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DIFFERENCES BETWEEN FOOD BANK USERS, NON-USERS AND PAST USERS IN A POPULATION OF LOW-INCOME SINGLE MOTHERS

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DIFFERENCES BETWEEN FOOD BANK USERS, NON-USERS AND PAST USERS IN A POPULATION OF LOW-INCOME SINGLE MOTHERS

Ву

Patricia Kay Smith

A THESIS

Submitted to
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ABSTRACT

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN FOOD BANK USERS, NON-USERS AND PAST USERS IN A POPULATION OF LOW-INCOME SINGLE MOTHERS

by

Patricia Kay Smith

Seventy-four low-income single mothers with young children, recruited through a door-to-door census in Lansing, MI, participated in a structured, one-hour interview. Thirty-seven subjects were users, 21 were non-users, and 16 were past users of the Ingham County Food Bank. Average income for all families was 81% of the 1989 poverty level for a family of three. Results demonstrated that users compared to non-users: (1) had larger households with older children; (2) purchased food more frequently at a convenience store; (3) participated in more assistance programs; (4) were less able to buy enough food with available resources; (5) skipped meals (mothers and children) more often because of no food in the home; and (6) reported fewer family members who would gladly give help or support. Past users were more stigmatized by assistance program participation than users. All three groups would turn to family members first for emergency food assistance. No past users would turn to the food bank first for help.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Food banks, food closets and food pantries are private, community-based organizations which rely heavily on donations of food, money, and volunteer time to provide a few days supply of groceries to people in need. These facilities are a temporary stop-gap measure for households without food and with no place else to turn for help. Perhaps surprisingly, emergency food assistance requests through food banks have been increasing nationwide despite reports in recent years of an improving economy (eg., Bread for the World, 1985; Contra Costa County Hunger Task Force, 1987; The Maryland Food Committee, 1988; Minnesota Food Education and Resource Center, 1985; Project Bread Hunger Hotline et al, 1987). In 1989, emergency food requests to the Ingham County Food Bank (ICFB) in Lansing, Michigan, came in from an average of 1,719 households per month, an increase of 17% over the average of 1,465 requests per month in 1988 (M. Kieselbach, personal communication, February 2, 1990). Use of the ICFB reached a previous all-time high of 1,666 households a month in 1983, which was the bottom of the most recent economic recession in the state.

A request for emergency food assistance identifies a family in crisis. The crisis, characterized by no food in the home, might be the culmination of one or more chronic problems within the family or household, such as underemployment, low educational attainment, lack of adequate food storage or preparation facilities, or barriers to maximum participation in the social welfare system. Or the crisis might be the outcome of an acute event which drains resources already depleted by on-going problems. A medical emergency not covered by insurance, a high housing or utility bill, or divorce or

abandonment are examples of potentially resource-draining events (eg., Contra Costa County Hunger Task Force, 1987; Governor's Task Force on Hunger, 1988; Interim Study Committee on Hunger and Nutrition in South Carolina, 1986; Oregon Food Share, 1986; Project Bread Hunger Hotline, 1986; The Task Force on Hunger, 1985). Whatever the cause, it is unlikely the family's food crisis occurred overnight.

No published studies have been located which specifically examine why some low-income families reach a point where they turn to a food bank, while comparable families do not. Several studies in the research literature have examined low-income families in relation to other assistance programs such as the Supplemental Food Program for Women, Infants and Children (WIC), Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC or ADC), or food stamps (e.g., Emmons, 1986; MacDonald, 1985; Rush et al, 1988; Stuart, 1975). Other reports, primarily by community- or government-based organizations, provide profiles of hungry people and/or emergency assistance in a specific area of the country (see Appendix A). However, no research has been found regarding the following relevant questions: 1) What, if any, characteristics or behaviors differ between families that do not use the food bank and families that do? 2) What appear to be the most prevalent chronic factors present in a family or household which might lead up to food bank use? 3) Are there families who should be turning to the food bank in times of distress who are not doing so, and if not, why not?

This exploratory study was undertaken to look at factors which might differentiate low-income food bank users and non-users, such as issues related to the management of food resources in the household, social welfare system participation, informal social support, demographics, and selected hunger indicators. The results might be used by local social service and assistance agencies to screen for families at risk for a potential food crisis in the home, to improve interventions for at-risk families, and to reach at-risk families not yet in any assistance system. Information obtained on the needs and experiences of both the user and non-user families might also be used by agencies such as the ICFB, the

Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program (EFNEP), and WIC as another weapon in the ongoing battle for limited county, state, and federal dollars.

Food Bank Use in Ingham County, Michigan

The ICFB is a tax-exempt, non-profit organization made up of a system of 34 "food closets" or distribution centers throughout Ingham County. Twenty-one of the closets are located within the city limits of Lansing, the geographic area of interest within the county (see Appendix B). The food closets are all run by volunteers. The ICFB also has a central office with three full-time paid and several volunteer staff members and a warehouse from which donated and purchased food is distributed to the individual closets. All applicants for assistance are screened through the central office, where a record is kept on a recipient data form of all assistance requests. Eligibility is determined on an individual basis. Names and social security numbers of all the adults in the household must be provided and some form of identification must be shown by the individual picking up the food from the food closet. An individual or household can receive assistance from the ICFB up to five times a year, but no more than once in any thirty day period, except under extenuating circumstances verified by someone such as a Department of Social Services (DSS) caseworker, school counselor, or Public Health nurse. If requests for assistance are received from an individual or household three months in a row, they might be asked to participate in EFNEP, see a budget counselor, or participate in a garden project sponsored by the ICFB.

