultural production in IMPLAN. The difference between the multiplier effects for small and medium sized farmers marketing locally and the standard multiplier effects in IMPLAN will show the potential change in economic impacts if more farmers shift to this type of marketing strategy.

Objective 3—Consumer Behavior Research

Focus groups will be conducted in order to understand the similarities and differences between consumers in different contexts as they relate to local food purchases. Focus groups are especially appropriate methodology when the questions involve social interactions or experiences (Kennedy and Lingard 2006) and the researcher wishes to explore in depth how individuals experience the social world (Crone, Smith, and Gough 2005). An advantage of this method is that the group process helps participants explore and clarify their views in ways that would be less easily accessible in individual interviews, and is not possible with surveys. This type of interaction allows participants to use their own vocabulary, ask their own questions, and pursue their own priorities (Crone, Smith, and Gough 2005)The various strengths of focus groups make this the best option for the purposes of this part of the study.

In our case, focus groups will help us explore the varying socioeconomic and geographical contexts represented within our regions. The contexts that will be explored include direct market vs. "conventional" shoppers, consumers in high income vs. low income areas and consumers in remote rural, micropolitan and medium and large metropolitan areas. We will conduct 19 focus groups across the spatial and socioeconomic spectrum shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Matrix of consumer type and spatial context		
	Type of Consumer	
Spatial Context	**Direct Market**	**Conventional**
Remote Rural	Salem Farmers Market Salem, Missouri (chronically poor)	Rural Ozarks Grocery 1&2
	Rural Old Trails Farmers Market (declining resource, amenity rich)	Rural Old Trails Grocery 1 &2
	Rural Nebraska Farmers Market (declining resource dependent)	Rural Nebraska Grocery Store 1&2
Recruitment Strategy	*Extension networks, invitations at farmers' market*	*Recruitment through extension and community-based organizations, invitations given by project staff at grocery stores Screening question for non-purchase of local foods*

Micropolitan	Rolla Farmers Market	Rolla Grocery Store
Recruitment Strategy	*Same as for rural*	*Same as for rural*
Medium Metro	High Income Lincoln Farmers Market	High Income Lincoln Grocery Store
	Low Income Lincoln Farmers Market	Low Income Lincoln Grocery Store
Large Metro	High Income Kansas City Farmers Market	High Income Kansas City Grocery
	Lower Income Urban Market	Lower Income Urban Grocery
Recruitment Strategy	*Low income consumers will be recruited at Farmers' Markets in Lincoln and Kansas City that accept EBT and WIC (some offer double coupons) and/or are located in specific low-income zip codes. High income consumers will be recruited through invitations issued at farmers' market by vendors and/or management.*	*Low-income consumers will be recruited through Extension nutrition programs (Family Nutrition Education Program) as well as through invitations issued at low-income grocery stores by project staff. High-income grocery shoppers will be selected by Census data and invitations issued by project staff at those stores.*

Each focus group will consist of approximately 12 individuals each, and is expected to last about 90 minutes. The focus group process will follow accepted guidelines provided by Krueger (1994) and help reveal how individuals located and interpreted marketing information. Possible focus group questions may include, "What do you see as the advantages of locally produced food?" "What information is important to you in making food purchasing decisions?" and "What kinds of factors limit your ability to obtain locally produced food?" We will seek out farmers' market shoppers as a proxy for consumers who participate in a local food/regional system through a variety of retail outlets.

We will use a variety of methods to recruit focus group participants, including accessing extension networks (particularly through educational programs targeted to low-income families), recruiting shoppers at farmers' markets and grocery stores in selected areas, and working with community-based organizations with which we have strong ties (e.g. Beans and Greens program in Kansas City).Focus group participants will be reimbursed $25 for their time. All focus group activity will be subject to approval by the Institutional Review Boards of participating institutions.

Objective 4—Linking Producer Survey and Consumer Behavior Research

The qualitative research proposed for this study complements the survey data collection by adding depth and a more complete understanding of the social context in which food purchasing

decisions are made, and will assist in identifying those preferences and expectations that most influence the purchase of locally produced food. In particular we are interested in using the idea of the "worlds of justification" from Conventions theory (Sage 2010; Rosin and Campbell 2009). The "worlds of justification" relate to the values and perceptions that motivate farmers when selecting their production and marketing strategies and consumers when making food purchases, and include market, industrial, civic, green, domestic, inspired, and renown. Producer and consumer behaviors relating to these worlds of justification can be matched to more fully explore the potential for farmer-consumer connections and how they can be made in a number of different geographical and socioeconomic contexts.

Analysis of Data

The data collected through the producer survey will be analyzed using STATA software for descriptive statistics, as well as regression and factor analysis to determine the relationship between profitability, participation in local food systems, and motivations for participating in local/regional food systems, including motivations currently examined in Conventions Theory (i.e. "worlds of justification"). Data from the in-depth interviews will be used to develop coefficients for an input-output model to determine economic impact of farmers in local/regional food systems. These coefficients and economic impact estimates will be compared with IMPLAN's agriculture coefficients to determine if there is a difference in economic impact between agricultural production targeting local and regional markets and commodity agricultural production. Focus groups will be recorded, transcribed and coded using the ATLAS TI software to examine "worlds of justification" and attitudes and interest in locally produced foods.

Limitations and Pitfalls of Proposed Research

As noted, producers participating in local/regional food systems are often overlooked in official agricultural statistics. There are a range of different types of farmers who produce for these markets, from conventional growers familiar with filling out agricultural census forms and other surveys to highly-educated farmers accustomed to participating in research to farmers more at home with cash (informal economic) activities and wary of data collection. Given the varieties of farmers, and the difficulty in relying on Census of Agriculture databases, we are employing strategies that will use existing networks that project personnel personally or institutionally have contact with to begin snowballing a good sample of farmers. We will compare a random sampling of these farmers to official data on farm characteristics to spot inconsistencies.

We face many of the same limitations with the consumer research. Low-income consumers tend not to have telephones or known addresses – particularly in micropolitan and metropolitan settings. We will use existing networks to help recruit consumers as well as farmers for participation. We will pre-test the survey and the focus group questions to determine if questions about farm or family characteristics, consumption or sales are too intrusive to be answered (in addition to complying with existing protocols imposed by our universities' Internal Review Boards). We expect that monetary compensation for the time spent with researchers will enhance our ability to attract participation in the survey, in-depth producer interviews and the focus groups.

Finally, much of the economic impact research surveyed in the literature review has suffered from inadequate modeling that does not take into account different coefficients for local/regional

food systems. We hope to correct this, but it is possible that the changes in the coefficients will be too small to generate useful economic models. CPAC experience working on community impact data and will enable it to develop the model and smooth out difficulties.

Expected outcomes

We anticipate that the proposed research will result in the following outcomes:

1) Research-based profiles of small and medium-sized farms who are participating in local/regional food systems that will provide assistance in the creation of local, state and federal policies that encourages their prosperity.
2) An economic impact model with reliable coefficients that quantifies farm profitability and local economic impact coming from regional food sales in order to allow policy-makers to make evidence-based decisions about rural development tools that foster local/regional food systems.
3) Increased knowledge of the institutional, social, cultural, and economic factors that differentiate rural food buyers from urban food buyers, and that differentiate food buyers who buy directly from farmers from those who shop in more conventional venues.
4) Increased understanding of the linkages between farmers' and consumers' values and motivations that will improve farmers ability to connect with rural and urban consumers and provide an evidence base for extension programming on increasing access to locally grown foods in different contexts.
5) Increased understanding of the role of local/regional food systems in enhancing the prosperity of small and medium-sized farms and rural communities that will provide the evidence base for the development of cogent rural development policies.

For this research to contribute to the knowledge base of researchers, policy-makers, farmers, and community-based organizations, we will present the findings of our project in up to three professional societies, and in two or more journal articles. We will also develop two peer-reviewed extension publications (e.g. University of Missouri and University of Nebraska Extension Guides) that will present this information in a way that can be used by farmers, community-based organizations, extension educators and policy-makers.

How results will be used

The research results will be presented at three professional meetings, (such as the Rural Sociological Society, the Agriculture Food and Human Values Society, the Community Development Society or the American Association of Agricultural Economics), and two-three publications will be prepared for appropriate peer-reviewed journals. The University of Missouri and University of Nebraska will collaborate on two extension publications (potentially useful for the local food systems community of practice on eXtension) exploring farmer-consumer linkages in regional food systems and its impact on rural development.

We anticipate that the results will be used by extension educators (in community development, agriculture and natural resources, nutrition and business development areas) to develop targeted programming for farmers, consumers and communities interested in local/regional food system strategies; by policy-makers in agriculture and rural development considering policies that sustain small and medium-sized farms and rural communities; and to provide a knowledge base
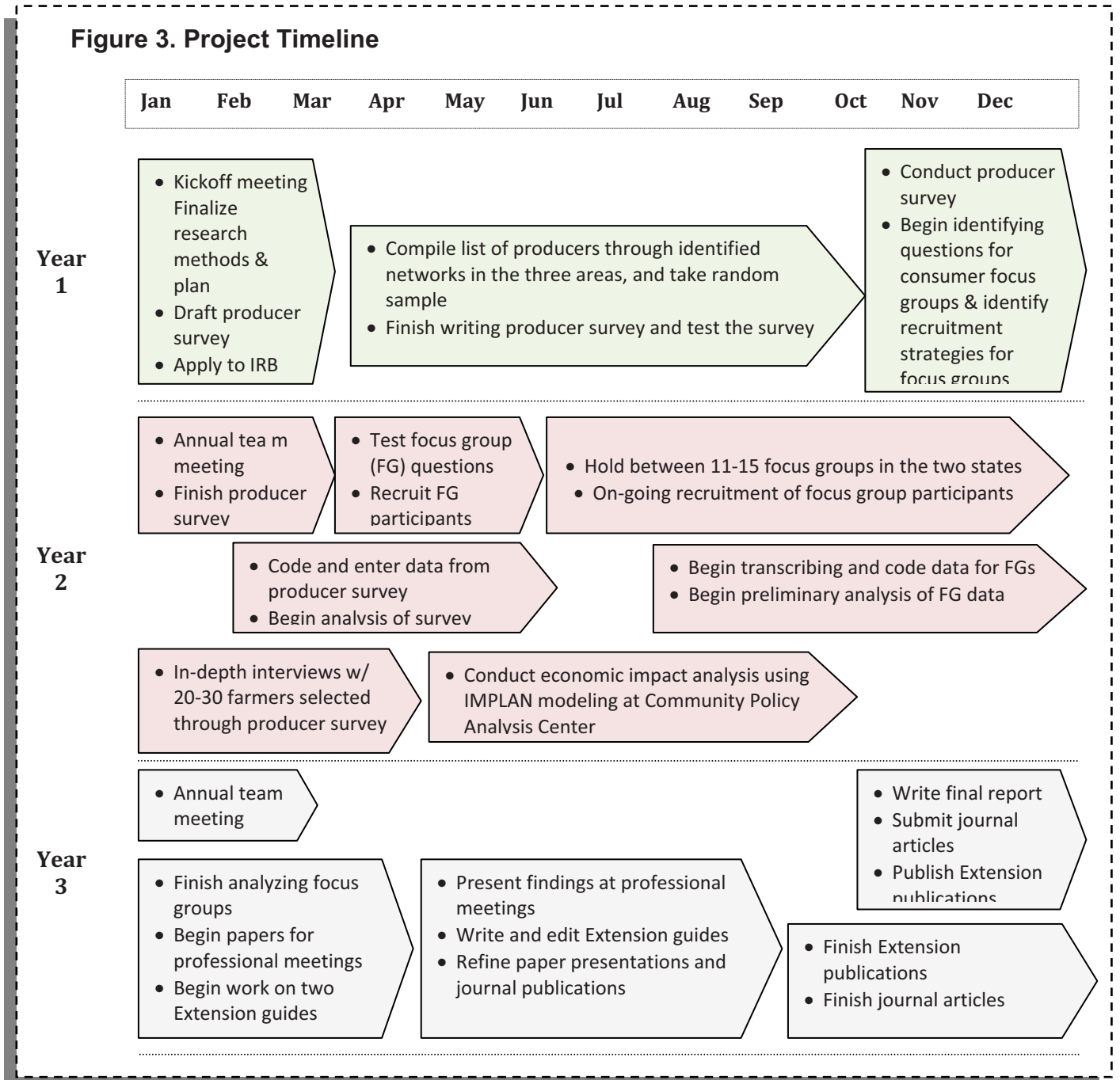
that will lead to further research on the connections between the prosperity of small and medium-sized farms, the community and economic impacts of local/regional food systems on rural development, and the ability of consumers of all socioeconomic contexts and geographies to access locally produced foods.

Potential hazardous materials

None.

Timeline for completing project

Figure 3. Project Timeline

Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec

Year 1

- Kickoff meeting Finalize research methods & plan
- Draft producer survey
- Apply to IRB

- Compile list of producers through identified networks in the three areas, and take random sample
- Finish writing producer survey and test the survey

- Conduct producer survey
- Begin identifying questions for consumer focus groups & identify recruitment strategies for focus groups

Year 2

- Annual tea m meeting
- Finish producer survey

- Test focus group (FG) questions
- Recruit FG participants

- Hold between 11-15 focus groups in the two states
- On-going recruitment of focus group participants

- Code and enter data from producer survey
- Begin analysis of survey

- Begin transcribing and code data for FGs
- Begin preliminary analysis of FG data

- In-depth interviews w/ 20-30 farmers selected through producer survey

- Conduct economic impact analysis using IMPLAN modeling at Community Policy Analysis Center

Year 3

- Annual team meeting

- Write final report
- Submit journal articles
- Publish Extension publications

- Finish analyzing focus groups
- Begin papers for professional meetings
- Begin work on two Extension guides

- Present findings at professional meetings
- Write and edit Extension guides
- Refine paper presentations and journal publications

- Finish Extension publications
- Finish journal articles

Rural Alliance for Service-Learning

April 26, 2011

PI: Proulx-Curry, P. (University of Wisconsin-Madison)

Co-PIs: Stoecker, R. (University of Wisconsin-Madison), Goreham, G. (North Dakota State University), Nagy, D. (South Dakota State University), Mark, C. (Michigan State University), and Wood, S. (Kansas State University)

Award: $14,700

Project Abstract: Higher Education service learning—the practice of sending students off campus to do community work for course credit—is increasingly popular in colleges and universities. But do rural communities get access to such services? If they do, are the services effective, and how do we make them as effective as possible? Is there anything about rural service learning that distinguishes it from the more well-known urban service learning models? Our project will take the first steps toward building knowledge of rural service learning models and infrastructures to support their implementation.

Our goal is to plan a large-scale action research project to develop and support rural service learning. Our strategy includes growing a regional network of rural service learning practitioners who can document cases of rural service learning, share lessons with each other, and produce a grant proposal to test those lessons more broadly and deeply.

The State of Rural Service Learning

By The Rural Alliance for Service Learning.[1]

Introduction:

This report is an effort to understand rural higher education service learning. Higher education service learning in rural areas is unique due to the geography of rural areas and has challenges and benefits that are different than its urban counterpart (Mihalynuk, Seifer, 2007). Longer travel times, lack of partner organizations, no public transportation and spotty Internet service are just a few of the challenges for service learning in rural areas. Higher education can play a powerful role in rural communities (Watson, Church, Darville, and Darville, n.d.) and rural higher education service learning provides an opportunity to address systemic needs of rural communities while providing students with an engaged and holistic education.

Understanding rural higher education service learning requires first understanding the rural context and the nature of rurality. Within this context, we will limit our discussion to higher education service learning, and not K-12 adaptations of the service learning model. Thus, we will use *rural service learning* to refer only to higher education service learning in rural areas.

Service learning is defined in various ways, with varying degrees of specificity. A commonly accepted definition of service learning is a course-based, credit-bearing educational experience in which college or university students participate in an organized activity that meets identified community needs and reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of both personal values and civic responsibility (Bringle and Hatcher, 1995). Service learning represents an effort to link the community and the classroom and develop a relationship where all participants (students, teachers, and community partners) benefit. Service learning can empower communities to manage local issues, reverse downward spirals, and create upward shifts in community development, contributing to what Emory and Flora (2006) call an "upward spiral of hope."   It is important to note that there are co-curricular forms of community service based in colleges and universities, that service-learning has varying degrees of connection to courses or departments, and that there is wide variation from institution to institution and even course to course. And it is perhaps essential to understand that, from a community perspective, these definitions are of little importance (Stoecker and Tryon, 2009).

We will begin by discussing the rural context, which is so important to understanding the challenges and opportunities facing rural service learning. We will then look at rural service learning itself, drawing on the case studies created through this project and other resources. We will show that rural communities, in general, and rural higher education service learning, in particular, are in need of greater understanding. We conclude with a set of recommendations for further research and action.

The Rural Context

1. **Definitions of the Rural**

Exactly what constitutes *rural* and what distinguishes it from urban are controversial and complicated matters. The *Encarta World English Dictionary* (**date**) defines "rural" as "outside the city, typical of the country, or agricultural." This effort at describing rural communities encompasses a number of the misconceptions inherent in labeling the term. The first is the negative definition. Here rural is outside the city or the opposite from urban or metropolitan. A negative definition tends to not describe what the characteristics of a subject might be. Rather, the subject is simply lacking in some characteristic; defined by what it is not.

Another definition of rural would be "agricultural," and various synonyms for rural include the words "rustic, pastoral, bucolic, countryside, or country." In fact much of what is portrayed as rural or urban is largely driven by popular perceptions rather than the longstanding traditions of research that have grappled with this distinction. That is, the typical notions that rural is agricultural, comprised of networks of kinship and close friends, and removed from the happenings of urban society are largely false (Brown and Swanson, 2003). In fact quite the opposite is true. Rural areas are decreasingly reliant on farm incomes and agricultural economies, have social relationships that are very similar to their urban counterparts, and are increasingly connected through the Internet and satellite television (Brown and Swanson, 2003). Less than ten percent of rural Americans live on farms (Whitener and Parker, 2007), but the stereotype of all rural areas as farming communities belies the more complex nature of rural life. However, in addition to agriculture, there are rural communities across the nation that rely on mining, timbering, fishing, or meat packing. In addition, rural areas also find themselves depending on the benefits of tourism.

Thus, it is important to understand that there is a lot of diversity in the rural. In the words of The Center for Rural Affairs, "...there is really no such thing as rural America. Each rural community in America is uniquely different. Our popular notion of a Norman Rockwell painting often clouds the great diversity that many rural communities harbor." (Holton, 2005). Our attempts to portray the rural as a singularly identifiable place can lead to ruralism.

> "Ruralism involves discrimination on the basis of factors stemming from
> living in a rural area. Indeed ruralism is a pervasive form of
> discrimination – largely unrecognized, unacknowledged, and unexamined

– and one often impacting most harshly those individuals who already are subject to other forms of discrimination based on gender, socioeconomic status, and race." (Bassett, 2006)

Nonetheless, two simple facts tend to characterize rural areas: low populations and vast amounts of land. These are of course relative terms. As of the 2000 Census, there were over fifty-six million people living in the rural areas of the United States (Johnson, 2003). The U.S. Census Bureau defines settlements with a population of 2,500 persons or less or open country with a population density of less than 1,000 people per square mile as "rural farm" or "rural nonfarm" communities. However, there are many frontier towns larger than 2,500 situated in rural geographic areas where a 15 minute drive will end up in very sparsely populated countryside. These rurally situated towns often serve as cultural, administrative, or medical hubs of their region and play an important role in the development of the area. The U.S. Department of Agriculture tells us that "nonmetro" America makes up 75% of the land, but only 17% of the population, and these numbers hint at some of the challenges confronted by rural communities. The large land area suggests that there are vast distances to cover when attempting to link people and communities together.