There appears to be a large gap between actual food bank use and potential need in Ingham County. Potential need for the purposes of this study was defined as number of persons living near, at or below the federal poverty threshold. In 1989, the ICFB supplied three to six day emergency food packages to an average of approximately 5,150 individuals per month (M. Kieselbach, personal communication, February 2, 1990). This was at a

time when there were over 33,000 persons in Ingham County living below 100% of the federal poverty level and over 44,000 living below 125% of the poverty level (13.2% and 17.4%, respectively, of the county's population) (Bureau of the Census, 1983).

Therefore, there were over 38,000 individuals not using the ICFB in any given month who were potential users. Not everyone living below 125% of poverty is at risk for running out of food, but clearly there are a great number of people in Ingham County "living on the brink" financially.

Prior studies conducted in several locations around the United States, including Ingham County, have created profiles of food bank users (Appendix A). Using data from a random selection of ICFB intake sheets from 1985, Dahl (1986) and Wu (1986) determined that 75% of the ICFB users were getting food stamps, 46% received AFDC, and 11% had at least a part-time job¹. Obviously, although use of the ICFB might have been a consequence of poverty, it did not necessarily reflect non-participation in social programs or even unemployment.

In Ingham County, the typical food bank user household (≤ four times per year) was found to be a single-parent family with two children (Dahl, 1986). Almost 90% of the single-parent households with children in the city of Lansing are headed by a woman (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983). It was therefore assumed for the purposes of this study that an equally high percentage of the single-parent households using the Ingham County Food Bank (ICFB) are headed by women. Children under 18 years old made up fifty-four percent of the "typical" ICFB users in the Dahl study and 55% of the "frequent" (≥ five times a year) ICFB users in the Wu (1986) study. Another study conducted in the same year (Howard, 1986), using a random sample of 179 intake records of ICFB users, found that 64% of the individuals served in those cases were children.

Recent figures for 1989 showed that 54% of ICFB users received food stamps, 34% were on AFDC, and 16% were employed at least part-time (M. Kieselbach, personal communication, February 2, 1990).

Although not the focus of this study, the fact that low-income women and young children are potentially at risk for the consequences of nutritional deficit cannot be ignored. An acute food crisis in the home necessitating use of the food bank is not necessarily synonymous with nutritional risk. However, poor young children in the United States have been shown in previous studies to exhibit low height-for-age, a sign of possible chronic nutritional deficit (Jones, Nesheim & Habicht, 1985; Owen, Kram, Nelson & Montalvo, 1969). Young children are particularly vulnerable to the effects of undernutrition because they are going through a period of rapid growth and development. In women of child-bearing age, the greatest consequence of possible undernutrition due to chronic lack of food is the risk present to any children they may conceive (eg., Als, Tronick, Adamson & Brazelton, 1976; Habicht, Yarbrough, Lechtig & Klein, 1973; Lubin, Bonner & Schrock, 1980). Therefore, families with a female single parent and at least one child age six years or under were selected as the focus of this study because: 1) low-income, single mothers and their children appear to be the predominant users of the ICFB; 2) the need to turn to the food bank might be a sign of a chronically low food supply in the home exacerbated by an acute crisis; and 3) young children and women of child-bearing age are particularly vulnerable to the potential effects of undernutrition.

Operational Definitions

Domestic resource management – the manner in which the household's food and food purchasing resources are handled; includes factors such as choice of food store, size effect on food cost, brand preference, food shopping proficiency, frequency of shopping and adequacy of food storage, major appliances and utilities.

Social welfare resource management – the extent to which a family participates in all social welfare programs for which it might be eligible; affected by barriers to participation such as stigma or lack of knowledge about a particular program.

Informal social support – the extent to which a person's material needs (ie., money, food, transportation), informational needs (ie., advice, referrals) and/or socioemotional needs (companionship, security, sense of worth) are met by her network of friends and family.

Federal poverty threshold/Poverty level/Poverty line – the level of household income equal to three times the cost of the USDA's Thrifty Food Plan; varies according to number of family members and place of residence. Updated each February to account for changes in the Consumer Price Index.

Income – before tax cash receipts from all sources, including money borrowed or used from savings; does not include non-cash benefits, such as food stamps and WIC.

Low-income – family or household income at or below 185% of the federal poverty threshold. Some studies reviewed defined low-income as either those in the lowest income quartile of their study or below the poverty threshold and may or may not include government assistance benefits.

Poor – having a family or household income, before or after receipt of government benefits, at or below 100% of the federal poverty threshold.

Poorest of the poor – having a family or household income, before or after receipt of government benefits, at or below 50% of the federal poverty threshold.

Food security – access at all times, through normal food channels, to enough nutritionally adequate food for an active, healthy life. (Select Committee on Hunger, 1989; World Bank, 1986).

Family -- all closely related individuals within a household; can include parents, siblings, children, grandchildren, and wards of the Respondent. Does not include relatives such as aunts, uncles, cousins, or grandparents.

Household - all persons, related or not, who live in the same house and regularly buy food and share meals together.

CHAPTER II

Review of the Literature

When an attempt is made to uncover why a low-income household must reach out for emergency assistance, it becomes evident that there are many factors at work, each one of which might interact with any of the other factors. This study focused on what conditions might lead to a food crisis in a very specific type of family, what activities are undertaken to avoid running out of food, and what actions the family takes when and if it does run out of food. The first section of this review of the relevant literature examines from a demographic standpoint why single mothers with young children are a group at risk for poverty and therefore possess increased potential for a food crisis in the home. The second, third and fourth sections of the literature review examine the behaviors and characteristics other than demographics which were selected for examination in this study-the management of domestic food resources in low-income households, the management of social welfare resources by low-income families, and informal social support networks and help-seeking behavior among single and low-income mothers.

At Risk - Single Mothers with Young Children

Single mothers and their children are at a high risk for poverty, especially if the women are divorced, separated or never married (as opposed to widowed). Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) is a federal means-tested entitlement program developed to assist financially troubled single parent families. However, in Michigan, if a single mother has to rely solely on AFDC and food stamps to provide for her family and

the family qualifies for maximum benefits from both programs, the family's income will still be at only 82% of the poverty threshold (Shapiro & Greenstein, 1988).

According to estimates based on a sample survey by the U.S. Census Bureau (1987), 23% of all families in the United States with children under age 18 at home are headed by a woman: 18% of white families, 54% of African American families, and 29% of Hispanic families. Twenty-eight percent of families headed by single women include children under the age of six. The number of female headed households with children has increased 136% since 1970.

This more than doubling of female-headed families with children in the United States built on a trend that was seen starting in 1960 (Norton and Glick, 1986). Drawing primarily on early to mid-1980's U.S. census data, Norton and Glick constructed the following "social and economic profile" of single parent families. Eighty-eight percent of these families nationwide are headed by women; 60% of the female-headed single parent families have incomes which place them below the poverty line. This rate of poverty is more than twice that of families headed by a single father. About one-third of all female-headed families with children under 18 years of age in the United States are headed by an African American woman. This is approximately one-half of all African American families with young children. Only 15% of white families with young children are headed by a single woman. Never married women make up 20% of the single mothers, an increase of 500% from 1970, but the number of women who have become single parents through widowhood has declined by over 20% during the same time period.

According to Norton and Glick's (1986) analysis, twenty-eight percent of female single parents are not likely to have a high school diploma (a decline from 48% in 1970) and 46% are unlikely to have gone on for even one more year of education after high school. Only 8% of female single parents are likely to have at least a four year college degree. Fifty-three percent of lone mothers with any preschoolers and 45% with any children under three years of age are working. Divorced mothers are more likely to be

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working than never married mothers, white mothers more likely than African American mothers.

Data from the 1979 decennial census showed that in Lansing, Michigan, women headed 28% of all families with children under the age of 18 in the home, a somewhat higher percentage than national estimates of 23% (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983). Sixty-five percent of these families were headed by white women and 30% by African American women. The mean yearly income of these female-headed families was approximately \$10,200.00 (1979 dollars), but forty-three percent of these families had incomes which placed them below the 1979 poverty threshold. Twenty-eight percent of these families had children below the age of six present and incomes below the poverty threshold.

In 1986, the median income for female headed families in the United States was estimated to be \$14,280. This amount was 54% of the median income for households headed by a single male and 43% of the median income for households headed by a married couple (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1987).

A woman with children can become a single mother for several reasons – divorce, separation, widowhood, or having children out-of-wedlock. In 1986, 52% of the African American single mothers heading families in the United States had never married, 43% were divorced or separated and 5% were widowed. In that same year, 75% of the white single mothers heading families were separated or divorced, 17% had never married and 7% were widowed (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1987).

Divorce or separation can have a devastating effect on the income status of the household. Weiss (1984), using data from the University of Michigan's Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID), followed for five years the income and consumption patterns of a sample of divorced and separated mothers with children under 18 living in the household. He compared them to a married sample drawn from the PSID data set. Regardless of income status before the dissolution of the marriage, divorce or separation brought about a

dramatic drop in income for the woman. In the first year after the break-up, income was reduced by 55% for those women in the upper income levels, by 44% for those at the middle income level, and by 23% for those with the lowest pre-break-up incomes. On the average, once the incomes dropped they did not rise for the duration of the time period studied; however, it must be noted that the incomes also did not tend to drop farther. On the other hand, the incomes of the women who were married for the duration of the study rose steadily over the five years. The husband's income accounted for an average of 80% of the income in these households. The incomes of all the separated or divorced mothers averaged half those of the still married women by the end of the five years. This income decline was especially devastating for the low-income single mothers, who started out the study with incomes at about three-fourths of their married counterparts.

Income has been shown to be the single greatest determinant of food expenditure in the household. Herrmann (1964), in developing an economic model to explain the variance in household food expenditures, found that 23% of the variance was explained by household income. Therefore, marital status can jeopardize food availability to the family through its effect on income.

Although there appears to be a dearth of literature specific to the economic status of families with children headed by never-married women, the logical assumption can be made that their financial outlook is as bleak as, if not worse than, that of families with a divorced or separated single mother. Some factors figuring into this might be lack of a source of child support, interrupted education, and limited work experience before the birth of the first child, particularly if the woman was a teenage mother (Wilson, 1988).

Women who become mothers for the first time while still adolescents are at particular risk for economic problems. A longitudinal study was conducted in Baltimore comparing women who were unwed mothers in their teens with both classmates and same age women from several national surveys (Furstenberg, Brooks-Gunn & Morgan, 1987). In 1984, seventeen years after the beginning of the study, the teenage mothers were still not

as likely to have their high school diploma or equivalent as their classmates and they were also less likely to have completed school than women in the national surveys who delayed childbearing until their twenties. At the 1984 follow-up less than one-quarter of the teenage mothers had never been married. However, of those that had ever married, 44% were currently divorced and another 6% had been married more than once. Women from the national studies who had their first child later demonstrated more permanence in their relationships and were more likely to be married and less likely to be divorced.