2. The Rural Population

Throughout the US, rural areas have been experiencing population losses since at least the late 1980s. This outmigration has come to define much of what it means to live in rural areas. For example McGranahan et al. (2010) state that "over a third of nonmetro counties lost at least 10 percent of their population through net outmigration over 1988-2008" (p. i). This movement of people away from rural areas is particularly concerning because it is highly concentrated among younger individuals. Among outmigration counties, we find two basic types, those with poverty rates that average over 30 percent and those that are prosperous (McGranahan et al. 2010). Interestingly, high outmigration counties that are prosperous are often remote, have low population densities, and fewer scenic amenities (McGranahan et al. 2010). In general, though, these counties are all situated within the greater Midwest and Cornbelt.

Rural communities are also often perceived as suffering from "brain drain", and while depopulation is indeed an important issue in many rural areas, there is not a complete lack of talent in those communities. (Holton, 2005). The trends may be more accurately labeled a youth brain drain (Artz, 2003).

3. The Rural Economy and Poverty

Two of the many surprising realities regarding rural America are the high incidence of poverty and high amount of non-farm income. Employment in natural resource related enterprises including farming, mining, and fishing among others peaked early in the twentieth century and has declined precipitously since then (McGranahan, 2003). Overwhelmingly the most significant industrial shift affecting rural people as measured by earnings is a movement away from

agriculture and toward support services (McGranahan 2003). Interestingly an exciting area of research in rural economies has identified three informal economic activities characterizing various rural households; subsistence self-provisioning such as hunting and fishing; household maintenance and food storage; and informal economy work such as odd jobs, hair cutting and the like (McGranahan 2003).

There is some indication that people in rural areas are more likely to experience poverty than people in urban areas (Flora and Flora, 2008: pp. 99-100; USDA, ERS 2004), though the situation is complicated. When poverty measures are adjusted for cost of living, the rankings are reversed with individuals in urban areas become more likely to be impoverished (Jolliffe 2006). In unadjusted numbers however, the proportion of those with incomes below the poverty level is persistently higher in rural areas, and rural households earn approximately 75 percent that of urban households (USDA, ERS 2010). Moreover, while the gap between rural and urban poverty rates decreased between 1959 and 1973, it has remained relatively constant since then (Jensen et al. 2003). And while high levels of poverty often translate into poor educational performance, rural student performance is typically situated between the best-performing suburban schools and the worst-performing city schools (Flora and Flora, 2008: 98).

Traditionally our images of poverty include men in urban areas sleeping on benches in public parks, failing minority-serving public schools, and large urban food distribution centers. Rarely are there images that portray the poverty found in rural areas and the unique characteristics poor residents face in these communities. For example, because many assume that most rural residents live on farms or ranches, they conclude that rural people have easy access to food. In fact this is true of only about 10% of the rural population. Likewise, homelessness is not a problem usually associated with rural communities. Yet in rural areas the homeless tend to be white, married, working females. (Mihalynuk and Seifer, 2007). Visible street-level homelessness is not as visible as "couch-surfing" where homeless individuals and families are sheltered in a friend's or relative's home. While rural communities often have slightly lower rates of violent crime and drug use compared to urban areas, the difference in rates is decreasing. The halo effect of positive stereotypes that cast rural communities as safe havens from urban problems can make it difficult to effectively deal with challenges being faced by those communities.

The real characteristics of rural poverty, and to some extent its very existence, is thus hidden from public view. The nature of a rural community means that a personal mode of transportation is essential and that housing tends to be cheaper. However, both the housing and transportation can be inadequate, dilapidated, or unreliable. Rural poverty, more often than urban, exists in families who provide their own housing, transportation, and has one or more family members who work full time, (Flora and Flora, 2008) as opposed to families who live in public housing and who take public transportation. As such, many from urban areas see the ability to pay for these amenities as more of a luxury than necessity. The definition and interpretation of the term "rural" can greatly influence government funding and the availability of resources. The low population figures serve to explain how governmental resources are

often spent in urban areas where more people per square mile can be affected by public appropriations. Yet rural communities across the country are in great need, especially in a challenged economy.

There are other reasons many fail to recognize the plight of rural communities whose citizens are in poverty. Both rural and urban communities have problems to solve, but the territorial distances and back country roads in rural areas mean that poverty and social problems can be hidden relatively easily. Those distances tend to make rural residents feel neglected and far from the seat of power and news media that could make rural poverty more visible. The media and policy makers have their focus not on the existence of poverty, but more specifically on unemployment. Further, the literature on poverty in the United States, makes too little distinction between generational poverty, temporary poverty, working-class poverty, and situational poverty (Beegle, 2003). While rural communities have been noted for their resilience in the face of tragedies that bring about temporary poverty such as a flood, they do not have the resources to combat chronic poverty (Flora and Flora, 2008). As such, many of those living in poverty in rural areas are in families who have experienced poverty for many generations and go unseen both in the media and literature on poverty.

4. Rural Culture

Rural areas are often the subject of stereotypes, and most Americans are not particularly familiar with either the day to day goings on in rural areas nor the attitudes, opinions, and social characteristics of rural people (Brown and Swanson 2003). Hayseed humor about naïve, unsophisticated, poor, country bumpkins is an old negative image. Residents of rural areas are often stereotyped as being narrow-minded, stupid, lacking in imagination, lacking in education, and insular (Walters, 2007). But less explicit, and perhaps more damaging, are less negative stereotypes that prevent us from fully understanding the complexity of rural communities, or recognizing some of the issues that may need attention. This is balanced out by an equally stereotyping pastoral vision of rural living that is both a reflection of an imagined past and a yearning for forms of social organization imagined to be absent from urban living. Many of these views, however, are simply imaginings (MacTavish and Salamon 2003).

Rural citizens who resist the forces of outmigration are very proud of their cultures and spaces. One of the positive outcomes of this can be a heightened sense of community, as described in the case study of the multiple academic service learning projects attached to the 2003 Olympic World Cup Short Track Speed Skating Competition hosted at Northern Michigan University in Marquette, Michigan. Marquette residents felt particular pride in seeing their town featured in the worldwide media, with quotes from the Olympic athletes praising their community (Ganzert, 2010).

One of the biggest strengths in rural areas is the close networks and relationships that exist among the community (Lapping, 1999). A consequence of those close networks is that people may also tend to trust those within the region more readily than outsiders with no visible track

record of commitment to the culture in the region. Because outsiders "didn't grow up here," they are often viewed with skepticism, and so the first hurdle a new person must overcome is that of trust-building (Stoecker and Walters, 2010). There can be a "tightly-knit" quality to the structure of rural communities that not only pulls people together, but also makes it more difficult for an "outsider" to participate in community activities.

The structures and cultural cues within rural communities are often quite different from those of the city. When looking at rural relationships, one can see that people know each other in multiple role relationships as people see each other on the front porch, in church, at the store, and at community events. People often say that, in small towns, "everyone knows your business," while in highly populated urban areas, it is easier to be anonymous or know others in only singular roles. In a city, one can move from one side of town to another and not encounter a familiar face. But in rural areas, the situation is somewhat different. When a new face appears, people notice, and because it is easy to see what folks are doing, there are social pressures to conform to standards of community conduct.

Rural relationships are often based on kinship or community affiliation, in addition to work. As a result, there are informal linkages, and people are able to communicate outside the formal lines of communication. Because necessity often unites them, residents of rural communities often become uniquely skilled in coming together informally (Holton, 2010, Ganzert, 2010). Milalynhuk and Seifer (2007) contend that "rural communities are characterized by enormous strengths, including social connectedness and cohesiveness that often translate into a wonderful sense of community and camaraderie among their residents." Rural areas are often held together by complex informal networks working outside of, or in conjunction with more established institutions (Lapping, 1999).

Rural community residents often pull together to accomplish personal, group, and civic goals out of necessity. Prins (**date**) notes that rural communities have "few schools, organizations, and community leaders," but "tight social networks," possibly as a result of this lack of resources. The Kellogg Commission (**date**) elaborates, commenting on how economics have magnified this structure, or "shrunk" towns down further, thus decreasing the resources: **"**What can only be understood as an economic meltdown in many small farming communities has been accompanied by the collapse of social and economic structures in many rural areas."

It is also true that tight social networks, among even a few individuals in a rural area, can prevent change from happening. The pressure to modernize is a strong one in most communities. In a challenged economy, staying the same may not be an option. In rural areas, the forces of modernity and tradition can be at odds, creating a dynamic tension in need of resolution. Indeed, it is the isolation of rurality that has often preserved traditional cultures. And there are oppositional forces challenging rural communities that require resolution. Kandel and Brown (2006) suggest that there are tensions between traditional and modern forces in many communities around industry and resource extraction, tourism, and poverty versus

privilege. Shrinking rural populations, the out-migration of young people, and the in-migration of new minorities have brought about the loss of older cultural practices and the introduction of newer ones (Henness, 2010). In addition, the outward spread of cities and suburbs and the price of inexpensive land have introduced change and brought wealthier landowners into economically disadvantaged areas.

Likewise, there is a dynamic tension between advocates for industrial development and resource extraction and those in support of nature and tourism. Untapped resources are a valuable asset representing a potential source of revenue. However, others have asked, when those resources are accessed, does the money enrich the region or does it end up in financial markets elsewhere? And once the resources are gone, has the natural beauty of the area been preserved? Is the region still able to attract tourists?

Disagreeing with the leaders or even members of a rural community may not be as easy as voicing or acting in dissent in a larger community. The same social structure that provides informally organized groups with comprehensive local knowledge can also create problems. In some cases, dissent or differences in ideas may be ignored or suppressed for fear of disrupting harmony within a tightly-knit group of rural residents. If conflict does occur, the "deeply rooted complex structures" can inhibit resolution, or at least make it more complicated (Lapping, 1999).

5. Formal and Informal Organizations in Rural Communities

While certain organizational characteristics may be universal regardless of location, rural organizations possess some characteristics that are unique to their setting and therefore have implications for rural service-learning.

Formal organizations, such as local governments, business associations, and non-profit agencies, are legally incorporated entities that hold legitimate decision-making authority in the community, yet may possess varying degrees of power. The combinations of such organizations across rural communities can be as diverse as their economies (Lapping, 1999). Nonetheless, we can talk about some common characteristics. Rural communities in general have fewer formal organizations or institutions than urban communities. Their physical size and financial budgets are typically smaller. They employ fewer staff and those staff are more likely to be part-time employees or volunteers. Rural organization leaders are generally paid less than urban leaders which makes it more difficult for rural communities to attract and retain highly qualified professionals. Consequently, citizen-officials frequently hold multiple leadership positions in the community with multiple organizations at the same time (Nachtigal and Hobbs, 1988) or maintain a second income, which restricts their ability to become engaged beyond the core duties of their office (Flora and Flora, 1992). Because the overall pool of capable leaders is smaller than in urban areas, the mayor of a rural community may also be the acting head of the volunteer fire department and serving on the local school board. However, they may also be more accessible than in larger, more formalized organizations.

Rural organizations and agencies tend to be less hierarchical than their urban counterparts (Nachtigal and Hobbs, 1988). In rural areas, knowledge is more generalized and less specialized than in urban areas, which results in less division of labor. It is not uncommon for staff to be assigned responsibilities that are greater in breadth than in depth (Nachtigal and Hobbs, 1988). Workers must possess a wider range of knowledge and skills in order to cover all the bases, and as a result, are less able to pursue advancement in specialized fields. Rural organizations are more informal in how they conduct business. They typically rely on more informal methods of planning and decision-making than the more formalized approaches used by larger organizations. In practice, rural organizations may place greater priority on maintaining relationships and respecting traditions than on conforming to externally established standards of practice (Nachtigal and Hobbs, 1988). At the same time, community problems are becoming increasingly complex and remain highly technical, leaving organizations at a loss for meeting their own needs for expertise (Fitchen, 1991).

In terms of community governance, rural agencies and organizations provide citizens with an avenue for participating in decision-making that affects them. Government also provides a structure for communities to meet basic needs and an arena for determining who should carry the financial responsibility for creating the community's public goods (Flora and Flora, 1992). Because they are more likely to know their elected and appointed officials personally, rural residents tend to see their government as more inclusive and accessible than do urban residents (Flora and Flora, 1992). More rural dwellers are involved in governance per capita than urban dwellers. Yet, as noted above, civic involvement can also be more easily curtailed or blocked by influential groups or individuals in rural communities. Political control may be maintained by a relative few who possess certain technical expertise needed by local government to function (real estate, law, etc.). Rural governments face many of the same issues as larger populated areas (such as state and federal government mandates), yet with a more limited and often shrinking tax base to provide services and solutions (Fitchen, 1991).

Voluntary associations often fill in where there is a lack of institutional capacity in rural communities. The easiest way to tell the difference between formal organizations and institutions and informal voluntary organizations or associations is that when people representing institutions are sitting around a table to talk about creating a solution to a problem, they are all being paid to be there. Personal priorities, not money, mobilize voluntary associations. People who care about the same things come together in associations, share their knowledge and talents and then come to a consensus to act.

Many community associations are relatively invisible. Groups like a quilting club, or a group of retired business owners who have coffee at the same café every Monday morning are critical to the development of civic capacity in small, rural towns, but are less likely to be identified compared to more formal associations. Perhaps most significantly, associations are the civic space for democracy – a space where people are producers, rather than passive observers of community life. However, that group of influential folks having coffee in the café every Monday might also be a C.A.V.E. – a committee against virtually everything.

Rural Higher Education and Service Learning

1.   Different Kinds of Institutions

When we discuss the service learning practices of higher education institutions in these contexts we need to talk about different kinds of institutions that may have different students, different relationships to rural communities, and different internal issues. Minimally, we need to distinguish between institutions that reside in rural communities and those that do not. Land grant institutions in particular are often urban located, but still do significant work in rural communities. In such cases both the students and faculty have an urban life experience on a daily level, so the separation between them and the rural can be significant.   Of the universities located in cities, but serving rural areas, most are either land grant colleges or large universities that have a statewide constituency.

Among those institutions that are located in rural areas, there is also significant variation. Most are community colleges associated with a small town or city, a community college covering a large region (multi-county or tribal), a residential liberal arts college or a regional public university. Community colleges often draw on students who are from the community where the college is located, and thus are more a part of the community than perhaps for any other institution. But community colleges also serve a county or multi-county region, and there is consequently no guarantee that a service learning student will be working in a local community that they are familiar with. Residential liberal arts colleges, while located in rural counties, may exhibit some of the same challenges of distance as urban located institutions, since the students often come from a fair distance.

We also need to distinguish between larger and smaller institutions. To a large extent, rural located higher education institutions are smaller, with less hierarchy and less complex bureaucracies, potentially making them more accessible to communities and allowing for more personal and customized partnerships.   (Manning, Campbell, and Triplett, 2004).   Given that the larger institutions may also be further away from the communities where the service learning occurs, they face a double challenge in producing service learning that is truly useful for communities. Rural-based institutions can often better understand the importance of the local community and the deep and broad constraints and opportunities of that place. These institutions could guide the larger land-grant universities in their mission to serve and be responsive to community needs, if the larger institutions were willing.

2. Roles of Institutions in Rural Service Learning

The roles of colleges and universities in rural settings are as varied as the institutions themselves. And while higher education institutions can play these same roles in urban settings, the same amount of engagement in a high density multi-institutional environment can have a quite different impact than it might in a rural setting. Kirtland Community College's work with River House, Inc. has created projects that are now embraced as "community" events by

the rural community residents, and through long-standing partnerships and projects, Kirtland has become known as a "community provider" that addresses important needs. Here, a long-term collaborative relationship has allowed for a sharing of local pride as well as created the capacity for the service learning to address true community needs (Holton).

Colleges and universities can take one of five ways to engage with the community. First, the university can be a leader in the community.   The leader model seeks to change/improve the community through its knowledge, research ability and sometimes through its political power. The leader institution sometimes holds the community's hand, and in other places pushes, pulls, or drags the community kicking and screaming through proposed changes.

The second type of institutional role is that of facilitator. Facilitator colleges and universities engage with the community by convening, mentoring, organizing and developing programs and projects that will improve the community. Building their engagement from research, the needs of individual college departments, and the priorities of trustees, these colleges can be the glue that binds the community together to make substantive and systemic changes. However, they can also be the adhesive that keeps a community stuck to failed policies of the past which are obsolete in new technological and economic realities.

A third type is the collaborative institution. This college or university views the community as a true partner and each entity seeks first to find a way to bring its knowledge and expertise to the table. This model builds a community vision that the college can live within seamlessly with little need for political intrigue and academic-imposed priorities.

Fourth, some colleges and universities see themselves as following the lead of their communities. In this model the post-secondary institution is there to support the community in whatever direction it chooses. The resources of the college or university are there should the community need or ask, but there is no real leadership from the college to identify, research, develop or implement any community program without a direct request from the community.

 In the last model, the college or university actually ignores the local community/service district. This is often the college on the hill isolated in its "ivory tower." In this model the "Town-Gown" relationship is the most precarious and most in need of redefinition.

These different types of engagement can have important implications for rural service learning programs and their host communities. If a university chooses to ignore their community, and if it has a service learning program, its level of support from the university will be lukewarm and non-interfering at best. If the university wants to lead the community in all things then the rural service learning program could have a powerful place in the community. Yet if the needs of the community are in conflict with the direction the university is promoting, then there are direct consequences for the service learning program and its effectiveness.   The scenarios created from discussions like this are as varied as the communities and higher education institutions involved.

3. Impact of the Rural Resource Base on Service Learning

It is very important, then to consider these variations among higher education institutions, and their forms of engagement within the rural community. One important part of that context is the existing resource base. In many rural areas there is a lack of key professionals in certain areas. Higher education institutions may thus see rural communities as lacking the "right kind" of organizations to carry out many conventional service-learning projects (Mihalynukand Seifer, 2007). For instance, senior citizens in a rural community may desperately need services, but the community may not have an organization that provides elder care. The lack of an existing agency or nonprofit with which to partner may cause service-learning practitioners to avoid or overlook the issue.

At the same time, this lack of resources available in many rural communities (Kellogg Commission, **date**) leads to a keen interest in hosting service learning projects that can fill the gaps, as in the case of "The Group" and the Center for Small Towns, in which the rural residents were less organized because of low staffing within their civic agencies and had few formally established community organizations (Hamerlinck, 2010b). This was also true in the case of the partnership between Truman University and the Milan Latino Center. Whereas there would be multiple options for language learning in a larger, more urban area, the Truman University service learning students were the only ones available to teach ESL classes to the large and relatively new Hispanic population in the town (Henness and Jeanetta, 2010a). This was a serious need within the community that might have not otherwise been addressed.

The lack of resources both compels and allows rural service learning to be done in a more holistic manner that incorporates multiple community benefits (Conely, 2004). For example, one rural college had developed strong relationships with the local environmental organizations of the area and had conducted years of research analyzing water quality in a specific watershed. Another university service learning coordinator had become the go-to person in the community for basic needs and designed projects around specific locations and organizations.   If an elderly woman called her up because she needed help with yard work, the coordinator figured out how to fit that into a course (Ross, 2010).   Due to the long-standing partnerships, multiple projects with community partners can be undertaken to satisfy a variety of community needs.

Colleges and universities can fill a limited role by providing services through pre-professional service learning projects. This can take the form of community planning (Henness and Jennetta, 2010b) or through scientific and engineering services (Ganzert, 2010**cs). Although state and national laws prohibit substitution for all professional services, small nonprofits can benefit from the enthusiasm and passion of students, as they become budding professionals. In some cases these are students that are only a month or two from graduation and credentialing. Clearly they possess the skills, but lack the certification. When universities actively seek rural opportunities for their novitiate professionals, rural areas may especially benefit from these services as the students build a professional portfolio for future employment. Researchers and

practitioners in the field can support this by providing case studies of successful projects and conducting research that discovers best practices for pre-professional rural service learning experiences.