When examining the welfare dependence of the teen mothers, the researchers found that although 29% had received welfare in the year before the 1984 follow-up, only 12% of the entire sample had received public assistance for the entire study period. In this population, the most significant determinants of being on welfare in 1984 at the 17 year follow-up included: a) 9th grade education or less, p = .001; b) being below expected grade level at time of first pregnancy, p = .003; c) having two or more additional children within five years of the first, p = .03; and d) not being married within five years of the first birth, p = .03. Receiving welfare during the five years after the first birth and not being a high school graduate were significant at the p = .12 and p = .15 levels, respectively.

Domestic Resource Management

A large part of managing a family's or household's domestic or in-house food resources is the actual process of obtaining the food. Hammett and Van de Mark (1973) pointed out that food buying is a "complex procedure", but concluded that low-income (as well as experience and family stability) is related to frequently making routine purchase choices which bypass some of the more complicated decision-making steps. A large body of research literature exists focusing on the low-income consumer and basic aspects of food shopping decisions—ie.,overall food purchasing proficiency, store choice, package size, brand preference, and frequency of shopping. This will be the focus of this section of the

review of the literature. It must be noted that much of the research in this area was conducted ten to twenty-five years ago, when advocacy for the poor was an area of tremendous interest in the United States. This does not, however, denigrate the value of this research in explaining the basic food shopping behaviors of today's low-income consumer.

Although preplanning of food purchases using a shopping list or through menu planning are assumed in home economics to be an important part of the food purchasing process, an extensive search of the consumer, home economics, and dietetics literature failed to uncover any studies concerning the efficacy of these activities as related to expenditures of either time or money. These two processes appear not to have been the central focus of any organized research, although they have been peripherally examined in the research literature as a part of the total food purchasing process (eg., Anderson, 1988; Koh, 1978; Suter & Barbour, 1975; Sinkula, 1984; Verma, Montgomery & Cyrus, 1987).

Overall Food Shopping Proficiency

When it comes to food, low-income, female heads of households are apparently able to make "economical purchases of what they ordinarily buy" (p. 50) according to a study in Riley County, Kansas, by Barney and Morse (1967). This ability was assessed by comparing what the homemakers actually spent on a typical shopping trip, usually shopping at only one store, with what college students who were seniors in home economics determined the same list of items would cost after comparison shopping at two stores. Students could substitute brands, but nothing else. The low-income homemakers spent 7% less than what the students estimated the foods would cost ($p \le .01$, ANOVA), indicating that the women had better "buymanship" skills than the supposedly highly educated and well-trained students.

When a household has limited food buying resources, it is not only important that the homemaker shop economically, but that she also get the maximum nutrient return per dollar spent on food. In examining data from over 14,000 households in the Nationwide Food Consumption Survey 1977-78, Peterkin and Hama (1983) found that the low-income households (0-99% of the poverty threshold) had a higher nutrient return per dollar than households with higher incomes. However, these low-income households were still less likely than those with higher incomes to attain recommended levels of the nutrients studied. Apparently this was because, with smaller weekly food expenditures, they had to purchase less food (Morgan, Peterkin, Johnson & Goungetas, 1985). This had been seen earlier by Barney and Morse (1967), who found that homemakers in their study spent just slightly more than half of what was necessary to purchase the U.S.D.A.'s Low-Cost Food Plan for their families. This finding was taken as an indication that the homemakers had insufficient food monies to purchase an adequate diet for their families¹. From the above studies, it appears that many low-income homemakers, although not able to provide their families with what might be considered optimal in terms of nutrient intake, are managing the best they can with limited resources.

Choice of Store--Location and Type

An important question addressed primarily through descriptive studies in the late 1960's and the 1970's was whether the poor, particularly the urban poor, paid more for food than higher income consumers. It was hypothesized that perhaps the large grocery store chains charged more for food in the inner-city than in the suburbs. Another theory was that the poor had less access to large stores due to lack of transportation, which forced them to shop at expensive small neighborhood markets or convenience stores. Under these circumstances the low-income shopper would be affected by what Kunreuther (1973) referred to as the "store effect" in the pricing of any given food item. He defined store effect as the difference in price for the same size item between small and large stores.

No comparison appears to have been made, however, between the homemakers food expenditures and the cost for their families of the U.S.D.A.'s Thrifty Food Plan, which is the estimated amount of food necessary for a minimally adequate diet.

Kammer and Shawhan (1970) compared similar-sized food stores in low- and high-income areas of Cincinnati, but found no significant differences in the prices charged for a market-basket of 57 items. The authors concluded that prices were the same at similar types of stores regardless of location. However, they did find that prices varied between different types of stores, with convenience stores charging the most.

In a 1968 study conducted in Philadelphia (Goodman, 1968), a sample of residents in an urban redevelopment area were surveyed regarding the food stores in which they shopped. The average cost of a market-basket of food items at those stores was determined. It was found that 92% of the respondents reported doing their principal grocery shopping outside of the area in which they lived. Eighty-one percent shopped at large chain supermarkets as opposed to medium-sized independent stores or small "momand-pop" type stores, even though there were no chain supermarkets located within the study area. Almost half (45%) of the study participants drove to the store where they did most of their grocery shopping, while 55% walked or used public transportation. This appeared to demonstrate a willingness to spend time and/or money to travel some distance for an affordable food source.

The most frequently stated reasons for shopping at a particular store by the respondents in the survey by Goodman (1968) were price (52%) and quality (42%), followed by location (28%). Fifty-one percent stated they believed the large supermarkets had lower prices relative to the other types of stores in the study. Surprisingly, one of the medium-sized independent stores within the study area had the lowest average prices of the twelve stores examined. Three of the four independent stores regularly patronized had lower average prices than the large chain supermarkets. The small neighborhood markets were 10-15% more expensive than the other stores studied. Only two-fifths of the respondents reported using the small stores (all located within the study area) even as a secondary shopping resource. These shoppers used the small stores three or more times a

week, but typically bought less than three types of goods, indicating that use of these types of stores was on an "emergency" or "fill-in" basis.

Studies conducted in other cities have supported these findings. Berry and Solomon (1971) studied choice of store in a low-income, primarily Mexican-American area of Denver. Although there were no supermarkets within walking distance of the center of the area studied, 65% of the respondents made the effort to shop regularly at chain supermarkets located on the edge or outside of the study area. Again, the two most important factors mentioned for choosing a particular store were price (55%) and quality (32%), followed by location (29%). Sixty-four percent of the sample used automobile transportation to get to the store, either their own car or riding with someone else.

Boone and Bonno (1971) found that the consumers most frequently patronizing the small neighborhood markets in a small southern city were those living in extreme poverty. Convenience, friendship, and availability of credit were named as the primary reasons for patronizing these stores. The shoppers in this group also indicated that they realized that they were paying higher prices than if they shopped somewhere else. Shoppers actually paid 6%-12% more than at the lowest priced chain supermarkets or medium-sized independents in the study. Boone and Bonno concluded that low-income households did indeed pay more if they shopped at the small neighborhood stores, but that in many cases people shopped there by choice and not out of necessity.

The higher cost of shopping at convenience stores appears to be supported by Campbell and Desjardins (1987) in their intensive study of the management of food resources by 20 low-income Canadian families. A positive correlation was found between frequency of shopping in convenience stores and weekly per capita food expenditures (r=.421, p=.06), indicating a strong trend toward higher food costs for the family the more often convenience stores were patronized.

However, it appears that the poorest of the poor usually choose not to shop at convenience stores, even though they are the group least likely to own an automobile

(Alexis, Simon, & Smith, 1969). In a study in Rochester, New York, it was found that although only 22.5% of the respondents in the \$0-\$3,000 income bracket owned cars, as opposed to 72.5% of those in the \$3,001-\$5,000 low-income bracket, the choice of store type did not differ significantly between the two groups. Fifty-nine percent of the low-income group as a whole tended to shop at chain stores and 33% did their grocery shopping at independent neighborhood markets. This was significantly different from the middle and high income consumers in the study, where over three-quarters of both these groups did their major food shopping in chain supermarkets ($X^2 = 23.2$, $P \le .01$).

From these studies on choice of food store, it can be seen that urban, low-income consumers do pay more for food if they shop at small, neighborhood markets or convenience stores. However, the majority of shoppers make an effort to access less expensive (or perceived less expensive) large stores, even if they have to go outside their immediate neighborhood to do so. Additionally, these consumers have access to some form of transportation, primarily automobiles, for shopping. If any group uses the expensive, small neighborhood markets as their primary shopping location, it is likely to be the poorest of the poor. They appear to do so not only because of easy access, but because of friendship with the store owner and, in some areas, availability of credit. But even this poorest group will shop at a larger, more economical store if they can.

Size Effect on Food Cost

The particular store a person shops in is not the only reason a consumer might pay more for food items. Pricing also tends to be affected by what Kunreuther (1973) termed the "size effect" or "the differences in price per ounce for various sizes of a particular brand item within any given store" (p. 369). When looking at the size effect on pricing of eight commonly purchased items in 11 large and 11 small stores, he found that with only one exception in the large stores and three exceptions in the small stores, the average price per ounce did indeed decline as the size of the package increased. Savings, if the largest size

was purchased rather than the smallest, ranged from 15% to 50%. Frank, Douglas, and Polli (1967) found that household income and education of the household head were negatively correlated with purchasing small sizes of items, as were brand loyalty and total amount of the item purchased over time. Average price paid per unit and the number of adults in the household tended to be positively correlated with purchasing smaller sizes.

Kunreuther measured size effect in a survey of middle-income and low-income consumers in New Haven, Connecticut, by using a ratio of actual size purchased¹ to the number of sizes thought to be available by the particular shopper. The low-income respondents had the lowest ratio for seven of the eight items studied. This indicated that even though the low-income shoppers were aware that there was a variety of sizes to choose from, they tended to purchase the smaller sizes. Seventy-two percent of the low-income homemakers indicated that they knew large size packages usually cost less per ounce. However, low-income consumers, when considering which size of an item to purchase, must make several decisions. They must decide how much of their food budget they can spend for a particular item, how much storage space they have available, household consumption rates, and even if they are able to get larger sizes home if they did not come to the store by car. Over half of the low-income shoppers (59% vs. 13% of the middle-income shoppers) felt they had inadequate storage space, and 42% walked to their principal grocery store.

Other interesting findings in this study included that, although the size of the low-income families was an average of 1.2 persons larger than the middle-income families, the low-income households averaged less spent per week on groceries than the middle-income households (\$36.60 vs. \$39.40). Also, more than 60% of the total low-income population shopped at small local grocers.