4. Impact of Rural Culture on Service Learning

We have discussed that rural agencies and nonprofits are more likely to be smaller and more informal than in urban areas. In relation to service learning, they likely also have more informal systems for recruiting, orienting, and evaluating the work of volunteers, whereas service-learning practitioners tend to prefer organizations with formalized systems for volunteer management. Organizations may also lack direct experience in working with college-age volunteers, which creates a learning curve for organizations to know how to effectively utilize students, and for faculty to know how to structure meaningful student involvement. In terms of the engagement activity itself, students need to learn that, in informal structures, leaders are not always clearly defined and there may be more than one individual vying to lead. "Politics" may be less overt than in more formal settings. For service-learning practitioners accustomed to working with urban organizations, these characteristics may lead to misperceptions about the readiness or commitment of rural organizations and their leaders. Instead, practitioners may need to revisit their approach to working with community organizations and allow for variations and differences between rural and urban settings (Lapping, 1999).

The lower population density and the lack of community agencies may also hold some advantages for a rural service learning program. For one thing, the program can deal directly with people rather than organizations. This ability to avoid bureaucracy can improve efficiency and bring back the "human factor" to many institutionalized programs (Hamerlink, 2010b). Because of this more personal context, however, organizational reputations may be more pronounced and widely known to residents in rural communities. This can affect partnerships for service-learning and what students are able to accomplish (Nachtigal and Hobbs, 1988). Another advantage of having fewer organizations in rural areas is that service-learning practitioners can more rapidly assess who the stakeholders are in the community and gain access to those groups. In rural areas, community residents and university students, faculty and staff often interact in a variety of settings both informal and formal, which creates strong relationships (Prins, 2006). This can translate into longer lasting campus-community partnerships. Some of the service learning projects described in our case studies were effective because they honored and utilized the intimate local knowledge and ability to organize informally that many rural community residents have (Hamerlinck, 2010a; 2010b; Lapping, 1999; Milalynhuk and Seifer, 2007).

There is also a group of people in many rural communities who can be referred to as "connectors" and tend to be trusted opinion leaders. They are people who have extraordinary amounts of local knowledge and an inherent ability to identify local contacts for specific service learning projects. Connectors see relationships that other people might not see. In the case highlighting the collaboration between the town of St. Peter and Gustaphus Adolphus College,

valuable community members defined as "connectors" were recognized not because of their official roles at any formally established organizations, but rather their keen sense of place, widespread knowledge of the people in that community, and how resources could be best organized and implemented (Hamerlinck, 2010a). In another case study, "an informal association of local women" concerned with downtown development in Wheaton, Minnesota informally organized around common local goals that were able to connect students to service learning projects (Hamerlinck, 2010b).

5. Institutional Support for Service Learning

Regardless of the institutional engagement style, effective service learning requires significant support from the academic institution in order to offer both meaningful learning experiences for students and positive outcomes in communities. Compared to many urban service learning projects that are implemented in the shadow of campus and that are accessible by public transportation, the logistics and structural demands of rural service learning require perhaps a greater commitment by colleges and universities and significant institutional support. No doubt it is the logistical challenges of rural work that have led to what Stoecker and Walters (2010) describe as their "university's bias to serving urban rather than rural organizations."

We have identified six significant challenges for service learning connected to the rural context:

- transportation for students from campus to the community,
- distance,
- preparing students for rural work,
- support for students engaged in summer projects,
- Internet access to facilitate communication and project partnering, and
- funding for rural engagement.

Telephone interviews with 50 service learning professionals engaged with rural communities identified transportation as the most frequently mentioned challenge to implementing rural service learning (Ross, 2010). Although some very successful service learning projects can take place within the community where rural institutions are located (e.g., Ganzert, 2010; Holton, 2010), rural institutions often extend their projects to more distant communities and urban campuses sometimes seek rural service learning opportunities. Rural service learning typically requires transporting students to rural communities that are some distance from the campus and lack public transportation. Safe and reliable private transportation is not accessible to many students. Students with cars who pool rides must consider personal liability issues. One school created a Bio-Bus because their rural town didn't have a public transportation system. The Bio-Bus created a route and dropped students off at service sites (Ross, 2010. Institutions with fleet vehicles or access to rental vehicles may have a partial solution, but either student fees or other funding is needed to cover costs. Henness and Jeanetta (2010a) describe the challenges and risks both students and the institution face when students must drive 40 miles to a rural community in winter driving conditions. Stoecker and Walters (2010) illustrate the complexities

of a student using university fleet vehicles for rural service learning just 17 miles from the urban campus. Project funding covered the fleet vehicle costs, but the student had to undergo a driving eligibility test, schedule the vehicle in advance, find transportation to the fleet lot, cope with a vehicle that was less than reliable, and read a map. Lacking sufficient planning skills to negotiate the university system and the community expectations, the student missed or was late to meetings in the community. The student's inability to manage the transportation challenge was a contributing factor in a scenario that the authors describe as a "failure" in meeting the needs of the community.

Geographic distances between the campus and rural communities create not only the need for transportation, but also inherently expand the amount of time it takes for students to engage in rural service learning. Students typically are committed to class schedules—and often other work and family obligations—that require being on campus regularly and leave limited open blocks of time for travel to distant rural communities. Distance requires more advance planning, travel, and more time—resulting in "a one-hour meeting….occupying a two-hour or longer space of time" (Stoecker and Walters, 2010). The further the distance between campus and community, the greater is the cost of transportation and time. This challenge led to North Dakota State University's decision to restrict the location of rural service learning projects—particularly those that are undertaken during a regular fall or spring term—to communities with populations of 1,000 to 2,500 and within one-hour driving distance from the campus (Goreham, Weber and Corwin, 2010). Clearly such restrictions prevent serving more distant communities, but respond to the practicalities of student schedules. In contrast, Henness and Jeanetta , 2010b) describe a Main Street renewal project that required students to make multiple trips to a rural community 250 miles away. Support for the project came from the community—a strategy that may be a viable option for other service learning projects.

Students often need special preparation to engage in rural service learning. Particularly for students coming from urban institutions and urban backgrounds, overcoming ruralism (Bassett, 2006) is crucial. Many students from urban areas, and perhaps many from rural areas as well, may have preconceptions of rurality that do not fit the realities faced by people living in rural areas. Those students willing to work in rural areas likely will need training and acclimation to work effectively. Local residents are often in a better position than faculty to provide this training. Henness and Jeanetta (2010b) describe how the local economic development director in Brookfield, Missouri provided an intimate knowledge of local history, local problems, and lack of adequate local resources for attending to them. A strong sense of place heightens pride in the positive aspects of the community and makes it easier to familiarize outsiders with exactly what that community needs. And because rural service learning may occupy a more important role in the rural community, particular attention needs to be paid to conveying a sense of responsibility to students that emphasizes the potential heightened value of their engagement as well as the possible detriments to community if they do not persist and deliver.

Some higher education institutions expand the availability of students for rural service learning by operating summer programs. The advantages of summer projects are many. Students can

focus—avoiding distractions and demands for a physical presence on campus in other courses. It is also possible to expand the possible settings for rural service learning to domestic or international settings further from the local campus. Students and faculty may be able to devote more time to working with the community within a given time period. Students can also often reside in the community during the summer, giving them greater opportunities to learn about community organizations and to build personal relationships with local residents. However, summer programs offer their own set of challenges. Students often need stipends and housing, and may in fact have to conduct projects within a shorter time frame than a typical semester-long project. Summer service learning may prevent students from taking on summer employment and add additional tuition bills. The summer schedule often coincides with reduced staffing on campus, which creates a mismatch of student availability for service learning and faculty availability for supervision. Employing faculty to teach summer offerings creates financial demands on the institutions. Communities may or may not find summer months an optimal time to host students since the rhythm of work and civic activities often shift to accommodate vacations.

Communication between campus and community is critical to the success of service learning. Communication is needed at each stage of a project from planning to reporting outcomes. Increasingly, the Internet has become the means of much of that communication. One of the challenges facing institutions working with rural communities is the rural-urban digital divide. Although rural residents have been gaining increasing access to the Internet (Johnson, 1999), they are less likely to have high-speed or broadband, Internet access than their urban counterparts (USDA, 2009). Subsequently, many rural communities have limited information technology capacity within their organizations (Mihalynuk and Seifer, 2007). In fact, this problem was the impetus of the TechShop service learning project designed to place students with community organizations to address this need (see Stoecker and Walters, 2010). Lack of information technology capacity and broadband limit community development and hinder communication with institutions of higher education engaging their students in service learning projects. This may go beyond the scope of much service learning, but it is a public issue that both communities and colleges and universities can address with stakeholders interested in the well-being of rural America.

Some colleges and universities have given sufficient priority to rural service learning to dedicate some funding for both faculty and student needs. These funds may come from budgets devoted to enhancing teaching and learning, foundation support, or grants often facilitated by Campus Compact. In rare instances the communities in which service learning takes place provide financial and in-kind support, but most often service learning activities eek out their existence through the dedication of faculty and staff who commit to the often messy work of civic engagement with little or no funding. Our review of the challenges of rural service learning imply the need for on-going institutional commitment and resources to fund travel, cover faculty stipends, provide financial support for student activities, and build institutional support structures. Rural service learning is time consuming and often challenges the bureaucracies of higher education. It is more likely to reap benefits in the long term rather than the near term.

Grant funding is much more difficult to find and much less lucrative to the institution compared to research grants that allow significant overhead payments to grantees. Yet repeatedly in our case studies, authors describe "priceless" benefits to communities, learning outcomes that can not be duplicated in the traditional classroom, and goodwill generated toward the colleges and universities. The charge by the Kellogg Commission to state and land grant universities to become more responsive to community needs has resonated with those committed to rural service learning. With added funded and institutional support, the engagement of students in the needs of rural communities can be a way to find "renewed energy for the problems of a new day" (Kellogg Commission, 1999).

6. **The Role of Risk in Rural Service Learning**

The question of risk is becoming more important as service learning becomes more popular. But our thinking about risk may be significantly affect ted by the rural context.

One way of thinking about risk is in terms of the risk to the student, often assessed according to the crime rate of the community in which they are working. We generally think of such risk as greater in urban areas, and especially in some urban areas. For example, Detroit, MI, has a crime index of 895.6 (City-Data.com, 2010a); Lansing, MI, has an index of 478.2 (City-Data.com, 2010b); and tiny rural Portland, MI, has a crime rate of 156.6 (City-Data.com, 2010c). In a traditional view of risk , as danger or hazard, (Encarta Dictionary, 2010) and risk management, "… the planning and organizing of cautionary measures aimed at minimizing the adverse effects of accidental and avoidable losses," (Cal Poly, 2009), Detroit would be seen as high risk, Lansing moderate, and Portland low.

Yet, rural communities are certainly not without risk to students in the traditional sense. There are important practical concerns. For example, while students may not be driving through densely populated urban neighborhoods where they risk personal injury or property damage, they will be driving appreciable distances on often unfamiliar highways and unlit, rural roads. Urban students working in rural communities may buy into the myth of rural as idyllic and be less cautious in new environments than they would in an urban setting. Quality risk management would then indeed apply to rural service learning settings.

Furthermore, in the view of risk as it pertains to the *weight* of students' work in rural communities, is risk viewed the same – and should it be? Absent in the literature is discussion about risk as potentially negative consequences to community and community-based relations connected to the service and engagement experiences.

While population, geographic concentration of residents, and crime rate are indeed lower in Portland and similar small, rural communities, resources also are smaller. In 2007, Detroit had nine hundred-seventy six administrative employees, Lansing had ninety-eight, and Portland had seven, (City-Data.com, 2010d). Similar comparisons can be made concerning the numbers and types of formal non-profit agencies. Detroit and Lansing, for example, each have American Red

Cross chapters and blood banks located within the city limits, while Portland is serviced by the Grand Rapids, Michigan chapter, forty-five miles way, and has no independent blood center. We have also seen that small, rural communities often rely on few and often part time public employees and informal service delivery structures. When these small communities engage with service learners, what risks is the community undertaking?

In such circumstances, service learning students' work can and does often carry more weight than in an urban setting, even when the nature of the service-learning project or engagement is the same (Holton, 2010). Lower rural populations make service learning more visible and often newsworthy (Goreham, 2010). Additionally, the service project has the potential to change the whole community (Henness and Jennetta, 2010). The plan or project being developed by the students may not be a simple enhancement or supplement to the work of city or non-profit agency staff; it can, in fact, be the entire plan or project. With little municipal staffing and/or formal agency support, the students quickly can be seen as, and, in reality are, the planners and creators, not the "helpers". In a rural community setting, where the mayor, for example, is also the owner of the local building supply store or cafe, the investment of the community member represents a situation where personal, volunteer time is being given to sponsor, supervise and/or otherwise support the work of the students. When students do not appear, arrive late for scheduled appointments or, ultimately, do not deliver on projects, they do not simply cause inconvenience or disappointment for a city employee or agency staffer. They cost community members personal and professional time. Failure to deliver also creates adverse consequences for the community as a whole, and can do greater harm than no action at all, because very often there are no other ways for the community to obtain the deliverables. The opportunity costs are much higher, as there no redundancies in the system or "back up" options as there would be in large or medium-sized city. Indeed, another source of risk for community partners in rural areas is that they can be overwhelmed by the needs of a service-learning course (Harris, 2004). Financial and personnel resources are typically tighter in rural areas. Service learning can expand the service capabilities for understaffed community organizations (Watson et al, n.d.). But asking a community partner to host a service learning course could take time away from the basic and fundamental tasks of the organization, and it may be difficult for organizations to find work to accommodate 20 students.

7. The Importance of Trust and Relationships in Rural Service Learning

The importance of establishing strong relationships and trust in service learning is an issue across the service learning spectrum. Given the risks involved, however, we wonder if trust relationships are an even more prominent part of rural service learning, given the higher stakes in the rural context. Our case studies range from one where a lack of trust and relationship hindered success (Stoecker and Walters, 2010) to another where long-term relationships expanded the partnership between a community college and community organization (Holton, 2010). Our research suggests that higher education institution faculty and staff seem to believe that trust relationships are more difficult to establish in rural settings (Ross, 2010).

The strong community relationships that exist in rural areas can be part of the relationship process in service learning. The St. Peter case study shows how community members themselves can connect community projects to the academy (Hamerlinck, 2010a). Sometimes those relationships are mediated. In Ontario Canada, a nonprofit organization called U-Links (2010**) serves as a broker between rural community groups seeking service learners and researchers and university students and faculty In numerous rural communities of Missouri (Henness and Jeanetta, 2010b), a Cooperative Extension educator has played the broker role and provided support for the communities before and after the students' civic engagement period. The educator helped lay the ground work for each community's submission to the Drury University architecture department for student assistance with their community plan, and then provided the follow-up to help the community implement the plan.

Communication is an important part of the relationship in service learning. The Milan case (Henness and Jeanetta , 2010a) shows that, while there was an apparent trust relationship between the community and the higher education institution, there was not strong enough communication to effectively manage the many disparate activities in which both collaborated. In contrast is the Riverhouse case, where an AmeriCorps*VISTA volunteer helped coordinate the numerous activities of Kirtland College with the organization. Such a coordination function may be more important to the rural setting where there are fewer community organizations (Ross, 2010) and consequently more higher education resources can be concentrated on fewer organizations. Perhaps the quintessential case of coordination may be that of the World Cup speed skating event organized in the small village of Marquette, Michigan with Northern Michigan University (Ganzert, 2010).

Even good technical communication may not be able to substitute for deep relationships in rural settings. With many rural communities still excluded from access to high speed Internet, and culturally more comfortable with face to face relationships, communicating by e-mail or phone may not be an adequate substitute. It is simply impractical to ask rural communities with only dial-up Internet access to trade large files and navigate bandwidth-hogging websites to manage projects (Ross, 2010).

Rural higher education institutions may have an advantage in a context where face to face relationships are important. Such institutions are often smaller and consequently have fewer levels of hierarchy and fewer layers of bureaucracy. Likewise, as we have discussed rural governments and community groups are also less formal and bureaucratized. All of this may allow for greater flexibility in building productive service learning partnerships.

The problem of distance also makes it difficult for students to develop strong community relationships. In some cases there are only a few meetings between the community host and the students, even though the project may be stretched over an entire term or even more (Goreham, 2010, Stoecker and Walters, 2010). In other cases, the relationship is much more intensely personal. In the Brookfield case, students slept on cots in the local fire station on four overnight trips to the community while doing the research supporting the community planning

process (Henness and Jeanetta, 2010b). Another case was the collaboration between The Center for Small Towns and "The Group," in which "building trust and presenting people with options, so that the work was collaborative as opposed to hired gun 'experts' telling the community what to do" was an important part of the success of the service learning project in Wheaton, MN (Hamerlinck, 2010b).

Those of us who have experience with service learning in both urban and rural settings have some sense that trust operates differently in each. In working across racial differences in urban settings, trust is based on the acknowledgement of difference. In rural settings, where those of us who are white are more often working with white communities, the differences are less obvious and less assumed. The acknowledgement by community members that "you're not from here" seems to require a testing period to get over the ambiguity of what is similar and what is different.

Tightly-knit rural communities may thus be more difficult to enter if one is perceived as an "outsider." This can create difficulty for service learning faculty and students, if they are perceived in this way. This issue became prevalent in the case of the Deerfield Community Center working with the University of Wisconsin-Madison's TechShop. The community center staff worked with a variety of students who traveled approximately 17 miles from the university, but reflected that their most positive experiences were with college students who graduated from the local high school and then came home from college for the summer. This demonstrates perhaps that the service learning work benefitted from students with an existing strong sense of place and local knowledge set, but also, possibly, that the DCC workers felt a higher comfort level with local students, who were already "insiders" to their community. In addition, the faculty member coordinating the service learning work did not visit the community until the end of the project, thus (perhaps unknowingly) remaining an "outsider" (Stoecker and Walters, 2010). Community dialoging processes designed to gain community input and to orient and acclimate students to the community can also help build   relationships and trust (Crawford et al., 2008).

It may also be the case that faculty in some rural institutions may have a relational advantage over their urban counterparts. Very few faculty in urban institutions live in the communities where they and their students conduct their service learning activities. But faculty in rural institutions may literally live next door to a resident who is receiving services that students are supporting. Rural faculty have the opportunity to develop relationships far deeper than their urban counterparts. We of course have to acknowledge differences in rural areas as well. In those most traditionally rural communities where "everybody knows everybody," people understand trust in traditional ways. But an increasing number of rural communities are also becoming more diverse as urbanites move further from the city, and Latinos establish a stronger presence.

Looking Forward: Rural Service Learning, Innovation in the Hinterland?

It is clear from the foregoing that we have only a basic understanding of rural service learning. And we have a deep sense of unease about the state of our knowledge. Our unease created by this lack of understanding is compounded by our suspicion that rural service learning carries the potential for both greater impact and consequently greater risk than it does in urban settings where professional, nonprofit, government, and multi-institutional backup is much more available. And our unease is amplified by the research on community perceptions of service learning that is exposing potentially serious weaknesses in the dominant practices (Blouin and Perry, 2009; Sandy and Holland, 2006; Stoecker and Tryon, 2009).

1. **A New Model for Service Learning?**

As concerns grow that service learning has for too long emphasized the education of students to the neglect of community outcomes, we are left searching for new models of higher education engagement with communities that can maximize community outcomes. Rural service learning, at least in the cases we have examined, seems to point a way to service learning that brings balance to the relationship. It provides a potentially innovative new model for service learning, even though the roles of rural colleges and universities are varied and unique to the location, politics, and economics of different rural communities. Just the fact that in rural colleges and universities are often one of the largest employers in the area means that they wield an important economic influence in the community.   When we examine the role of the rural institution against traditional higher education community engagement practices we see the potential for deeper, broader, and more meaningful community outcomes. We see students at the cusp of professional credentialing filling in for the lack of professionals in the community. We see large community projects engaging students and sometimes entire institutions. We see communities defining needs not just for volunteers but for actual community development.

We suspect that we may be seeing the elaboration of a community development model of service learning heretofore only tentatively outlined (Stoecker and Beckman, 2009). Such a model builds on the informal and personal qualities of rural community culture and attempts to make real its self-help legacy. Mary Conley corroborates the significance of a strong sense of place in rural communities and the common ensuing outcomes found in the case studies, urging service learning practitioners to "think holistically […] to find projects that address multiple needs" and capitalize on local pride (13) in order to make rural service learning as valuable to the communities as possible. Rural service learning is showing potential to be responsive to the needs of rural areas and work with them to develop sustainable economic, social and environmental solutions to their changing landscape (Kellogg, 1999).

Service learning projects have tended to reflect higher education's focus on acquiring knowledge. For community change to happen, however, knowledge is not enough. Both knowledge and community development--in particular the form of community development that organizes the self-help culture of so many rural community communities-- are necessary to create change in communities. Community organizing seeks to engage large numbers of people

to find collective solutions. It strengthens the democratic participation of all people where it already exists, and establishes it where it does not. Community organizing is a long-term approach where the people affected by an issue are supported in identifying its causes and taking action to achieve solutions.

A long-term strategy such as community organizing fits particularly well with rural higher education institutions that are already highly integrated with their local communities. As anchor institutions, they are in for the long haul. Such institutions could support community organizers as providing a common thread for multiple points of "service" throughout a long-term commitment to bring about community development. Organizers can bring together people to choose the issues, and direct the institution's abilities to access knowledge about those issues, using community-based research practices that some see as a higher form of service learning (Strand et al., 2003). Community-based research can be used to learn people's concerns, learn what causes important community issues, and inform strategies for dealing with those issues, and evaluating the impacts of those strategies (Stoecker, 2005).

Higher education institutions could support community organizing with the same gusto that they add capacity to program-driven nonprofit institutions, expanding on the practices in our case studies. This might mean embracing a community partner who is not a nonprofit organization, but rather, an informal group of passionate and motivated citizens, or a coalition of more formal and less formal organizations working together. Campuses can also do a variety of other things, some as simple as providing meeting space. Others might be a little more complex to do, but are worth exploring. For example, campuses could act as fiscal agents for grant funding to support association work. Not everyone dedicated to doing good work in the community is a 501(c)(3) nonprofit. Unlike most voluntary associations, institutions are set up to do things like write grant proposals, assess projects and assure grant compliance.

We are all familiar with the uniquely rural concept of a barn-raising. Individuals come together, bringing their own particular set of skills and abilities to create something of value. Like the families who share their talents with their neighbors, associations, with the support of higher education partners, can be leveraged in a kind of civic barn-raising. This phenomenon is possible due to the amount of social capital in the community, bonding similar people and bridging between diverse people, with norms of reciprocity (Dekker and Uslaner, 2001; Schuller, Baron, & Field, 2000).

This model does, however, require us to embrace a new definition of service-learning, focused less on site-based charitable volunteerism, and more on community-determined research and action agendas. This type of commitment is based on personal relationships and trust. Small projects that nurture those relationships and build that trust are critically important. Service-learning advocates might consider ways to engage community members to co-create an "association of associations" focused on specific community-identified issues. Think of the adopt-a-highway programs coordinated by states throughout the country. Home brewing clubs, student clubs and other associations do not have picking up garbage or environmental

stewardship at their core, but they can all come together to serve the common good. This approach was part of a successful community-college partnership in Appalachia to create a 911 system (Plaut and Landis, 1992).

2. **Questions on the Way to a New Model**

How we develop and refine this new service learning model must be informed by increased research that is desperately needed to move the work forward. Research on rural service learning is in its infancy, with this report part of only a handful of studies on the practice. There are a number of important questions that must be answered.

The research has to start with a better way of assessing service learning from a community development perspective, and we have only a start on that (Stoecker and Beckman, 2010). There is some evidence that special techniques and practices exist which may improve success in rural areas (Conley, 2004; Holton, 2004), but it is only a beginning. However, there needs to be more serious research into the specific needs of rural areas and what works best in rural service learning programs. We need to move research to the next level from nearly nonexistent to substantial and meaningful.

There is a tremendous need for some groundbreaking baseline research that sets the foundation for future studies. Rural service learning projects might have a more visible impact, but is that impact actually more powerful? Do rural programs actually foster real change in a community and, if so, how do we measure this? Large events make the local news media, but does it really create meaningful change? This can be measured, but remember that the lower population will necessarily return lower numbers in the results. Thus, rural institutions need to compare the proportions of their response. For instance, when only twelve faculty participate in an event or project it may not sound like much, but when it is roughly a third of the full time faculty then it is significant?

And is there something unique about the rural that requires adaptations in an urban environment? Do trust relationships matter more, or do they matter differently in rural versus urban areas? How much trust is enough? Is "more" or deeper trust required in rural areas compared to urban before effective service learning can occur? Are long-term relationships more important? How important are the reputations of institutions and organizations in rural settings? Does a bad experience harm the larger reputation enough to make it harder for individuals to develop new partnerships?

Of course, we also need to understand how difficult it would be for higher education institutions to fully develop such an alternative approach to service learning. Does such a model conflict with current strategies for meeting student learning needs? How compatible are current disciplinary divisions with rural community issues? Are any challenges facing implementation of such a model any more prominent in large colleges and universities with greater specialized courses compared to smaller rural institutions?

We need much more intensive case studies that can more deeply explore and inform a more theoretically rich community development service learning model. And the need is great. Clearly, rural areas are not always quiet, peaceful towns that live in harmony. There are real problems and they need real solutions. Rural communities are particularly concerned about the loss of jobs and the need for young people to move away. Often times, working in rural areas is not seen as desirable and so rural communities also have a difficult time attracting talented workers. Many service learning and internship programs are working to change that trend. They are sending students out to work in rural areas specifically to introduce them to rural communities in the hope that this will inspire them to work in rural areas as professionals. One notable benefit of service learning in rural areas is the influence it can have on rural young people. With persistent poverty and few economic opportunities, many rural youth are not exposed to education and employment options. Rural service learning can provide role models to rural youth and allow the youth to explore different avenues for their own lives (Edwards, 1998). They have the potential to support and further the informal capacity of rural communities.

We are only at the beginning of recognizing the possibilities, understanding the strategies, and assessing the impacts. There is a lot to learn and a lot to do.

Resources:

Artz, G. (2003). Rural Brain Drain: Is it Reality? Choices. Retrieved on December 22, 2010 from http://www.choicesmagazine.org/2003-4/2003-4-03.htm

Bassett, D. L. (2006). Alabama Law Review, Vol. *57*:4:*941* Retrieved on December 22, 2010 from http://heinonline.org/HOL/LandingPage?collection=journals&handle=hein.journals/bamalr57&div=37&id=&page=

Beegle, D. M. (2003) Overcoming the Silence of Generational Poverty. *Talking Points*, 15, 1, 11-20.

Blouin, D. D., & Perry, E. M. (2009). Whom does service-learning really serve? Community-based organizations' perspectives on service-learning. *Teaching Sociology*, 37, 120-135.

Bringle R., & Hatcher, J. (2002) Campus-community partnerships: The terms of engagement. *Journal of Social Issues*, 58, 3, 502-512.

Brown, D. L. & Swanson. L. E. (2003). "Introduction: Rural America Enters the New Millennium," in D. L. Brown and L. E. Swanson, (Ed). *Challenges for Rural America in the Twenty-First Century*, (pp. 1-15)Pennsylvania State Press: University Park.

California Polytechnic State University. (n.d.) Service Learning, University Honors College Program, Risk Management. Retrieved on December 8, 2010 from http://www.civic.calpoly.edu/riskmanagement.html

City-data. com, Detroit. (2010a). Retrieved on December 7, 2010 from http://www.city-data.com/city/Detroit-Michigan.html

City-data.com, Lansing. (2010b). Retrieved on December 7, 2010 from http://www.city-data.com/city/Lansing-Michigan.html

City-data.com, Portland. (2010c). Retrieved on December 7, 2010 from http://www.city-data.com/city/Portland-Michigan.html

City-Data.com. (2010d). Retrieved on December 7, 2010 from http://www.city-data.com/city/)

Conley, M. (2004), Strengthening Rural America Neighbor by Neighbor: Effective Practices in Neighboring and Other Volunteer Strategies. Points of Light Foundation & Volunteer Center National Network.

Crawford, P, Kotval, Z, Rauhe, W, & Kotval Z. (2008) "Social capital development in participatory community planning and design", Town Planning Review 79:533-554.

Dekker, P., & Uslaner, E. M. (2001). 'Introduction.', by Eric M. Uslaner (Ed), *Social Capital and Participation in Everyday Life* (pp 1-8).London: Routledge.

Emery, M, & Flora, C. (2006). Spiraling Up: Mapping Community Transformation with Community Capitals Framework. *Journal of Community Development. 37*, 19-35.

Encarta Dictionary, North America. (n.d). Retrieved on 12/8/2010 from http://encarta.msn.com/encnet/features/dictionary/dictionaryhome.aspx,

Fitchen, J. M. (1991) *Endangered Spaces, Enduring Places: Change, Identity, and Survival in Rural America.* Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Flora, C. B., Flora, J. L., Spears, J., & Swanson, L. (1992). Rural Communities: Legacy and Change. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Flora, C. B. & Flora., J. L. (2008). *Rural Communities: Legacy and Change*, 3rd Edition. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Ganzert, C. F. (2010). How To Feel Like An Olympian: A Case Study From Northern Michigan University. Rural Alliance for Service Learning. Retrieved on December 27, 2010 from http://comm-org.wisc.edu/rasl/node/32.

Goreham, G. (2010). Three Formats of Service Learning Used by the Department of Sociology and Anthropology, North Dakota State University: A Case Study. Rural Alliance for Service Learning. Retrieved on December 27, 2010 from http://comm-org.wisc.edu/rasl/node/36

Hamerlinck, J. (2010a). A Model for Facilitating Campus-Community Partnerships with Small Towns at the University of Minnesota, Morris. Rural Alliance for Service Learning. Retrieved on December 27, 2010 from http://comm-org.wisc.edu/rasl/node/30

Hamerlinck, J. (2010b). The Gustavus Adolphus College Partnership Council: Leveraging the Power of Community Connectors. Rural Alliance for Service Learning. Retrieved on December 27, 2010 from http://comm-org.wisc.edu/rasl/node/27

Henness, S., & Jeanetta, S. (2010a). RASL Case Study: Milan, Missouri. Rural Alliance for Service Learning. Retrieved on December 27, 2010 from http://comm-org.wisc.edu/rasl/node/34.

Henness, S., & Jeanetta, S. (2010b). RASL Case Study: Brookfield, Missouri. Rural Alliance for Service Learning. Retrieved on December 27, 2010 from http://comm-org.wisc.edu/rasl/node/35.

Holton, M. (2005). Fundamentals of Rural Stereotyping. Retrieved on December 22, 2010 from http://cfra.blogspot.com/2005/08/fundamentals-of-rural-stereotyping.html

Holton, N. (2010). Kirtland Community College and River House Shelter: A Natural Combination. Rural Alliance for Service Learning. Retrieved on December 22, 2010 from http://comm-org.wisc.edu/rasl/node/28.

Holton, N. (2004) Rural Service Learning: Turning Special Challenges into Great Opportunities. *The Journal for Civic Commitment.*   Retrieved on December 22, 2010 from http://www.mesacc.edu/other/engagement/Journal/Issue3/Holton.shtml.

Jensen, L., McLaughlin, D. K. & Slack, T. (2003). "Rural Poverty: The Persisting Challenge," in D. L. Brown and L. E. Swanson, (Eds). *Challenges for Rural America in the Twenty-First Century*, (pp. 118-131) Pennsylvania State Press: University Park.

Johnson, K. M. (2003). "Unpredictable Directions of Rural Population Growth and Migration," in D. L. Brown and L. E. Swanson, (Eds). *Challenges for Rural America in the Twenty-First Century*, (pp. 19-31) Pennsylvania State Press: University Park.

Jolliffe, D. (2006, September). *The Cost of Living and Geographic Distribution of Poverty*, ERR-26, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service.

Kandel, W. & Brown D. (Eds.). (2006). *Population change and rural society*. Springer Press, Dordrecht, Netherland.

Kellogg Commission. (1999). Returning to our Roots: The Engaged Institution. Kellogg Commission o the Future of State and Land Grant Universities, Washington, DC; National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges, Washington, DC. Retrieved on December 22, 2010 from http://www.aplu.org/NetCommunity/Page.aspx?pid=305

Lapping, M. (1999). "Universities, Service Learning and the Rural Context: Seeing Rural People and Places for What They Are." *Small Town*, 29 (5) p28-30.

MacTavish, K. & Salamon, S. (2003). "What do Rural Families Look Like Today?" in D. L. Brown and L. E. Swanson, (Eds). *Challenges for Rural America in the Twenty-First Century*, (pp. 73-85) Pennsylvania State Press: University Park.

Manning, M. M., Campbell, C., & Triplett, T. J. (2004). "Capitalizing on the Potential of Minnesota's Rural Campuses." Center for Rural Policy and Development. Retrieved on December 22, 2010 from http://www.mnsu.edu/ruralmn/pages/Publications/reports/manning.pdf

McGranahan, D. A. (2003). "How People Make a Living in Rural America," in D. L. Brown and L. E. Swanson, (Eds). *Challenges for Rural America in the Twenty-First Century* (pp. 135- 151) Pennsylvania State Press: University Park.

McGranahan, D., Cromartie, J., & Wojan, T. (2010, November). *Nonmetropolitan Outmigration Counties: Some Are Poor, Many Are Prosperous*, ERR-107, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service.

Michigan State University (n.d) Boldness by Design Strategic Positioning by Michigan State University. Retrieved on December 8, 2010 from http://boldnessbydesign.msu.edu/

Michigan State University. (n.d.) Small Town Design Initiative. Retrieved on December 8, 2010 http://spdc.msu.edu/RealWorldApplicationsofKnowledge/OutreachEngagementExtensionPrograms/SmallTownDesignInitiative/tabid/77/Default.aspx

Mihalynuk, T. V. & Seifer. S. D. (2007). Higher Education Service-Learning in Rural Communities. Community Campus Partnerships for Health (CCPH). Learn and Serve America's National Service-Learning Clearinghouse. Online. Retrieved on December 22, 2010 from http://www.servicelearning.org/instant_info/fact_sheets/he_facts/rural_communities

MSN Encarta World English Dictionary. Retrieved November 27, 2010, from http://encarta.msn.com/encnet/features/dictionary/DictionaryResults.aspx?lextype=3&search=rural.

Nachtigal, P. M. & Hobbs, D. (1988). Rural Development: The Role of the Public Schools. Background Paper. Prepared for the National Governors' Association. Washington, DC.

Plaut, T., & Landis, T. (1992). Enhancing participatory research with the community oriented primary care model: a case study in community mobilization. *The American Sociologist*. 23 (4) 56-70.

Prins, E. (2006) "Individual Roles and Approaches to Public Engagement in a Community-University Partnership in a Rural California Town ," *Journal of Research in Rural Education*. 21(7). Retrieved on December 22, 2010 from http://www.psu.edu/dept/jrre/articles/21-7.htm

Rauhe, W. E. (2006) The Small Town Design Initiative, *The Engaged Scholar Magazine*, Michigan State University, Volume 1.

Ross, J. A. (2010) Report on Interviews with Service Learning Practitioners. Rural Alliance for Service Learning. Retrieved December 27, 2010, from http://comm-org.wisc.edu/rasl/node/40

Sandy, M. & Holland, B. (2006). Different worlds and common ground: community partner perspectives on campus-community partnerships. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 13, 30-43.

Schuller, T., Baron, S., & Field, J. (2000). Social capital: a review and critic. In S. Baron, J. Field, & T. Schuller (Eds.). Social Capital. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Springer, N. C. &Casey, K. M., (2010) Preflection to Reflection: Building Quality Practices in Academic Service-Learning, in Fitzgerald, Hiram E,, Burack, Cathy, Seifer, Serena, D. (Eds), *Handbook of Engaged Scholarship Contemporary Landscapes Future Directions*. Michigan State University Press, E., Lansing, Michigan.

Stoecker, R., & Walters, M. (2010). The Useful Lessons of a Case Study of Failure. Ross, J. A. (2010) Report on Interviews with Service Learning Practitioners. Rural Alliance for Service Learning. Retrieved December 27, 2010, from http://comm-org.wisc.edu/rasl/node/22

Stoecker, R. & Beckman, M. (2009). Making Higher Education Civic Engagement Matter in the Community. Campus Compact. Retrieved on December 22, 2010 from http://www.compact.org/wp-content/uploads/2010/02/engagementproof-1.pdf

Stoecker, R. &Beckman, M. (2010). Evaluating the Community Impact of Higher Education Civic Engagement. In Hiram E. Fitzgerald, Diane L. Zimmerman, Cathy Burack, and Sarena Seifer (eds.) Handbook of Engaged Scholarship: The Contemporary Landscape. Volume Two: Community-Campus Partnerships. East Lansing, Michigan State University Press.

Stoecker,R. and Tryon E., (2009). *The Unheard Voices: Community Organizations and Service-learning*. Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.

Stoecker, R. (2005). *Research Methods for Community Change: A Project-Based Approach*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications

Strand, K., Marullo, S., Cutforth, N., Stoecker, R, & Donohue, P. (2003). *Community-Based Research and Higher Education: Principles and Practices*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

University of Georgia. (n.d) Public Service and Outreach Goals. Retrived on December 8, 2010 from http://outreach.uga.edu/pso-goals/

U.S. Census Bureau. (2000) *Census 2000 Urban and Rural Classification.* Retrieved on November 27, 2010, from http://www.census.gov/geo/www/ua/ua_2k.html

U.S. General Accounting Office*, Rural development: Profile if rural areas.*. Retrieved on November 27, 2010, from http://archive.goa.gov/t2pbat6/149199.pdf.

U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service. (2004, July). "Rural Poverty at a Glance." Rural Development Research Report Number 100. Retrieved on December 22, 2010 from www.ers.usda.gov/publications/rdrr**100**/rdrr**100**.pdf.

U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service. (2010, October). "Rural Income, Poverty, and Welfare," Briefing Room. Retrieved on December 4, 2010 from http://www.ers.usda.gov/Briefing/incomepovertywelfare/

U.S. Department of Agriculture. *Measuring rurality: What is rural?* Retrieved on November 27, 2010, from http://www.ers.usda.gov/Briefing/Rurality/WhatIsRural.

U. S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service. (2009). *Rural Broadband at a Glance: 2009 Edition.* Economic Information Bulletin Number 47. Retrieved on December 22, 2010, from http://www.ers.usda.gov/Publications/EIB47/EIB47_SinglePages.pdf

Walters, Scott. (2007). Wrap-Up: Southern and Rural Stereotypes. Retrieved on December 22, 2010 from http://theatreideas.blogspot.com/2007/08/wrap-up-southern-and-rural-stereotypes.html

Watson, J. B. Jr., Church, C., Darville, R., Darville, S. (n. d.) University-Community College Partnership Development for Eldercare Service-Learning: A Model for Rural Community Impact

Whitener, L. A. & Parker, T. (2007). Policy Options for a Changing Rural America. Amber Waves. Retrieved on December 8, 2010 from http://www.ers.usda.gov/AmberWaves/May07SpecialIssue/Features/Policy.htm.