Although the scope of this study was limited, it demonstrated a tendency for low-

^{1 &}quot;1" equaling the smallest size available to m equaling the largest size available

income families to purchase small sizes of food items, even though they were aware that this was more expensive than buying the larger sizes when they were available. These consumers, when compared to middle-income consumers, appeared to be influenced by smaller food budgets, less available storage space, and lack of automobile transportation.

Brand Preference

Another factor affecting the actual food purchasing decision is brand preference. National brands generally cost more than private store brands or generic items. Coe (1971), using a list of 25 commonly purchased grocery items, studied and compared the brand preferences and loyalties of middle- and low-income consumers. Eighty-nine percent of the low-income group indicated that their regular purchases from this group of foods were of national brand items, as opposed to 58% of the purchases of the middle-income group. There were eight items that, if someone from the low-income group purchased them, they only purchased a national brand.

Through anecdotal comments of the respondents it was found that the low-income shoppers were generally aware that the national brands were more expensive. A known brand name and higher price were equated with quality by this group. These consumers felt "protected" by the fact that the national producers were willing to keep their products in the public eye through extensive advertising. The middle-income consumers, on the other hand, felt that the higher prices on the national brands were due to the cost of the advertising and that unknown store brands were not only less expensive, but were just as "safe". This group felt protected by consumer protections laws and regulations.

In contrast, Sanjur and colleagues (1979), when studying food expenditures and consumption of 576 urban and rural low-income EFNEP families in New York state, found that the homemakers in the study listed price most frequently (44%) as the factor influencing food purchasing decision, not brand preference (29%). These two reasons were followed by amount of the product needed for the week (19%), food quality (17%),

sale items (16%), and amount of spendable money (8%). When the researchers examined in more detail the influence of brand preference on the purchase decision, only when purchasing fish or grain products were the homemakers more likely to purchase national brands than store brands (level of significance not given).

Food Shopping Frequency

Frequency of shopping has been hypothesized to have an effect on family food expenditures. The twenty families in the Campbell and Desjardins study (1987) shopped for food on an average of six days during the two weeks examined. The researchers found no difference in cost per capita or cost per meal between those families that bought most of their food in one or two large shopping trips and those that made many small trips. It was pointed out that transporting the groceries home can be a major barrier to engaging in large shopping trips. Only one family in their small sample population had a car. The most prevalent means of getting to the store was walking.

Families who shop more often might not be spending any more money than infrequent shoppers because they do not have more money to spend. But are frequent and infrequent shoppers getting the same "value" for their food dollars? Block and Kellerman (1977), after studying the food purchasing and consumption practices of 289 low-income, rural households in Missouri, developed a measure of "food shopping efficiency" (the Daily Recommended Food Servings Efficiency or DRSE), which evaluated "how well the households met their nutritional needs given their limited financial resources" (p. 257). This measure took into account how well the household met the consumption standards of the recommended servings from the basic four food groups (USDA, 1958), as well as the amount of money spent on food. Using multiple regression, with the DRSE as the dependent variable, the researchers found that shopping less than once a week had a significant, positive relationship with greater shopping efficiency (p<.05). They hypothesized that this might have been due to one or more factors, such as more careful

planning, less impulse buying, taking advantage of economy-of-size savings by purchasing larger sizes, more home production, or the purchase of fewer perishable items.

The research presented above on the management of domestic food resources demonstrates that low-income consumers are able to shop efficiently for what they ordinarily buy and that they make an effort to access low cost food sources. The poorest consumers appear to be those most likely to shop at local markets and convenience stores, but they tend to do so out of choice, not necessity. Low-income consumers as a group, however, are more likely than higher income consumers to purchase smaller size packages and national brands. Both these practices have the effect of increasing food costs.

Shopping less than once per week, although it does not affect total amount of food dollars spent for food, appears to be an important factor in the household getting the most nutrition for available food dollars.

Social Welfare Resource Management

Participation by a low-income household in one or more government assistance programs for which members of the household are eligible can be viewed as a positive step toward increasing the household's disposable income. This increase in income can be accomplished either through an actual cash transfer to the household, as with Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC or ADC), or by freeing up household monies by providing in-kind benefits which cover some of the basic needs of the household. Food stamps (FS) and the Women, Infants and Children Supplemental Food Program (WIC) are major food-related, in-kind benefit programs. Other programs which directly benefit the children in the household--such as free or reduced price school lunch, Headstart meals, and the summer school feeding program--reduce the direct demand on home food supplies. Another program, the Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program (EFNEP) is unique in that it does not offer material assistance, but provides low-income homemakers

with the knowledge and skills necessary to better use limited food dollars to give their families the most nutritious, low-cost meals possible.

Multiple Assistance Program Participation

In Michigan, if a family with no other income source received the maximum AFDC and food stamp allotments allowed in 1987, they would still be living at only 82% of the poverty threshold (Shapiro & Greenstein, 1988). If a three person family were living on AFDC alone, their maximum benefit would only have brought them up to 56% of the poverty threshold. Being on AFDC in Michigan does, however, automatically qualify the family for Medicaid benefits.