World English Dictionary. (2010) Retrieved on December 8, 2010 from http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/risk,

Immigration Reform: Implications for Farmers, Farm Workers and Communities

April 26, 2011

PI: Martinez, R. (Michigan State University)

Co-PI: Flora, C. (Iowa State University)

Award: $17,973

Project Abstract: Immigration may be the most important people issue in rural and agricultural America today. Most new entrants to the hired farm work force were born abroad, and are unauthorized. Seasonal farm work is a decade-long job rather than a career for most workers. If current trends continue, the farm workers of tomorrow are growing up today somewhere outside the U.S. Rural and agricultural America appears to be planted firmly on an immigration treadmill, seeking new workers from abroad to fill jobs vacated by experienced migrants and shunned by their children educated in the U.S.

This project involves the major stakeholders in a quest for an improved understanding of how newcomers from abroad are affecting agriculture and agricultural communities. The three core elements of the project:
- Analysis that establishes benchmarks to assess current immigration patterns and proposed policy reforms.
- A national conference that includes a North Central Region panel of scholars and stakeholders, (Hispanic-serving institutions, farm employers, community leaders, and policy makers).
- Assessment and summary of ongoing migration and farm labor developments to be disseminated via the Rural Migration News (http://migration.ucdavis.edu), which reaches over 1,200 researchers, journalists, and opinion leaders each quarter, and dissemination among NCERA 216.

Final report to: North Central Regional Center for Rural Development

Grant period: January 2010 through December 2010

Project title: "Immigration Reform: Implications for Farmers, Farm Workers and Communities"

Principal Investigator: Rubén Martinez, Michigan State University

Co-Investigator: Cornelia Flora, Iowa State University

Main Activities:

- Analysis of proposed and enacted policy reforms in response to current immigration patterns in the North Central Region of the U.S.

  Outcome:

  "The Policy Dimensions of the Context of Reception for Immigrants (and Latinos) in the Midwest", is a white paper that reviews legislative efforts to impact migration into the Midwest and the resulting effects on residents and immigrants (Appendix A).

- Partial sponsorship of the national immigration reform conference, "Immigration Reform and Agriculture Conference", held May 27-28, 2010 in Washington, D.C. Three North Central Region scholars were funded to travel to the conference and participate. The following topics were the focus of this conference:

  1. Immigration trends affecting rural and agricultural areas, immigration reform proposals, and the perspectives of employers, unions and advocates on immigration reform
  2. The impacts of immigrant farm workers on agriculture in particular states and commodities
  3. The impacts of immigrants on communities in rural and agricultural areas

  Outcome:

  PI-Rubén Martinez (MSU-JSRI) chaired the panel "Farm Labor: Commodities and Areas".

  Co-PI-Cornelia Butler Flora (ISU) presented, "Immigration Integration in Rural America" and chaired the panel "Immigration and Communities".

  Wallace Huffman, (ISU) presented, "The Status of Labor-saving Mechanization in Fruits and Vegetables".

- Travel to "Latinos and Immigrants in Midwestern Communities", Cambio de Colores Conference, Columbia, MO, May 24-26, 2010. This multi-state annual conference brings together researchers, practitioners, and community members to discuss the interstate North Central Education and Research Activity 216 (NCERA 216) initiative "Latinos and Immigrants in Midwestern Communities". The 2010 conference was organized along themes that include change and integration, education, health, civil rights, entrepreneurship and economic development. PI-Rubén Martinez was funded to attend.

  Outcome:

  PI-Rubén Martinez and Ana Rocío Escobar of JSRI presented "Oral Histories of the Settling Out Process: Latinos in Lansing"

  Co-PI-Cornelia Flora and colleagues at ISU presented "Latino Business Entrepreneurs and Social Innovators in Four Iowa Communities".

- Summaries and assessments of ongoing migration and farm labor developments in the Midwest region were provided in the online publication, *Rural Migration News* (http://migration.ucdavis.edu), which reaches over 1,200 researchers, journalists, and opinion leaders each quarter.

  Outcome:

  Four issues of *Rural Migration News* were published during 2010. Each of the issues contained news that focused on events in the North Central (Midwest) region of the U.S. Topics are listed below.

<u>MIDWEST TOPICS – 1st Quarter (January 2010)</u>

- o U.S. Department of Labor fined eight Michigan blueberry growers for violating farm worker housing and child labor laws.

- o Immigration enforcement at Agriprocessors in Postville, Iowa resulted in the removal of a third of the 900-strong labor force.

- o Brain drain from rural America highlighted in Ellis, Iowa.

<u>MIDWEST TOPICS – 2nd Quarter (April 2010)</u>

- o Grand Island, Nebraska, population composition changed after ICE raids removed Latino workers. African refugees hired to replace lost workers resulted in conflict between Somali and remaining Latino workers.

- o Michigan Civil Rights Commission issued a report on bad farm worker housing, discrimination and poor conditions, and made recommendations to state agencies to improve conditions for farm workers and make them aware of their rights.

- o Wisconsin dairy farms increase Hispanic hires from 5 percent in 1998 to 40 percent in 2008. Ninety percent of them were born in Mexico.

<u>MIDWEST TOPICS 3rd Quarter (July 2010)</u>

- o Although Hispanics are less than ten percent of the residents of Fremont, Nebraska, a vote on June 21, 2010 passed an ordinance punishing landlords if they rent to "unauthorized foreigners" and employers who hire them.

- o North Dakota has the lowest state unemployment rate among states, four percent. However, there is often insufficient housing for workers moving there.

- o Michigan COA reported on farm sales, livestock, milk and floriculture (nursery crops, vegetables, and fruit) sales. In addition, expenditures such as labor and UI expenses were listed.

<u>MIDWEST TOPICS 4th Quarter (October 2010)</u>

- o Food safety, egg recalls and the state of Iowa, the largest egg producer in the country.

- o ICE arrests made of Michigan dairy farmers for encouraging and inducing an alien to reside in the U.S. in violation of the law.

- o Pioneer, Hi-Bred, a division of Dupont is being sued by farm workers who were recruited to detassel corn in Indiana for violating the federal Migrant and Seasonal Agricultural Worker Protection Act.

- o Enforcement of the ordinance approved in Fremont, Nebraska has been suspended due to law suits seeking federal injunctions to prevent it from taking effect. It would punish landlords who rent to "unauthorized foreigners" and employers who hire them,

- o Enforcement has been suspended ICE fines employers for failing to keep proper I-9 records.

Impact of project activities
This project focused on the Midwest and immigration issues. The main focus of the activities was to assess and share recent developments on immigration and reform efforts.

- The white paper, a result of collecting, synthesizing and analyzing immigration-focused legislative efforts in the Midwest will inform and impact NCERA members and many others once it is accepted for publication.
- The two conferences attended by the PI and Co-PI assessed current immigration patterns and the outlook for immigration reform, thereby providing discussion topics and updated information to the many researchers, reformers and policy makers attending.
- Four issues of *Rural Migration News* were distributed to as many as 1,200 people with each release and each issue reported on national and Midwest happenings involving rural areas, labor, and migration.

APPENDIX A

The Policy Dimensions of the Context of Reception

for Immigrants (and Latinos) in the Midwest

Rubén Martinez

Jennifer Tello Buntin

and

William Escalante

Julian Samora Research Institute

Michigan State University

Introduction

The Latino/a population is the second largest ethnic group in the United States, exceeded only by White Americans (Casas & Ryan 2010). The 2000 Census set the Latino (Hispanic) population at 35.3 million, or approximately thirteen percent of the total U.S. population (US Census Brief 2001). Until Census 2010 figures are released, recent estimates set the size of the Latino population in 2009 at approximately 48.4 million (U.S. Census Bureau 2010). Overall, Latinos comprise approximately 16.1% of the nation's population (Grieco 2010). Approximately 37.2% of Latino/as are foreign-born, comprising approximately 6.0% of the nation's population. Nationally, the number of Latinos/as living in the United States grew by 37% since the year 2000. A robust component of that growth was immigration.

Immigration to the United States is not a new phenomenon; however, recent waves differ from previous immigrant influxes in significant ways. Immigrants are now coming predominantly from Latin American and Asian countries (Portes & Rumbaut 1996, Singer 2002); and, they are no longer moving to and staying in the traditional gateway cities or states (Cadge et al. 2008). This has led to the coining of the term "new destinations"; that is, the new settlement areas for immigrants. For example, the geographical distribution of Latino immigrants now include towns and cities of less than 100,000 people located in rural areas in the Northwest, Northeast, Southeast or Midwest regions of the country (Singer 2002, & Cadge et al. 2008). Typically, these new destination points do not have strong traditions of receiving immigrants and, as a result, it is a relatively new phenomenon for them (Cadge et al. 2008).

The focus of this paper is recent legislation in Midwestern states initiated in response to immigration. More specifically it looks at the emergent legislative environment and how it shapes the context of reception for Latinos and Latino immigrants. The context of reception provides a useful conceptual frame for describing the broader environments in which immigrants and other newcomers to Midwestern town and cities endeavor to make a living. Context of reception consists of three principal dimensions: 1) government policies, 2) labor markets, and 3) ethnic communities (Portes & Rumbaut

1996). According to Portes and Rumbaut, government policies are the most relevant of the three because they shape the reality in which the other dimensions operate; via exclusion, passive acceptance, or active encouragement (1996).

Context of Reception

Recent research expands the concept of context of reception to include various social, cultural, economic, political, geographic and historical factors that create the climate in which the new immigrants are received (Cadge et al. 2008). In "The City as Context," Cadge et al. (2008), use five "analytic axes" to examine differences in the reception and incorporation of recently arrived immigrants: 1) cultural frames, 2) geographic factors, 3) political economy, 4) demographic shifts and 5) municipal resources. Additionally, Valdivia et al. (2008) explore the impact that ethnic communities and informal social networks have on the newly arrived person's perception of the context of reception or "community climate." They contend that the context of reception not only includes community attitudes and actions, but also the individual's perception of the situation into which she or he has arrived.

While this paper briefly explores the historical, economic, and social dimensions that constitute the contexts of reception of the communities in the Midwest, the main focus is on the state level political and legislative dimensions, which are part of the policy dimension of contexts of reception according to Portes and Rumbaut (1996). Recent enacted legislation is a reflection of concrete efforts to influence how immigrants should be or are being received into the community; whether they should be excluded, ignored or integrated. The research question that is addressed is: What state-wide policy legislation shapes the contexts of reception for Latino immigrants across the Midwestern states? The contexts of reception created for Latino immigrants will also impact Latinos in general.

Midwest Demographic Context

For our purposes, the Midwest, also referred to as the North Central region of the United States, includes the following twelve states: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota and Wisconsin. According to US Census Bureau, the overall population of the Midwest was 66,929,001 in 2010, comprising 21.7% of the nation's population (308,745,538). While the nation's population increased by 9.7%, the region's population increased by only 3.9%.

Unfortunately, 2010 Census figures have not yet been released for the different race/ethnic groups, so a profile of the Latino/a population in the Midwest has to be constructed from estimates from annual surveys. Over the past two decades, the region experienced relatively significant growth in its Latino/a as well as its foreign-born populations (Lazos 2002; Martinez, 2011). For example, each of the Midwestern states showed an increase among Latino/as of at least 50% from 1990 to 2000, with an 80% increase for the region as a whole (Haverluk & Trautman 2008).

Since 2000, the Latino/a population continued to increase significantly. Table 1 presents the Latino/a population by state for 2000 and 2008. The Latino/a population in the Midwest region increased by 40% during that period. With a 27.9% increase, Michigan had the lowest rate of growth among Latino/as, while South Dakota, with a 109.2% increase, experienced the highest rate of growth. The Midwest experienced a larger percentage increase among Latino/as than did the nation as a whole, although it was still behind other regions, such as the South (Haverluk & Trautmann 2008).

<Table 1 about here>

In terms of subgroups, approximately two-thirds of the Latino/a population in the Midwest is Mexican American or Mexican. This figure is similar to that at the national level, where 60% of Latinos are of Mexican ancestry. Mexicans and Mexican American have been coming to the Midwest to work in agriculture and manufacturing since the early 1900s (Valdes 1989). Overall, Latinos comprise just over one-half (53%) of the 38.5 million persons that make up the foreign-born populations at the

national level (Greico & Trevelyan 2010). Additionally, approximately 45.4% of the foreign-born are White persons (Grieco 2010).

Table 2 presents changes in the foreign-born populations in Midwestern states between 2000 and 2008. Overall, there was a 13.9% increase in the number of foreign-born persons in the Midwest. Wisconsin (59.3%), Nebraska (45.8%), Minnesota (38.8%) and Missouri (38.8%) experienced the greatest percentage of growth in their foreign-born populations. Michigan had the smallest increase, while both North Dakota and South Dakota experienced declines in their foreign-born populations.

<Table 2 about here>

While the majority of Midwestern states experienced an increase in their foreign-born population, the region's overall percentage of the population of foreign born remained relatively low; less than eight percent (See Table 3). Illinois, the state with the largest percentage of foreign-born residents, could attribute its nearly 14% increase to the Chicago metropolitan area, which has been and remains a traditional destination for new immigrant families (Cadge et al. 2008; Singer 2002). The remaining states in the Midwest had foreign-born populations of less than seven percent in 2008. Minnesota (6.8%), Kansas (6.1%) and Nebraska (6.0%) had the next largest percentages. South Dakota had the lowest percentage (1.9%).

Despite public concern about the estimated numbers of undocumented immigrants from countries south of the U.S. border, it is important to note that in some states the largest number of foreign-born members of the population is from Asia. In Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, North Dakota, Ohio and South Dakota, for example, the largest immigrant groups are from Asia. On the other hand, Latino/as comprise the largest foreign-born population group in Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, and Wisconsin.

<Table 3 about here>

There is a difference between the large percentage increases in the Latino/a population and the increases in the foreign-born population. Although the rates of growth among the foreign-born

populations seem relatively high, the actual increase in the number of foreign-born persons for the region is relatively low (440,866) for the period. Indeed, the growth among the foreign-born population is just over one-third of the actual growth among Latino/as for the same period. For example, in both South Dakota and North Dakota the Latino/a population increased, while the foreign-born populations in these states decreased. Other states had significant increases in their Latino/a population while experiencing lower growth rates in their foreign-born populations. Table 4 presents the percent change in the nation's Latino/a population by nativity status for the period between 2000 and 2008. The native-born Latino/a population increased by 37.6%, while its foreign-born counterpart increased by 26.2%. Both groups had higher growth rates than the nation as a whole. In terms of the share of the growth, natives were responsible for 68.1%. In the Midwest, the same is likely to be the case. Thus an important component of the Latino/a population increase in the Midwest has come about through domestic migration, albeit including native-born children of foreign-born residents, resulting in a substantial mix of both native and foreign-born Latino/as in the Midwest.

<Table 4 about here>

Much of the recent immigration to the "new destination" areas rather than to the traditional gateway cities, like Chicago, New York, Los Angeles, etc., is attributed to the restructuring of the meat packing and food processing industries. In the 1970s and 1980s, to increase profits and combat labor unions, meatpacking companies merged and relocated to rural areas in the Midwest and Southern regions of the United States (Haverluk &Trautman 2008). To keep labor costs low, the major meat processors in the U.S., such as Iowa Beef Processing, ConAgra, Excell, Cargill and Smithfield, who control over 70% of the industry, recruited and continue to recruit low-wage immigrant labor from the U.S. Southwest and Mexico (Lazos Vargas 2002). This recruitment activity added to the already present migrant farmworker population, as did the growth in low-skill jobs in manufacturing, construction, landscape and service sectors (Levinson et al. 2007, Paral 2009). Historically, Latinos/as have been working and living in the Midwest region of the United States for a long time as farm workers,

construction workers and in manufacturing (Valdes 1989; Martinez, 2011). The immigration of

Latinos/as to the Midwest is not a new phenomenon; however, changes in the number of people

immigrating and in their destinations are attracting much attention.

State Policies

State and local immigration policies have received extensive media coverage in recent months

and years. Fremont, Nebraska recently made headlines with a special election supporting a municipal

ordinance banning the rental of property or the hiring of people without documented immigration status

(Beck 2010). The American Civil Liberties Union and the Mexican American Legal Defense and

Education Fund filed lawsuits challenging the ordinance as discriminatory and seeking restraining orders

to halt implementation (Beck 2010). In response, the Fremont City Council voted to suspend the ban as

it waits for the court's decision on the case. While many Midwest communities have limited experience

with Spanish-speaking immigrants, passage of the recent ordinance shows that Latino immigration is an

area of concern in Midwestern communities. That concern is reflected in legislative efforts at the state

level.

Number of Policies Enacted

Enacting state policy does not take place in a vacuum. All states in the Midwest enacted laws

regarding immigration in recent years.   Table 5 presents the numbers of immigration-related laws

enacted in Midwestern states along with changes in their Latino/a and foreign-born populations between

2000 and 2008. With the exception of North and South Dakota, all Midwestern states experienced

increases in their Latino/a and foreign-born populations. The fact that the Midwest has foreign-born

populations that comprise *only* 7.7% of the region's total population points to the importance of political

beliefs and ideology in the prioritizing of critical public issues for policy and legislative attention.

<Table 5 about here>

With the exception of Illinois, no state in the Midwest in 2008 had a foreign-born population that was greater than seven percent of the state's total population. Illinois (29) and Nebraska (10) enacted the most immigration-related laws. The other states that enacted the most laws relating to immigration were Missouri (9), Minnesota (9), and Kansas (7). Minnesota and Kansas follow Illinois in terms of the percentage of foreign-born in their populations, while Missouri is among those with the lowest percentage of foreign-born population. Nebraska has a lower percentage of foreign-born than does Minnesota and Missouri.

Illinois enacted more laws than any other state, twenty-nine, and had some of the lowest percent changes in its populations when compared to the other states. The Latino/a population increased 28.5%, while the foreign-born population increased 16.5%. It also has the highest percentage of foreign born residents among the total population, 13.9%. *Nebraska* passed 10 laws and had an increase of 45.8% among its foreign born population from 2000 to 2008 resulting in six percent of the state's total population being foreign born. The Latino/a population also increased by 84.5%, making Nebraska one of the states that experienced one of the largest percentage increases of the Latino/a population. *Missouri* had lower percentage increases but there were significant changes in its Latino/a population, 54.0%, and foreign born population, 38.8%. The state's foreign born population made up less than four percent of Missouri's total population, yet Missouri passed nine state laws relating to immigration.

Minnesota is similar to Nebraska in that the Latino/a population increased a dramatic 86.4% from 2000 to 2008. In regards to the foreign born population there was a 38.8% increase, equal to that of Missouri, but in 2008, Minnesota's foreign born population also constituted 6.8% of the total state population. Like Missouri, the state of Minnesota passed nine immigration laws.

Kansas completes the top five immigration related law enacting states with seven enacted laws and a foreign born population that is 6.1% of the state's total population. From 2000 through 2008 the foreign born population increased by 26.1% and the Latino/a population increased by 54.8%.

Ohio experienced significant population changes increases in both its Latino/a, 35.6%, and its foreign born populations, 25.5%; people who were born in foreign countries made up 3.8% of the total population. The state enacted the least number of policies, regarding immigration; two.

Wisconsin reported a similar population increase to Missouri and Kansas with 49.9% growth in its Latino/a population and almost a sixty percent increase in the foreign born population with 4.5% of the state population being foreign born. Wisconsin passed three immigration related laws in 2009 and the first half of 2010.

South Dakota experienced more than a doubling of their Latino/a population with an increase of 109.5%, while at the same time the foreign born population dropped by 6.6% to 1.9% of the total population; they enacted four laws over the last year and a half.

North Dakota had a similar experience to its southern counterpart with a decrease in the population of foreign born persons by 1.5% to 2.2 of the state's total population. Their Latino/a population on the other hand increased in a fashion similar to Minnesota and Nebraska, 83.5%. North Dakota passed five immigration related laws.

Michigan experienced the lowest percentage increase in both its Latino/a and foreign born populations (North and South Dakota both decreased in their population of foreign born people). The Latino/a population increased 27.9% and the population of people born in other countries increase 11.4%; making the foreign born population 5.8% of the state's total population.

Types of Legislation Enacted

In the first half, January through June, of 2010, 45 laws related to immigration were enacted or reached a governor's veto. That comes in addition to a very busy 2009 where 51 state laws relating to immigration were either enacted or vetoed (American Immigration Council). At the state level these laws range from multi-issue legislation to specific concerns. Illinois was the state that passed the most laws with 29 and Ohio passed the fewest with two. The majority of the laws passed dealt with

employment, licensing and identification or education, public benefits and health services. Of the 96

laws that were passed during 2009 and the first half of 2010 in the Midwest, seventy of them addressed

some aspect of employment, licensing, identification, education, public benefits or health services. The

laws and policies have been organized into six categories below (see Table 6); 1) Law Enforcement, 2)

Human Trafficking, 3) Employment, Licensing and State Identification; 4) Education, Public Benefits

and Health Services; 5) Omnibus Legislation, and 6) Other (National Conference of State Legislatures

2010).

<Table 6 about here>

Law Enforcement

Five states enacted immigration-related legislation regarding law enforcement. Illinois enacted

two laws that define the procedures for deportation of immigrants who have been convicted of felony or

misdemeanor offenses (SB 3090) and allows holding of prisoners in the custody of the Office of the

Federal Detention Trustee; this includes immigrants. The Iowa law, S340, is part of the federal Adam

Walsh Child Protection Act and requires the registration of sex offenders, including their immigration

documents, such as passports, etc. Michigan passed laws focusing on administrative and budget

concerns for their state and local law enforcement agencies regarding projects involving international

border crossings.

Human Trafficking

Kansas, Illinois, and North Dakota have enacted new laws or amended current criminal codes to

address human trafficking or smuggling. Kansas, in 2009, renamed their "trafficking" laws to read

"human trafficking" and defined it as "the recruitment, harboring, transportation, provision or obtaining

of a person for labor or services, through the use of force, fraud or coercion for the purpose of subjecting

the person to involuntary servitude or forced labor (SB 353)." Originally, SB 353 included the knowing

transportation or concealment of a person in the state who is not lawfully present in the country. This section was contested and deleted from the final legislation.

Illinois and North Dakota take similar approaches to the crime of human trafficking; both states enacted laws that create or add new penalties for human trafficking. In North Dakota human trafficking is a Class A felony unless the victim is under eighteen years of age and in Illinois there could be various felony charges based on the particulars of the crime. The penalties in both states are more severe if the human trafficking involves unaccompanied children under 18 years of age (ND SB2209 and IL SB1300) and include actions related to involuntary servitude; including destroying or confiscating immigration documents, such as passports. The Illinois law also allows for the Department of Human Services to provide assistance to victims of human trafficking who are cooperating with police.

Employment and Licensing/Identification

Employment was one of the most common areas of legislation in 2009 and the first half of 2010. The majority of these laws state, in one way or another, that it is unlawful to hire people who do not have the proper work authorization documents. In 2009 and 2010 all Midwestern states but two, Michigan and Ohio, enacted some type of legislation that dealt with employing immigrants and/or state identification requirements. The state legislatures have been enacting laws that affect worker identification procedures, state identification card and driver's license requirements, job certification, and penalties for hiring people without proper work authorization.

Nebraska, in addition to their omnibus legislation of 2009, discussed in a later section, passed seven laws relating to employment and licensing that affect immigrants. The first law requires that any employer who has received a public contract must verify the citizenship or immigration status of all employees. Four of the laws regard retirement, workers' compensation and unemployment benefits and defines those eligible as citizens or immigrants authorized to work in the United States. Kansas, in 2010, made it a Class C misdemeanor for an employer to knowingly hire a person with an undocumented immigration status. Agricultural labor legislation was passed in only two states. Michigan made

appropriations that included resources for migrant housing within its Department of Agriculture (MI SB237) and Nebraska adopted federal regulations regarding the transportation of migrant workers (LB 725 & 805).

Six other Midwestern states have amended or added laws that relate to state requirements for obtaining a drivers license or state identification card. Iowa, Missouri and Indiana, have implemented policies that require documentation of citizenship or lawful immigration status in order to obtain a state identification card or driver's license; both Missouri and Minnesota have enacted policies stating no compliance with the federal REAL ID Act of 2005. South Dakota and North Dakota have enacted a policy that a nonresident commercial driver's license may be issued to a person who has a foreign license and has a foreign address. The commercial driver's license is renewable, but requires documentation of authorization to stay in the United States (ND HB 1438, SD HB 1107). Both states have also passed legislation that restricts access to driver's licenses and state identification cards. SD SB 17 and ND HB 1161 established provisions related to the definitions and requirement of lawful presence and/or citizenship and the ability to provide necessary documentation.

This is in addition to policies that allow the use of interpreters during the license/identification card application and examination process (Illinois), or the use of a lawful Permanent Resident Card as acceptable form of identification for body art (Minnesota). Nebraska adopted federal regulations regarding the transportation of migrant workers and licensing under the Liquor Control Act requiring that the manager be a U.S. citizen. In 2009 Kansas enacted a bill that allows for the licensing of nurses who were educated in approved programs from foreign countries and requires state identification for the sale of scrap metal. There were also provisions regarding professional and temporary professional licenses for individuals who were certified in other states or countries.

Education, Public Benefits and Health Services

Laws concerning education, public benefits and health services have varied greatly throughout the region. Some states have already adopted versions of DREAM Act legislation that recognizes

undocumented students as state residents for tuition purposes. Earlier this year the state of Missouri enacted laws to set aside money for education at the elementary and secondary levels, including "allocations for Refugee Children School Impact grants (MO HB 2002)." This is in addition to funding for the Department of Social Services for refugee assistance; as well as a separate law allocating money to the Department of Mental Health for refugee and legal immigrant naturalization assistance, if they are unable to benefit from or attend classroom instruction (HB2010, HB2011). However, there was no mention of public K–12 education requiring proof of immigration for attendance in the Missouri bills. Missouri is not alone in legislation relating to education and immigrants. North Dakota, as a part of other education reforms in 2009, added provisions to their education policy to include English proficiency testing, classes and "career development" for English language learners and new immigrants (H1400). In 2009, Wisconsin passed legislation that recognizes undocumented students as state residents for tuition purposes.

Regarding public benefits, North Dakota has enacted a law that requires the verification of citizenship or resident alien status of the children in order to qualify for child care assistance and other benefits. South Dakota has revised laws relating to new birth certificates for adopted children born in a foreign country. These revisions require the "proof of the child's IR-3 immigration status," as well as other documentation.

Following a similar vein, Nebraska also enacted legislation (LB 403) that requires the use of Systematic Alien Verification for Entitlements Program or its equivalent operated by the U.S. Department of Homeland Security to determine eligibility for public benefits. In addition, each state agency will have to produce a yearly report stating the number of applicants for public benefits and the number of those applicants who were denied benefits due to lack of proof regarding immigration status.

Omnibus Legislation

Omnibus legislation is policy that enacts and/or proposes to enact multiple policies with one bill. These bills are comprehensive in their approach to immigration policy at the state level. Higher

education, public benefits, verification of employment authorization, enforcement of federal immigration law, eligibility for tax credits, penalties for law violation and provisions for their implementation are addressed in the state omnibus laws. Two states in the Midwest, Missouri and Nebraska, have proposed and/or enacted legislation that engages multiple issues in a single bill.

In the summer of 2009, Missouri legislators proposed and enacted House Bill 390 (MO HB390). HB 390 blocks undocumented immigrants from attending public colleges and universities or from receiving "any type of education public benefit, i.e. financial aid." Each institution is required to annually audit their record to ensure that admitted students are U.S. citizens or have a documented immigration status and that no undocumented immigrant "knowingly" received such an "education public benefit." Beyond the receipt of financial aid for post-secondary education, the enacted policy removes eligibility for admission to public colleges and universities for students who cannot document their immigration status.

Missouri House Bill 390 also addresses state and/or local public benefits and requirements of employers regarding the authorization of their employees. It clearly states that no person "unlawfully present in the United States shall receive any state or local benefit . . .," while still allowing access to "emergency medical care, and prenatal care, services offering alternatives to abortion, emergency assistance and legal assistance." It also states that there is no need for inquiry into the immigration status of a parent or guardian who is applying for public benefits on behalf of his/her dependent citizen or permanent resident child. In regards to employment, Missouri HB 390 states that no business or employer shall knowingly hire or continue to employ an unauthorized immigrant. If an employer or business wishes to be eligible for a contract or grant greater than $5,000 by the state or any of its political subdivisions, they must "affirm its enrollment and participation in a federal work authorization program."

The Nebraska law is similar and requires the verification of citizenship or qualified immigrant status for public employment, and to receive any public benefit and tax incentives (LB 403). It (LB 403)

focuses on documented presence in the United States and requires the verification of immigration status as either a US citizen or "qualified alien" for public benefits, employment, and retirement system participation as well as to receive grants and tax incentives. Every public contractor and employer has to verify, using a Department of Homeland Security approved method, whether each employee is eligible to work in the United States. Further, "no employee of the state of Nebraska shall be authorized to participate in any retirement system . . . unless the employee (a) is a United States Citizen or (b) is a qualified alien under the federal Immigration and Nationality Act (LB 403)."

Nebraska LB 403 also requires the Nebraska Department of Labor to inform and encourage all employers in the state to use an immigration verification system by December of 2011; the Department of Labor will report to the Nebraska Legislature on the use of verification systems after that date. Employers who wish to be eligible for tax grants and incentives including the Nebraska Advantage Rural Development Act, Nebraska Advantage Research and Development Act, nor the Nebraska Microenterprise Tax Credit Act would need to supply to the Tax Commissioner, sufficient evidence that all new employees were authorized to work in the United States.

The bill further removes eligibility for any public benefit (unless required to be offered) such as food/housing assistance, unemployment, welfare or disability. To receive public benefits the "individual, household, or a family eligibility unit" must be a U.S. citizen or a qualified immigrant. For this bill a public benefit ranges from food assistance to commercial licensing and any state agency that administers benefits is now required to submit an annual report regarding "compliance" with the new law. Nebraska LB 403 does not remove access to emergency medical treatment or bar people from accessing public/private nonprofit agencies or "in-kind services at the community level."

"Other" Policy

Policy in the "Other" category was the second largest group of policy enacted after 1) Employment, and Licensing/Identification, and 2)Education, Public Benefits, and Health Services. Much of the policy consisted of budget appropriations or changes and extensions of the fiscal year

limitations. In Michigan, for example, there was a bill enacted that changed the percentage of the cost to maintain international border crossing facilities. Illinois had a number of budget bills that reorganized accounts. In Iowa, there were appropriations for cultural centers and grant programs related to showcasing immigrant people and their cultures.

Enacted State Policy: Integrating, Passively Accepting, or Exclusionary

All state legislatures in the Midwest have passed laws addressing immigration in their states. According to Portes and Rumbaut (1996, 2001) a context of reception can be encouraging, passively accepting, or exclusionary. In Table 7, the enacted legislation in the Midwest relating to immigration has been organized according to three similar categories; Integrating, exclusionary or neutral. A policy was considered integrating if it focused on programs, initiatives or funds for projects that worked to help immigrants acclimate to the United States or protect immigrants' human rights regardless of immigration status. Integrating state policies addressed issues like English language acquisition, health services, higher education accessibility, and employment procedures. Policy was considered to be exclusionary if it focused on the restriction of people from certain services, benefits, education or employment opportunities based on immigration status. Policies that were considered neutral dealt with changes to fiscal year limitation, or clarification of federal law enforcement agencies via policy.

<Table 7 about here>

A limitation to this data is that no adjustment can be made for the potential of one policy having a greater impact than another. State policies do not always have similar effects or depth of impact. Thus, while there is almost an even division of integrating and exclusionary laws, the number of enacted laws may not definitively determine the context of reception of a particular state or of the region as a whole. The Omnibus Laws in Missouri and Nebraska that affect multiple areas of state law and are held equal, in their relation to a state's and the region's context of reception, as a budget appropriation. In addition, this analysis reviews laws enacted during a limited time period (2009 and the first half of

2010). Laws passed before or after that time frame may be similar to those passed during the time frame or they may not. Thus, we can only address the context within this time period.

Of the policies that were enacted in 2009 and the first half of 2010, forty four laws were found to be integrating, and thirty nine laws were exclusionary; twelve laws were neutral. The data suggests that overall the Midwest is somewhat more integrating than exclusionary when it comes to the context of reception. However, there was great disparity among the individual states in terms of the quantity of laws passed in each category.

States like Illinois, Michigan, and Kansas have passed provisions that were considered to be encouraging people from immigrant backgrounds to integrate with the mainstream population. Illinois, for example, seems to have embraced its immigrants and, in 2005, established the Office of New Americans Policy and Advocacy to promote their integration.   On the other hand, legislation in Nebraska, Iowa and North Dakota are examples of laws that promote exclusion from the mainstream on the basis of immigration status or perhaps are meant to dissuade immigrants from moving to the state on a permanent basis. These laws suggest that that these states have taken an alternative stance towards immigrants, one that creates a context of reception that is hostile to immigrants. In the middle, states like Wisconsin, Minnesota and Ohio where laws were almost evenly split in their policy between integrating, excluding or neutral.

Interestingly, the decision to pass legislation that is inclusive or exclusionary is not clearly related to the number or change in number of immigrants in that state. For example, the exclusionary states (Nebraska, Iowa and North Dakota) do not have significantly higher percentages of their population that are foreign-born. As Table 5 demonstrates, in 2008 Illinois, Michigan, and Kansas (the more integrative states) had foreign-born percentages of 13.9, 5.8, and 6.1 percent, respectively. Nebraska, Iowa, and North Dakota had foreign-born percentages of 6.0, 3.8, and 2.2, respectively. Thus, number of immigrants in the state cannot explain whether a state enacts integrative or exclusionary policies. Ironically, what does seem to be related is the change in the size of the Latino/a

population in the exclusionary states. For example, while the foreign born population in Nebraska increased 45.8% between 2000 and 2008, its Latino/a population grew by 85.5%. Similarly, Iowa's Latino/a population increased by 71.9 percent (compared to a foreign-born increase of 25.1) in that time period and North Dakota's Latino population grew 83.5% while its foreign-born population actually *decreased* by 1.5% between 2000 and 2008. These data suggest that perhaps legislation passed regarding immigration is actually a statement regarding the acceptance or rejection of increasing racial/ethnic diversity within the state. While technically irrelevant to native-born Latino/as, the passage of exclusionary immigration policies may represent a rejection of Latinos in general, rather than immigrants in particular. Furthermore, while these laws may not be explicitly targeting native-born Latino/as, they may be impacting the context of reception for them as well, by requiring them to constantly prove their right to live in the state and participate in its services and institutions.

Regardless of the idiosyncrasies of each state, the Midwest region is still "on the fence" leaning toward integration when it comes to their context of reception as determined by enacted state policy. However, this status may change dramatically in the next few years as the political climate within these states changes.

Conclusion

State level immigration policy and context of reception in the Midwest region of the United States are complex issues. In the past ten years, the Midwest has experienced a dramatic increase in terms of their Latino/a population; only two states had a percentage increase under 30%. The population of residents who are foreign-born also increased, but not as drastically; Wisconsin had the largest percentage increase of almost 60%. With this migration to the Midwest the overall foreign-born population remains below ten percent at 7.7% (Table 5). At the individual state level, no state has a foreign-born population, with the exception of Illinois, of more than seven percent. Increase of Latino/as to the area did not always coincide with dramatic increases at the same level of the foreign

born populations. It is clear that while populations are changing and people are moving to the Midwestern United States, these states are not being "overrun" with immigrants.

The context of reception is influenced by more than state legislative policy. The state of local economies, geographic location, history, and culture, are also influencing and may also be motivating the policy proposals and enactments. However, these policies create the space within which the other dimensions of context of reception operate. Policy, economic and social aspects work together to send a message and have the power create an environment where immigrants are incorporated into or marginalized and excluded from mainstream services and society.

At the state level there are some discernable conclusions. States that have passed more policies regarding enforcement of laws and verification of authorized status to receive certain services are demonstrating a more exclusionary context of reception; Iowa, Nebraska, North and South Dakota are examples. States that have enacted laws focusing on appropriating money for English language education, migrant child care and health services, or enacting human trafficking laws that do not punish victims are considered to be more incorporating contexts of reception. Illinois, Kansas, and Michigan are examples.

The type of legislation enacted does not give a clear picture of the overall context of reception for the region as a whole. There was only a slight difference in the number of policies that were integrating versus excluding in the Midwest. The major sentiment in the Midwest, via policy, has become one that is conflicted between integration and exclusion. This conflict in policy could also be an example of a benign acceptance of immigrants. Policy is being passed that makes integration possible, but there is not a great political effort to integrate the new residents. Exclusion, on the other hand is not widespread yet, either. Certain qualified immigrants are able to work or have access to public services, therefore "limiting access" without fully excluding everyone who is not a U.S. citizen.

Of course, the political environment can change very quickly and drastically. Thus the context of reception is dynamic and constantly changing. The above policy and discussion has provided is a

cross-section or "snap shot" of the Midwest climate regarding immigration. In fact, during the course of writing this paper the political climate changed significantly. The midterm election resulted in the election of Republican Party candidates for the U.S. Senate in nine Midwestern states. Results for the U.S. House of Representatives follow a similar trajectory with the majority of the elected officials being Republican Party candidates (USA Today Election Results 2010; New York Times Election 2010).

The results of the state level elections also show a significant shift in political power (Hansen 2010; National Conference of State Legislatures 2010). Nine states in the Midwest now have Republican Governors; leaving Illinois, Minnesota and Missouri as the only three States with Democratic Governors. In the Legislature, Illinois is the only state with a Democratic majority in the State Senate and the State House of Representatives. Iowa is split with a Republican majority in the House and a Democratic majority in the Senate. The remaining nine states have Republican majorities in both the State House of Representatives and the State Senate; Nebraska does not have a partisan senate. Thus the Midwest consists of nine red states, one blue state, one divided state, and a non-partisan state.

While the current immigration-related legislation places the Midwest in the middle of the conceptual spectrum, this change of political leadership has the potential to change the context of reception in the Midwest and may be an indication of what is to come. Elected representatives have already stated their intentions of introducing further immigration policy at the state level. Wisconsin Rep. Donald Pridemore, R-Hartford, made the statement that he is planning to introduce immigration legislation similar to that passed, and being contested, in Arizona (Kulinski 2010). Minnesota, Michigan and Ohio proposed legislation that is similar to the Arizona SB1070 immigration law during the current legislative session (OH SB150, MI HB6256, MN HF3830, & Immigration Policy Center). State of Missouri representatives also proposed the Missouri Omnibus Immigration Act, from which H390 was derived, during their 94th General Assembly in 2007 (MO SB348, 626 & 461, H390).

This type of legislation, not being unique to one particular state, along with the presence of elected representatives whom have made statements about promoting further legislation, could have an impact on the context of reception at the state and regional level. If such bills were to be passed and signed into law, the potential impact on the context of reception is great. The specific states would likely become more exclusionary and a negative trend could be set in the Midwest. The region would, most likely, move from one that is "on the fence" between integrating and exclusionary in terms of context of reception to one that at least leans exclusionary.