Multiple assistance program participation among the low-income population appears to be the norm rather than the exception, particularly if food stamps are one of the programs being used by the household. Long (1988) in her analysis of April 1984 panel data from the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP) found that 95% of the households which contained at least one person receiving food stamps (FS households) also were participating in at least one other government assistance program. Sixty-six percent of FS households were participating in four or more assistance programs, a proportion twice that of the study's low-income population as a whole. Long calculated that, for the average FS household, 84% of the poverty gap¹ was closed by the income from in-kind and cash government benefit programs

Long's (1988) results showed that the FS households participating in the largest number of programs had lower incomes before and higher incomes after receiving benefits from the programs than those FS households that used relatively fewer programs. Each additional program a household used increased household income by approximately \$132.00 per month. Over 60% of the FS households that participated in a total of six or more assistance programs (including food stamps) had incomes above poverty after the

^{1 &}quot;The difference between actual pre-transfer cash income and the poverty level." (Weinberg, 1986)

income transfers were received, as opposed to only 43% of the FS households participating in one to three programs. It must be noted, however, that it was the households with disabled or elderly members which were most likely to move out of poverty and not households headed by a single mother or even two-parent households.

Another study of the April 1984 SIPP data set (Weinberg, 1987) examined government assistance program use by "pre-transfer" poor female-headed single parent households in more detail. This researcher found that 86% of these households were receiving at least some government assistance income, 58% of them receiving AFDC. Thirty-one percent were participating in a combination of AFDC, food stamps and Medicaid and another 22% were using these three programs plus at least one other program.

Emmons (1986) studied government and emergency (private) food program participation of a non-random sample of 76 low-income urban families that were on both food stamps and AFDC and had at least one child under age three. Ninety percent of the families were headed by single women. When examining participation by the families in other food and meal programs over the course of a month, she found that 71% participated in at least one other food or meal program, such as WIC, TEFAP (federal surplus commodities), Headstart, school lunch or breakfast, or emergency foods. Twenty-one percent of the families, all of whom were supposedly "caught in the safety net" of government benefit programs, had to use emergency food programs at least once during the month. These sixteen families used emergency foods a total of 36 times. Thirty-three of these occurrences were visits to a food closet and three to soup kitchens. Because of the biases inherent in non-random sample selection, it is not known whether these families were representative of the population as a whole or not.

¹ Households which had yearly incomes at or below the Federal poverty level before the receipt of government assistance

It can be seen from the above studies that multiple program participation is important, especially for those families who rely on government benefits as their main source of income. However, even with the use of multiple programs, a single-parent family is not likely to have an income which brings it up to the official poverty threshold and it might still be at risk for a food crisis in the home due to its low income.

Factors Affecting Program Participation

An individual might not participate in a particular assistance program for which s/he is eligible if the assistance is not needed or is not perceived as being needed. However, there might also be barriers to participation present. Nine hundred and forty-nine households from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID) were found to be eligible for food stamps in 1979 (Coe, 1983). However, 54.6% of these eligible households did not participate in the food stamp program that year. Thirty-eight percent of the eligible, non-participating households thought that they did not meet the eligibility requirements; 13% said they did not need food stamps; 11% had been told they were ineligible; 8% cited stigma as a barrier to participation and another 8% cited administrative hassles. Only 4% of the respondents gave knowing nothing about the eligibility requirements as their reason for non-participation and only 1% felt that the benefits were to low too bother applying for. It was clear from these figures that informational problems, particularly those concerning program eligibility, were a major barrier to program participation.

Further analysis using dummy variable regression found that participation in AFDC or general assistance (GA) was positively associated with participation in the food stamp program ($p \le .01$), as was the number of children in the household under the age of 18 ($p \le .01$). AFDC or GA recipients were 51% more likely to participate in the food stamp program than someone not receiving public assistance income. Thirty-eight percent of the variance was accounted for by the fact that these households were less likely to feel they did not meet some non-financial criteria. Another 13% was accounted for by the fact that

AFDC and GA recipients were less likely to feel there was a stigma attached to food stamp use.

The number of hours worked in a year by the household head ($p \le .05$), the household head's level of education ($p \le .01$), and the monthly household income ($p \le .01$) all had a significant <u>negative</u> impact on food stamp program participation. Those households where the head worked more than 1500 hours a year or where there was other outside income were likely to not participate because they thought the household was ineligible for food stamps. Household heads with the highest levels of education, although possessing more information about program eligibility than their less well-educated counterparts, tended to have negative attitudes toward the program.

Wyers (1977) defined stigma as "loss of face, dignity, self-respect, and/or social acceptance which occurs as a result of exposing a personal blemish or handicap" (p. 956). He made the point that it is not the action per se, i.e. receiving assistance, that is the stigma, but "it is the evaluation of others that produces the stigmatizing effect, the 'spoiled identity'" (p. 958). It is generally believed that the stigma attached to receiving public assistance accounts for a large proportion of non-participation in assistance programs. It might therefore be surprising that perceived stigma in the use of food stamps accounted directly for only 8% of the non-participation in the above study. However, the researchers showed that stigma worked through other variables as well, such as education level of the household head.

Stuart found in his 1975 study of assistance recipients in Hartford, Connecticut, that stigma was significantly related to the particular program in which the individual was participating ($X^2 = 18.80$, p < .025). When asked how distressed they had felt when applying for the program, 67% of the food stamp recipients said they had not been bothered at all, but only 33% of the AFDC recipients said it had not bothered them to apply for that program. Stuart's data showed that the greater stigma attached to the AFDC program might have been due, at least in part, to the respondents' perception of how well

their needs were met by the program and how fairly they felt they had been treated when originally applying. Only 23% of the AFDC recipients felt their needs were well met by that program and only 29% felt that the person taking the applications treated everyone equally. This was in contrast to the food stamp recipients, 67% of whom felt their needs were being met by the program and 77% of whom felt that there was no favoritism shown by workers taking applications. Additionally, Stuart asked participants in the study whether they thought the assistance they were receiving was a right they had as citizens or was charity. Almost two-thirds of both the AFDC and food stamp subjects stated that they felt it was a right to which they were entitled.