The presence of a state-level policy context that is exclusionary or integrative has implications beyond the simple focus of the policies themselves. As Portes & Rumbaut (1996) describe, these policies are critical because they shape the reality within which all other dimensions of the context of reception operate.   Thus, state-level policies set the tone for local level responses to immigration. Furthermore, state policies regarding immigration issues are also connected to and have implications for the growing native-born Latino/a populations in many Midwestern states. Exclusionary immigration policies suggest a resistance to the increasing racial/ethnic diversity found in many of these states. This resistance is concerning given the demographic analyses that predict that the Midwest will continue to experience increasing diversity in the coming years fueled primarily by a quickly growing Latino/a population.

References

Agricultural Job Opportunities, Benefits and Security Act of 2009. 111th Congress of United   States.

Archibold, R. (2010). Judge Blocks Arizona's Immigration Law. *The New York Times.* Available on-line: http://www.nytimes.com/2010/07/29/us/29arizona.html?_r=1.

Balisteri, K. (2002). Hispanics in the Midwest. The Center for Family and Demographic Research, Bowling Green State University. Available on-line: http://www.bgsu.edu/organizations/cfdr/page34545.html

Beck, M. (2010). Nebraska Immigration Law Passes: Special Election Held in Fremont to Ban Hiring or Renting Property to Illegal Immigrants. Available on-line: http://www.huffingtonpost.com/2010/06/22/nebraska-immigration-law_n_620528.html.

Beck, M. (2010). Fremont, Nebraska Suspends Tough Immigration Law, Forcing Trial. *The Huffington Post*. Available on-line: http://www.huffingtonpost.com/2010/07/28/fremont-nebraska-suspends_n_661903.html.

Border Protection, Antiterrorism, and Illegal Immigration Control Act of 2005. 109th Congress of the United States.

Cadge, W., Curran, S., Jaworsky, B. N., Levitt, P., Hejtmanek, J. (2008) The City as Context: Spaces of Reception in New Immigrant Destinations. Annual meeting of the Willy Brandt Conference, 2008. Available on-line: http://scholar.google.com/scholar?q=The+City+as+Context%3A+Spaces+of+Reception+in+New+Immigrant+Destinations&hl=en&btnG=Search&lr=lang_en|lang_es&as_sdt=80000001&as_sdtp=on.

Casas, J., & Ryan, C., (2010). How Latinos are Transforming the United States: Research, Theory and Policy. *Journal of Social Issues.* 66(1): 1-10.

Congressional Budget Office, Congress of the United States. (2006) Immigration Policy in the United States. *A Series on Immigration.* Congress of the United States.

Diaz-Strong, D., Gomez, C., Luna-Duarte, M., Meiners, E., Valentin, L. (2009-2010). Commentary: Organizing Tensions – From the Prison to the Military Industrial Complex. *Social Justice.* 36(2): 73 – 84.

Farm Worker Justice Bulletin. (2010). Summary of AgJOBS: The Agricultural Job Opportunities, Benefits and Security Act. Available on-line: http://www.farmworkerjustice.org/agjobs.

General Assembly of the State of Ohio. Senate Bill No. 150.

Grieco, E. M. (2010). *Race and Hispanic Origin of the Foreign-Born Population in the United States, 2007.* American Community Survey Reports, ACS-11. Washington, DC: U.S. Census Bureau.

Grieco, E. M., & E. N. Trevelyan. (2010). *Place of Birth of the Foreign-Born Population: 2009.* ACSBR/09-15. Washington DC: U.S. Census Bureau.

Hansen, K. (2010, December) Red Tide: A GOP Wave Washed Over State Legislatures on
        Election Day. *State Legislatures.* Available on-line: http://www.ncsl.org/?tabid=21696.

Haverluk, T, & Trautman, L. (2008) The Changing Geography of U.S. Hispanics from 1990 – 2006:
        A Shift to the South and Midwest. *Journal of Geography*. 197(3): 87 – 101.   doi:
        10.1080/0021340802208804.

Immigration Policy Center: American Immigration Council. (2010). The Comprehensive Immigration
        Reform Act of 2010: A Summary. Available on-line: http://www.immigrationpolicy.org/just-
        facts/comprehensive-immigration-reform-act-2010-summary.

Immigration Policy Center: American Immigration Council. (2010). Arizona is Not the First State to
        Take Immigration Matters into their Own Hands. Available on-line:
        http://www.immigrationpolicy.org/just-facts/arizona-not-first-state-take-immigration-matters-
        their-own-hands.

Kulinski, C. (2010, November 11) Rep. Plans to Introduce Arizona-Like Immigration Legislation in
        Wisconsin. *The Badger Herald.* Available on-line:
        http://badgerherald.com/news/2010/11/11/rep_plans_to_introdu.php

Lazos Vargas, S. (2002) "Latina/o-ization" of the Midwest: Cambio de Colores (Change of Colors) as
        Agromaquilas Expand into the Heartland. *Berkeley La Raza Law Journal.* 13: 343 – 368.

Levinson, B., Everitt, J., Johnson, L. (2007) Integrating Indiana's Latino Newcomers: A Study ofState
and Community Responses to the New Immigration. *Center for Education and   Society Working
Paper Series: Working Paper #1.* Indiana University – Bloomington.

Martinez, R. (ed.). 2011. Latinos in the Midwest. East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University Press.

Martinez, R., Butler Flora, C., Martin, P. (2009) Immigration Reform: Implications for
        Farmers, Farm Workers and Communities. Proposal Submitted to the North Central Regional
        Center for Rural Development by the Julian Samora Research Institute.

Michigan House of Representatives. Immigration Law Enforcement Act.
        House Bill No. 6256 & Senate Bill No. 1338

Missouri Omnibus Immigration Act. General Assembly of the State of Missouri,
        Senate Bill Nos. 348, 626 & 461.

National Conference of State Legislatures. 2010. 2009 State Laws Related to
        Immigrants and Immigration January 1 – December 31, 2009. Available on-line:
        http://www.ncsl.org/default.aspx?tabid=19897.

National Conference of State Legislatures. 2010. "Enacted Immigrant Related Laws and
        Resolutions: January-June, 2010." Available on-line:
        http://www.ncsl.org/default.aspx?tabid=19897.

New York Times (2010). Election 2010. Available on-line:
http://elections.nytimes.com/2010/results/senate.

Map of Post-Election Prtisan Composition of State Legislatures. Available on-line:
http://www.ncsl.org/tabid/21253/default.aspx.

New York Times Election Map. Available on-line: http://elections.nytimes.com/2010/results Accessed
on 11/23/2010

Paral, R., Norkewicz, M., Wijewardena, M., & Diaz, C. (2009) Mexican Immigration in the
Midwest. *Heartland Papers.* Iss. 1. The Chicago Council on Global Affairs.

Pew Hispanic Center. (2010). Statistical Portrait of the Foreign-Born Population in the United States,
2008. Available on-line: http://pewhispanic.org/factsheets/factsheet.php?FactsheetID=59.

Portes, A., & Rumbaut, R. (1996) *Immigrant America: A Portrait* (2nd ed.). Berkeley and
Los Angeles, CA: University of California Press.

_____. (2001) *Legacies: The Story of the Immigrant Second Generation.* Berkeley
and Los Angeles California, CA: University of California Press.

Singer, A. (2002) America's Diversity at the Beginning of the 21stCentury: Reflections from
Census 2000. *The Brookings Institution.* Available on-line:
http://www.brookings.edu/views/papers/singer/20020402.pdf.

Support Our Law Enforcement and Safe Neighborhoods Act. Minnesota House of
Representatives, House File No. 3830.

U. S. Census Bureau. (2001). Census 2000 PHC-T-1. Population by Race and Hispanic or Latino
Origin for the United States: 1990 and 2000. Available on-line:
http://www.census.gov/population/www/cen2000/briefs/phc-t1/index.html.

USA Today. 2010. Election Results Map. Available on-line:
http://projects.usatoday.com/news/politics/2010/elections/.

Valdes, DN. (1989) Betabeleros: The Formation of an Agricultural Proletariat in the Midwest,
1897 – 1930. *Labor History,* Vol. 30, No. 4, pg. 536-562.

Valdivia, C. V., Dozi, P., Jeanetta, S., Flores, L. Y., Martínez, D. & Dannerbeck, A. (2008). The
impact of networks on the context of reception on asset accumulation strategies of Latino
newcomers in new settlement communities of the Midwest. *American Journal of Agricultural
Economics.* 90(5): 1319-1325.

Table 1. Change in Latino/a Population by State, 2000 to 2008

_____

—

State	2000 Latino/a Population	2008 Latino/a Population	Percent Change
Illinois	1,527,145	1,961,843	28.5
Indiana	201,203	322,148	60.1
Iowa	72,152	124,030	71.9%
Kansas	173,746	268,964	54.8
Michigan	319,463	408,695	27.9
Minnesota	116,692	217,551	86.4
Missouri	118,235	182,059	54.0
Nebraska	80,204	147,968	84.5
North Dakota	7,429	13,634	83.5
Ohio	218,350	296,059	35.6
South Dakota	10,718	22,420	109.2
Wisconsin	191,097	286,382	49.9
Midwest Total	3,036,434	4,251,753	40.0%
USA Total	35,204,480	46,822,476	33.0%

_____

Source: Table 14. Statistical Portrait of Hispanics in the United States, 2008, Pew Hispanic Center

Table 2. Change in Foreign-born Population by State in Midwest from 2000 - 2008

State	2000 Foreign Born	2008 Foreign Born	Percent Change
Illinois	1,533,949	1,787,358	16.5%
Indiana	190,585	256,006	34.3
Iowa	90,089	112,693	25.1
Kansas	136,640	172,277	26.1
Michigan	521,150	580,382	11.4
Minnesota	256,705	356,335	38.8
Missouri	152,931	212,331	38.8
Nebraska	72,910	106,332	45.8
North Dakota	14,538	14,319	-1.5
Ohio	344,889	432,956	25.5
South Dakota	16,590	15,488	-6.6
Wisconsin	159,343	253,793	59.3%
Midwest Total	3,178,045	3,618,911	13.9%

Source: Table 12. Change in Foreign-born Population by State, 2000 and 2008, Pew Hispanic Center.

Table 3. Percent of 2008 Population that is Foreign Born by Midwestern State

State	2008 Total Population	2008 Foreign-Born	Percent Foreign-Born
Illinois	12,901,564	1,787,358	13.9%
Indiana	6,376,792	256,006	4.0
Iowa	3,002,557	112,693	3.8
Kansas	2,802,134	172,277	6.1
Michigan	10,003,422	580,382	5.8
Minnesota	5,220,393	356,335	6.8
Missouri	5,911,605	212,331	3.6
Nebraska	1,783,432	106,332	6.0
North Dakota	641,481	14,319	2.2
Ohio	11,485,910	432,956	3.8
South Dakota	804,194	15,488	1.9
Wisconsin	5,627,968	253,793	4.5%
Midwest Total	65,772,746	5,088,976	7.7%

Source: Table 11. Foreign-born by State, 2008. Pew Hispanic Center.

Table 4. Percent Change in Latino/a Population by Nativity Status, 2000 – 2008

Status	2000 Population	2008 Population	Population Change	Percent Change	% Share of Total Change
Native Born	21,072,230	28,985,169	7,912,939	37.6	68.1%
Foreign Born	14,132,250	17,837,307	3,705,057	26.2	31.9
Total	35,204,480	46,822,476	11,617,996	33.0	100.0%

Source: Pew Hispanic Center, Statistical Portrait of Hispanics in the United States, Table 5: Change in the Hispanic Population, by Nativity: 2000 and 2008.

Table 5. Number of Immigrant-Related Laws Enacted with Percent Changes in Latino/a and Foreign-Born Population, Percent of Total Population that is Foreign-Born by State, 2000-2008

State	Number of Laws Enacted Relating to Immigration	% change in Latino/a Population	% change in Foreign-Born Population	% of total 2008 population that is Foreign-Born
Illinois	29	28.5	16.5	13.9
Indiana	6	60.1	34.3	4.0
Iowa	6	71.9	25.1	3.8
Kansas	7	54.8	26.1	6.1
Michigan	5	27.9	11.4	5.8
Minnesota	9	86.4	38.8	6.8
Missouri	9	54.0	38.8	3.6
Nebraska	10	85.5	45.8	6.0
North Dakota	5	83.5	- 1.5	2.2
Ohio	2	35.6	25.5	3.8
South Dakota	4	109.5	- 6.6	1.9
Wisconsin	3	49.9	59.3	4.5
Midwest Total	96	40.0%	13.9%	7.7%

Sources: Enacted State Legislation Relating to Immigration 2009 and First Half 2010, National Conference of State Legislatures; Statistical Profiles of Hispanics and Foreign-Born Populations in the United States, The Pew Hispanic Center.

Table 6. Enacted Immigration-Related State Laws by Focus, 2009 and January – June 2010

State	Law Enforcement	Human Trafficking	Employment, Licensing & Identification	Education, Public Benefits & Health Services	Omnibus Laws	Other	Total
Iowa	S340		S356, H2522, S2181,			S469, H822,	6
Illinois	S3090, H5006	S1300	S3494, H4858, H537, H624, S1133, S1743, H2331,	H859, S3699, S5053, S663, S3158, H314, H2206, S1181, S1216, S1197, S1557, H382, H1143, H399		S2976, S3288, S3660, S3662, H5428	29
Indiana			H1130, S391, S222, S407,	H1001, H1182			6
Kansas	H2506	S353	S237, H2343, H2668	S572		H2476	7
Michigan	S1001			S248, S1163		S237, H5658,	5
Minnesota			S2082, S2081, H988, S525,	H1362, H1988, S1503, S460, S2505, S1770,			10
Missouri			H361, S296, H2226	H10, H2010, H2011, H2002	H390	H124	9
Nebraska			L563, L579, L950, L1020, L788, L805,	L849	L403	L139, L725,	10
North Dakota		S2209	H1161, H1438,	H1400, H1090			5
Ohio				H1, S181			2
South Dakota	H1260	S17	H1107, H1079				4
Wisconsin			A757	A75		A573	3
Total	6	4	35	35	2	14	96

Source: National Conference of State Legislatures, Encated State Laws Relating to Immigration in 2009 and First Half of 2010

Table 7. Categories of Enacted State Laws relating to Immigration, 2009 & January–June of 2010

State	Integrating	Exclusionary	Neutral	Total
Iowa	H822,	H2522, S2181, S469, S356,	S340,	6
Illinois	H859, H5053, S663, H4858,H5428, S3158, H314, H2206, S1181, S1216, S1197, S1557, S1133, H399, S1300	S3699, S3494, H537, H382, H1143, H624, S1743, H2331,	S2976, S3288, S3660, S3662, H5006, S3090	29
Indiana	H1001, S391, H1130	S407, H1182,S222		6
Kansas	H2476, S572, S353, H2343	H2668, S237	H2506,	7
Michigan	H5658, S1163, S237, S248,		S1001	5
Minnesota	S525, S1770, S2082 H1362, H988,	S460, S2505, H1362, S1503,		9
Missouri	H2002, H2010, H2011, H2226, H10	H390, H361, S296, H124		9
Nebraska	L139, L725, L805	L563, L950, L579, L1020, L849, L788, L403		10
North Dakota	H1400, S2209	H1161, H1438, H1090		5
Ohio	S181	H1		2
South Dakota		H1107, S17	H1260, H1079	4
Wisconsin	A75	A757	A573	3
Totals	44	39	12	96

Source: National Conference of State Legislatures, Enacted State Laws Relating to Immigration in 2009 and First Half of 2010

Re-Localizing Our Foodshed: New Models and Methodologies for Planning Our Food Future

April 26, 2011

PI: Draeger, K. (University of Minnesota) [Adamek, Margaret]

Co-PIs: Cadieux, V., Kurzer, M. Pesch, R., Porter, P., and Robertson C. (University of Minnesota), Gold, A. and Kutka. F. (North Dakota State University), and Stark, S. (University of Minnesota-Duluth)

Award: $17,210

Project Abstract: Increasingly, communities and institutions are calling for and initiating a substantial overhaul of the American food system. This rapidly growing movement reflects a commitment a robust food culture and agriculture that is:
- more regionally based
- sustainable in practice
- intimate in scale

The momentum to regionalize our foodsheds has reached the point where major infrastructure changes are needed. Gardeners, chefs, farmers and activists lack the expertise for necessary planning, modeling and other research to inform public decision-making. Meanwhile- the land grant university – the very institution established to meet the needs the American food system – is well-positioned to offer this research support. This symposium will convene faculty, staff and students with visiting experts and community partners to discuss novel models and methodologies to meet public needs associated with redesigning our food system. The approach to and design of this new scholarship does not fit the classic model of agricultural research; rather it calls for a broader, more integrated base of expertise – reflecting interdisciplinary, socially beneficial inquiry. This symposium will convene scholars from multiple social and agricultural sciences and humanities disciplines, involve two land grant universities, their Extension and AES units and result in increased capacity and a research proposal.

PROJECT NAME: Re-Localizing our Foodshed: Models and Methodologies
PROJECT DATE: March 15 & 16, 2010 // LOCATION: University of Minnesota, Twin Cities
PROJECT FUNDING: $17,210.00

PROJECT ABSTRACT

The momentum to regionalize our foodsheds has reached the point where major infrastructure changes are needed. Gardeners, chefs, farmers and activists lack the expertise for necessary planning, modeling and other research to inform public decision-making. Meanwhile- the land grant university – the very institution established to meet the needs the American food system – is well-positioned to offer this research support. This symposium will convene faculty, staff and students with visiting experts and community partners to discuss novel models and methodologies to meet public needs associated with redesigning our food system. This symposium will convene scholars from multiple social and agricultural sciences and humanities disciplines, involve two land grant universities, their Extension and AES units and result in increased capacity and potential research proposals.

EVENT DESCRIPTION, PARTICIPANT AND FUNDING OUTCOMES

The *Relocalizing Our Foodshed Symposium & Workshop*, held on March 15 & 16, 2010 at the University of Minnesota was a success by many measures. The event hosted 78 pre-registered participants and 4 people "walked in" and registered the day of the symposium. Of those attending, 36 came from Non-UM affiliated organizations. While most of the attendees worked or went to school in Minnesota, 14 came in from 7 other states (Wisconsin, Iowa, North Dakota, Illinois, Kansas, California and New York). With leveraged funding ($1500 total) from 3 partnering organizations (UMN Regional Sustainable Development Partnerships; Healthy Foods, Healthy Lives Institute; and the Minnesota Institute for Sustainable Agriculture) we were able to fully sponsor 20 students who attended the two-day event at no cost. Finally, of those attending as university or college faculty or students, 13 distinct disciplines were represented: Geography, Public Health, Nutrition, Landscape Architecture, Applied Economics, Agronomy, Sociology, Horticulture, Conservation Biology, Bioproducts & Biosystems, Forestry, Anthropology and Extension.

ACTIVITIES & OUTCOMES DAY ONE

The *Relocalizing our Foodshed Symposium & Workshop* was a two day event. The first day of the conference was dedicated to presentations given by both national and local speakers currently involved in foodshed analysis in various levels of scale. Our national speakers, Christian Peters and Gail Feenstra, were both given 1 hour to present with Q&A from the audience. Our local speakers were given 10-15 minutes to present an overview of their projects in what we referred to as lightning talks. Both the national and local speakers were placed on panels for discussion and Q&A at two times during the symposium.

To frame the informational content of the presentations, speakers were asked to briefly discuss their original research and methodology, with primary focus on how it has evolved due to unforeseen barriers, input from

community groups, collaboration with new researchers, etc. Also, we asked that they speak about scale issues (is bigger better?). Finally, we asked that they frame their discussion in the context of the four issues listed:

- Addressing urban-rural connections / divides

- Access & affordability (beyond well-differentiated niche markets)

- Facilitating cross discipline research (including some discussion of evaluation!)

- Finding ways to engage with community folks / designing methods and models that can be applied (and evaluated)

Topics Discussed by our National Speakers:

1. Christian Peters, Assistant Professor, Tufts University Friedman School of Nutrition Science and Policy: *"Foodsheds and Foodprints: Assessing the Capacity of Land to Meet Nutritional Needs"*

2. Gail Feenstra, Food Systems Coordinator of the UC-Davis Sustainable Agriculture Research and Education Program: *"Foodshed Assessments: So Many Indicators, So Little Time"*

Topics Discussed by our Local, Lightning Talk Participants:

1. Ryan Pesch, UMN Extension Educator, Extension Center for Community Vitality : "*The Minnesota foodshed calculator"*

2. Erin Meier, Executive Director, SE Regional Sustainable Development Partnership: *"The Southeast Minnesota Foodshed Planning Initiative"*

3. Stacey Stark, Director UMD GIS Lab & David Abazs, Farmer Round River Farm: *"Defining the Agricultural Landscape of the Western Lake Superior Region: Realities and potentials for a healthy local food system for healthy people"*

4. Alexandra Lyon, UW-Madison Center for Integrated Agricultural Systems: *"The Driftless Region Food and Farm Project"*

5. Gigi DiGiacomo, Research Fellow, UMN Department of Applied Economics: *"USDA's Economic Research Service (ERS) study on the economics of local food markets"*

In the evening on the first day, a dinner was hosted in the University Campus Club to facilitate continued discussion of the day's presentations and encourage further networking. Of the 82 total participants from the day's symposium, 58% of the attendees (49) dined on a dinner composed of local ingredients.

ACTIVITIES & OUTCOMES DAY TWO

Day two of the two-day conference was envisioned as a day for group discussion and partnership building. To this end, our third national speaker gave a talk on building collaboration:

1. Rich Pirog, Associate Director of the Leopold Center for Sustainable Agriculture, Iowa State University: *"Making the Case for Investment in Local and Regional Food Businesses and Network"*

The remainder of the day was spent in breakout groups representing 74% (61 individuals) of the total attendees from day one. Those in attendance represented 15 distinct geographical research and community

efforts throughout the U.S – the upper Midwest in particular. Attendees associated themselves with the following foodsheds:

- Driftless Region
- TC Metro
- Northwest MN, Crookston Area
- West Central MN
- Northeast US
- SE quadrant of MN
- Upper Midwest
- Iowa

- Morris area
- North/Dakota/MN Metro
- Western Lake Superior
- Virtual – Northern Iowa
- Northeast Ohio
- Chicago Metro
- San Diego, CA

From a pre-survey sent to attendees prior to the conference, the following small group topics were developed:

- Addressing urban-rural connections / divides

- Access & affordability in food systems

- Facilitating and evaluating cross discipline research

- Discovering ways to bring university & community together for research

From these discussions, some of the following thoughts on future collaboration and next steps included:

- Finding and utilizing established data sets

- Conceptually map different food goals and values in a way that helps people understand how the food system works and how they relate to various parts and processes of the food system

- Discussions/brainstorming about how we creatively rebuild the "middle infrastructure" of a regional food system

- Development or working groups and partnership between existing local foods work and researchers in MN (similar to Iowa model presented by Pirog)

- Assessing the connection between conducting food shed/system assessments and mobilizing communities and policymakers. How do Food Policy Councils use this information.

- Where to find funding for regular assessments?

From these discussions, a presentation proposal was submitted to the Community Food Security Coalition to report on Foodshed Analysis and Methodologies. The proposal was not accepted. In addition, a four state, $5 million dollar AFRI Global Food Security proposal was submitted to the USDA with many of the proposal participants from the workshop. That proposal received moderately high rankings but was not one of the five project to be funded nationwide. In February 2011, the project Principle Investigator, Kathy Draeger, met with the AFRI National Program leader for this area to gauge the opportunities for resubmission and revisions needed. Additionally, one of the community members who presented at the March 2010 workshop subsequently applied for a U of M Endowed Chair in Food Systems and was awarded a one year fellowship for calendar year 2011 and will be working on foodshed planning and analysis among other projects.

Community Retail Development Toolbox Project

April 26, 2011

PI: Davis, G. (The Ohio State University)

Co-PIs: Clark, J. and Irwin E. (The Ohio State University), Pesch, R. and Schwartau, B. (University of Minnesota), and Ryan, B. (University of Wisconsin-Madison)

Award: $19,048

Project Abstract: Small communities throughout the Midwest are struggling to maintain a vital economic mix in their downtowns and business districts. While retail in small communities struggles, many creative opportunities exist to curb the leakage of retail dollars and foster local economic health. This project aims to combine the research and analytical techniques developed by Extension educators throughout the North Central region into a one-stop resource for community retail analysis for use across the North Central region (and beyond). We will refine, improve and consolidate retail analysis tools already developed in Ohio, Minnesota, and Wisconsin and elsewhere in the North Central region, co-brand this innovative and comprehensive effort and make it available as an online collaborative resource complete with easily accessible, multi-media curricula. The product will be a self-help resource for entrepreneurs, commercial district/"Main Street" directors, and community and economic development leaders to make more informed business decisions. After piloting the programming in three communities in the region, we will refine the outputs and offer training to others in the North Central Region on how to apply these tools. The tools will then be reintroduced to various states, regional and national organizations involved in building vibrant and sustainable downtowns and local economies.

NCRCRD Small Grant Annual Summary Report - Community Retail Development Toolbox Project (also known as the Downtown & Business District Market Analysis Toolbox)

Overall Objective - To increase knowledge and awareness of retail development opportunities in small city downtowns and business districts as well as assist decision-making of business and community leaders with the overall goal of improving local economic activity.

Activities - Team members met in Madison Wisconsin in January 2010 to share existing retail analysis tools, identify work sub-teams, and plan out timeline for revisions and adaptations for the on-line Downtown & Business District Market Analysis Toolbox. When completed in 2011, the revised toolbox (building from the existing University of Wisconsin-Extension toolbox) will incorporate new retail analysis tools already developed in Ohio, Minnesota, and Wisconsin and elsewhere in the North Central region. While not finished, the project team has worked closely to refine, improve and consolidate, co-brand their innovative and comprehensive efforts. In early 2011, the new toolbox with 21 components will be made available as an online collaborative resource complete with easily accessible, multi-media curricula.

Approximately 12 of the 21 toolbox components are directly relevant to community retail development. Those components that have been drafted to date by the project team are by asterisks (*) in the list below. Other components that are less relevant to retail analysis but still essential to downtown and business development (such as housing, office space and lodging analysis) have already been completed as part of the UWEX toolbox and will be moved to the new toolbox. Components of the new toolbox are listed below.

Part I: Understanding the Market
- Introduction*
- Business Owners Survey*
- Peer City/comparison Community Analysis*
- Trade Area Analysis*
- Demographic and Lifestyle Analysis*
- Local and Regional Economic Analysis*
- Consumer Survey*
- Focus Groups

Part II: Analysis by Sector:
- Evaluating Retail Opportunities*
- Evaluating Restaurant Opportunities

- Evaluating Arts and Entertainment Opportunities
- Evaluating Housing Opportunities
- Evaluating Office Space Opportunities
- Evaluating Lodging Opportunities

Part III: Using the Market Analysis
- Niche Development
- Space Utilization
- Image, Branding and Marketing*
- Business Retention and Expansion*
- Supporting Entrepreneurship*
- Business Recruitment
- Implementing the Market Analysis*

A number of new techniques have been developed and are included within many of the above components. Examples include: a Demand-Supply Calculator to identify opportunities in store formats; new instructions for calculating Pull factors to provide communities a basic measurement for identifying leakages (loss of customers) or surpluses (drawing power); and Community Process Indicators focusing on "Measure of Success" strategies of actions, policies and organizations that could be implemented to improve the community retail.

Outcomes to date – Approximately two-thirds of the work related to developing/rewriting content for the 12 components (noted with asterisks) has been completed. The project team has held bi-weekly teleconference work sessions throughout 2010. Sub-teams of two to three people were formed to work on individual components. Peer review and editing has been a central component of these workgroups. Basecamp has been used as a collaborative online tool connecting project team members (allowing them to upload and archive their work and related files). A redesigned website look as been established as illustrated earlier in this summary report.

Funds leveraged (and others engaged) – NCRCRD has been a catalyst to launch this effort and provide dollars to support software, data and graduate students. Dollars have been matched with project team member salaries paid by the participating institutions. In addition, numerous academic colleagues of project team members were also leveraged in this work, along with services of web designs and editors.

What is next – By June of 2011, the 21 components of the new toolbox will be complete and posted to the new website. Throughout 2011, the tools will be test and continuously refined based on results of their use in actual community market analysis projects. One of the first projects will be a Retail Market Analysis scheduled for Baraboo, WI.

Building Extension's Capacity for a Sustainable Communities Program

April 26, 2011

PI: Haines, A. (University of Wisconsin-Stevens Point)

Co-PI: Beyea, W. (Michigan State University)

Award: $17,000

Project Abstract: Develop a comprehensive, research-based sustainable communities education program for use throughout the North Central states and transferable to other regions. The North Central Region Task Force for Sustainable Communities will lead the curriculum development. Activities include:

- A suite of outreach tools to assist Extension professionals to access and use materials from existing programs;
- Professional development webinars and supporting curriculum package;
- A multi-tier logic model for implementing sustainable development activities in rural communities; and
- One or more reports/articles that disseminate project results through extension and research channels.

A diverse audience will be served including extension professionals, community and citizen planners, and other community leaders. To assure efficient transferability both within the North central region and beyond, social networking tools of the newly formed eXtension Land Use Planning Community of Practice will be used to provide distance learning opportunities and network with Extension professionals.

Innovations and Success in Community & Economic Development Extension Programming

April 26, 2011

PI: Ivan, D. (Michigan State University)

Co-PI: Emery, M. (Iowa State University)

Award: $16,000

Project Abstract: Rural communities throughout the North Central Region struggle amidst an economic tsunami. Despite this challenging environment, some communities and regions are proactively positioning themselves for success through extension-led initiatives. It is their approaches, and experiences, that can serve as a roadmap for long term sustainability. We seek to gain knowledge from successful and innovative initiatives in a learning environment populated with leading community and economic development practitioners and scholars, many of which are financed by extension personnel.

North Central Center for Rural Development
Final Grant Report

Grant Number: 61-4126
Project Co-PIs: Dave Ivan, MI State University
                 Mary Emery, IA State University
                 Norm Walzer, Northern Illinois University

Project Summary:

Communities throughout rural America are struggling amidst challenging economic conditions and changing social and demographic circumstances. Despite a challenging environment, some communities and regions are proactively positioning themselves for increased vitality through successful community change initiatives. It is their approaches, and experiences that can help inform community development practitioners seeking to provide assistance.

 This grant proposal gained knowledge from successful and innovative initiatives in a learning environment populated with leading community and economic development practitioners and scholars. Their shared community intervention experiences have been synthesized to provide a framework of successful community change approaches. In addition to sharing the common elements found in creative community change strategies to other practitioners through a NCRCRD sponsored webinar, and breakout session at the Community Development Society International Conference, the grant outputs helped to seed a special "Community Change" edition of the *Journal of the Community Development Society* (planned Summer, 2011) and initiate discussions regarding the potential development of a comprehensive, evidence-based community change curricula that reflects current global economic paradigms.

Grant Project Outcomes:

1. Identify leading community/economic development programs currently implemented with strong emphasis on initiatives with prior evaluation;

2. Invite representatives from successful program to a regional gathering and identify common "success elements" among initiatives through facilitated conversation among participants;

3. Identify "learned approaches" that can be transferred throughout the North Central region;

4. Assemble scholarly report from Gathering for submission to *Journal of Community Development Society* and/or *Journal of Extension* as well as an edited volume if the material justifies.

5. Conduct webinar for community and economic development practitioners on innovative approach success themes from participant gatherings.

Process:

Through a call-for-proposals and review process, 12 leading community change initiatives were identified that represented diverse geographical locations, lead agencies, and community change goals. Additionally, participants of a complementary NCRCRD funded grant were invited to share their successful approaches as full participants of the grant activities. Participating programs and personnel were:

Breakthrough Solutions	Mark Peterson	University of Arkansas CES
Center of Com & Econ Dev	Greg Wise	University of Wisconsin Extension
Center for Regional Dev	Don Koverman	Purdue University
Community Progress Initiative	Connie Loudan	Wisconsin Rapids, WI
Energizing Entrepreneurs	Milan Wall	Heartland Center, NE
ExCEED	Sharon Gulick	Missouri Extension
HomeTown Competitiveness	Milan Wall	Heartland Center, NE
Horizons Program	Paul Lachapelle	Montana State Extension
KY Entrepreneur Coaching Institute	Ron Hustedde	University of Kentucky
MAPPING	Gisele Hamm	Western Illinois University
Strategic Doing	Ed Morrison	Purdue University
U-Lead	Dick Senese	Minnesota Extension

The above program representatives, in addition to the grant PIs, met twice (agendas in Appendix 1) to both learn/discuss each community change approach while identifying common success elements. The meetings were held in conjunction with other national community development conferences (NACDEP & CDS) to both minimize travel expenses and encourage participation. Both sessions experienced 100% attendance and deep conversations.

<u>Findings:</u>

In reviewing and discussing successful community change elements, the following lessons emerged:

<u>Preparing Communities</u>
- Educate entire community about process;
- Encourage broad-based participation;
- Build and/or encourage networks;
- Ensure local stakeholder buy-in;
- Participants and residents must own process;
- Stress local leadership capacity building;
- Support leaders in efforts, especially new and/or emerging leaders;

<u>Create High Quality Programs</u>
- Understand program, process and product;
- Based efforts on scholarship and evidence;
- Include theoretical underpinnings;
- Build on successful practices;
- Incorporate new paradigms and thinking;
- Build a "break through" philosophy;
- Be flexible to recognize diverse local issues;
- Make program a major event in community;

<u>Delivering the Program</u>
- Mobilize community assets;
- Encourage and reward risk-takers;
- Provide flexibility in topics and delivery;
- Build program identity;
- Be bold with a "delightful" process;
- Enjoy the process;
- Adhere to the program mission;
- Don't wait for permission to act;

<u>Follow-up Activities</u>
- Measure and document outcomes;
- Provide accountability;
- Persistent follow-through;
- Communication using latest technology;
- Pick the low-hanging fruit first;
- Focus on the future;
- Pursue long-term sustainability and resiliency;
- Celebrate and publicize successes;

Outreach Activities
      Breakout Session   CDS Annual Meeting   July 26, 2010 New Orleans
      Webinar   NCRCRD Webinar Series   February 14, 2011
      Special Edition   CDS Journal   June, 2011 (anticipated)

Budget Summary:

	Budgeted	Actual
Call for proposals/Review Committee Costs	$ 350	$ 0
Travel stipend for participants	7,500	5,009
Travel for Project Co-PIs and Facilitators	1,500	1,700
Facility Expenses:	5,150	5,235
Edited scholarly proceedings	1,500	0
Total Budgeted/Actual	$16,000	$11,944*
Total Grant Funds Unexpended:	$4,056**	

*The decision to hold gatherings in conjunction with scheduled community development conferences limited the request for travel reimbursement.

** If unexpended funds could be utilized beyond grant period (and before August, 2011), a final gathering would be scheduled to develop more definitive next steps in developing a 2012 version of "Take Charge" that could potentially be funded by all RDCs and Kellogg Foundation.

Next Steps:
As communities change new community development approaches will be necessary to successfully guide them in navigating the challenges before them. This grant provided the impetus to identifying key learned successes from leading community change initiatives nationwide. It is appropriate to use these findings as the foundation for the potential development of a new curriculum to assist rural America. Much like "Take Charge" assisted communities in adjusting to the economic realities of the 1980s farm crisis, fresh approaches are necessary to again assist rural communities in adjusting to the realities of the new economy. This grant gathered leading community change scholars and practitioners to initiate this important calling. Future funding, however, will be necessary to bring their collective insights into action.

Appendix 1

<div align="center">

NCRCRD Innovations Meeting
April 14-15
Minneapolis, Minnesota

</div>

April 14th   *(NACDEP Quits at 4:30 p.m.)*

5:00 p.m.	*Dinner and Introductions*
5:45 p.m.	Conference Overview and Agenda review
	Discussion of Program Intents and Desired
Outcomes	
6:00 p.m.	Presentation of Community Visioning Programs
	BreakThrough Solutions; MAPPING; Strategic
Doing;	
7:30 p.m.	Common Principles Learned From Programs
8:00 p.m.	Presentations of Entrepreneurship Related Programs
	ExCEED; Kentucky Coaches; Energizing
Entrepreneurship	
9:30 p.m.	Common Principles Learned from Programs
10:00 p.m.	*Adjourn for Evening*

April 15th

8:00 a.m.	*Breakfast*
8:30 a.m.	Presentations of Community Capacity-Building Programs
	U-Lead; Montana Horizons; E2, HT
	Competitiveness
10:00 a.m.	Common Principles Learned from Programs
10:30 a.m.	*Break*
10:45 a.m.	Small Groups: Characteristics of Successful Change Efforts
11:15 a.m.	General Discussion
11:30 a.m.	How Best to Transfer What Has Been Learned
12:15 p.m.	*Working Lunch*
1:00 p.m.	Opportunities for Continued Work and/or Further Research
2:00 p.m.	Possible Collaborative Next Steps

Webinars
Presentation to CDS in New Orleans
Special Issue of Journal
Book Length Manuscript or Report of Innovative Programs

3:00 p.m.   Conclude and Depart for Home

Appendix 2

Agenda
Innovative Strategies for Community Change Meeting
July 28-29, 2010
New Orleans

Purposes of Meeting

The main purposes are to synthesize the results of the Minneapolis, Moline, and New Orleans (CDS session) meetings, identify the main principles learned in the discussions, and then determine how to disseminate the results and help other agencies incorporate the findings into their programmatic efforts. A related outcome will be to formalize ways to continue and/or expand the process into a continued analysis of improvements to the community change programs.

Goals of Meeting

1. Develop game plan for deliverables and responsibility for completing them
2. Identify ways to share learning experiences with other practitioners
3. Define responsibilities for implementation of desired outcomes
4. Identification of potential funding sources

Proposed Agenda

(Wednesday evening)

6:30 -9:00 p.m.   Dinner and light discussion of questions submitted in advance
                                What have we learned thus far? How can it change what we do?
                                What are the most desirable outcomes from the meeting?
                                (Purpose is to help participants get ready for the Thursday discussions)

(Thursday)

8-8:30 a.m.   Continental Breakfast

8:30 – 10 a.m.   How can practitioners best use the results of the past work to help reshape
                               the thinking about factors affecting community change and best practices?
                               What research design(s) would yield the most useful results?

10- 10:15 a.m.   Break

10:15 – 12 Noon   What **could** we do with the findings?
                               NCRCRD grant responsibilities

Additional opportunities to disseminate results
Expected programmatic outcomes
How to go to next level, if desired

12-12:30 Lunch   Continued discussions

12:30 -1:30   What **should and will** we do next and how do we finance?
                      What outcomes do we want to accomplish?
                      Which are viable or feasible with current budget?
                      Possible outcomes:
    a. Special issue of journal
    b. Book length manuscript
    c. Articles in other outlets
    d. A broader summit or venue(s)
    e. Webinar(s) or 7-minute spots with discussions
    f. Social media discussions
    g. Session at 2011 CDS meetings (Boise)

1:30 – 2:15 p.m.   **Who** will take responsibility for initiatives?
    a. List of assets on team
    b. What other assets do we need? Who else to invite?
    c. Where are possible funding sources
    d. Volunteers to lead efforts
    e. Schedule and/or deadlines for completing
    f. Other….

2:15- 2:30 p.m.   Wrap-up and possibilities for **next meeting, if needed** etc.

2:30 p.m.   Adjourn