When Goodban (1985) asked a sample of 100 African American, single mothers receiving AFDC whether they were ever embarrassed or ashamed about receiving AFDC or food stamps, sixty-one said they were at least sometimes ashamed of being on AFDC. However, only thirty-six replied that shame or embarrassment was a problem with food stamps. Goodban also found that those who were not embarrassed about being on AFDC were also not stigmatized by participation in the food stamp program (r = .60, p = .0001). Several women in the study voluntarily mentioned that they were not embarrassed by using food stamps because they knew that they were fulfilling a "basic need", ie.-food, for both themselves and their children.

Although the studies by Stuart (1975) and Goodban (1985) only examined people who were already participating in the assistance programs, they appear to have uncovered the fact that there are differing levels of stigma attached to participation in the AFDC and food stamp programs. That such a high proportion of the AFDC participants in both studies felt stigmatized by that program is difficult to generalize to the rest of the low-income population. However, it can be hypothesized that the participating mothers might have been in such dire straits that the perceived social and psychological costs of being on welfare were outweighed by the utility of the benefits of participation (Moffitt, 1983). Choosing to participate, however, might not mitigate the non-economic costs. Moffitt also

found that a woman's initial decision to go on AFDC was affected by perceived stigma, but once the woman was on welfare there was no additional stigmatizing effect as a result of her participation.

Household income can be a significant barrier to participation in the AFDC program, even if the family's earned income is still below the federal poverty level. An analysis of the program in Michigan (Shapiro & Greenstein, 1988) demonstrated that if the net income of a family of three was greater than \$593.00/month (78.5% of the poverty threshold) in 1987, the family would not qualify for AFDC. If the family was already on AFDC and the mother started working, when her net income reached or exceeded \$623.00 (82.4% of poverty) or more per month, the family would be removed from the AFDC rolls after four months.

A study of 558 AFDC participants in Hennepin County, Minnesota, who were working when President Reagan's Omnibus Reconciliation Act (OBRA) tightened earnings disregards ¹ drastically for the program, demonstrated that when the families were dropped from the AFDC program because of the mother's earnings, the family was not likely to return to the welfare rolls (Moscovice & Craig, 1984). Of the 357 subjects (64%) who had their grants terminated because of earned income, 303 (84.9%) were still working and off AFDC six months later. Even though they had increased their participation in the work force over this time by increasing the number of hours worked per week and by frequently taking on second jobs, these women still experienced an overall drop in net income of 6%. At the same time, the percentage of net income needed to meet basic needs went from 73% to 85% for this group of working mothers. Additionally, this group was no longer eligible for Medicaid. Despite the serious negative consequences of choosing work over AFDC, only one person out of the twelve who were on AFDC and not working at the end of the study period said that she stopped working so she would not lose her AFDC grant. It

¹ That portion of earned income overlooked in the calculation of program benefits.

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should be noted that the results, although dramatic, were based on transitions occurring over a fairly short period of time.

However, the results of the above study were confirmed by Feaster, Gottschalk, and Jakubson (1986) when they compared the beginning and ending work status of two randomly selected panels of AFDC participants. The data for the first panel were analyzed for a twelve month period prior to the implementation of the OBRA. The OBRA was implemented four months into the year covered by the data from the second panel. Although 84% of the cases in the first panel that started out the year with earned income were still open at the end of the twelve months that the cases were followed, only 54% of similar cases in the second panel were still open at the end of the time they were studied. Therefore, a large number of cases terminated in the second panel due to earned income did not return to AFDC.

One reason women might choose work instead of accepting AFDC, even though the family might be worse off, is the significant effect that personal income has been found to have on the self-efficacy of single mothers (Downey & Moen, 1987). Women who work might feel that they are more in control of their lives than those who do not. Also, the women might perceive that even low-paying jobs carry less stigma than being on AFDC. However, some women might view the significant disadvantages of working, such as lack of health insurance and a potential decrease in an already low household income, as incentive to stay on the AFDC rolls until they can be sure of adequately supporting their families.

Although this section of the literature review on social welfare resource management has concentrated primarily on families whose incomes were at or below poverty level, it must be remembered that families with earned incomes above poverty still qualify for many in-kind, food-related programs¹. Their food and food-buying resources

Above poverty income cut-offs for selected programs: 130% of poverty--food stamps, free school breakfast and lunch; 185% of poverty--WIC, reduced price school lunch, TEFAP.

also would be enhanced by participation in one or more of the programs for which they might be eligible.

Social Support and Help-Seeking Behavior

Low-income households, when asked to whom they would turn for help if they had no money or food, are likely to state that they would turn first to their families for assistance. Forty-seven percent of the respondents in a survey of randomly selected low-income households in Utah said that they considered their families their primary resource under these circumstances (Fairchild & Ernst, 1986). This demonstrated reliance by the low-income respondents on their informal social support network, or that part of their social system consisting of family and friends. The type of support that a person receives from her informal social support network generally falls into two categories:

1) instrumental assistance--eg., money, child-care, food, advice, information; and
2) socioemotional assistance--eg., security, sympathy and understanding, a sense of worth, and companionship (Thoits, 1982). A person's formal social support network consists of those professionals and agencies which a that individual might use for help or support. This component of social support includes doctors, ministers, lawyers, social service agencies, etc.

Structural analysis of the informal support network involves examination of observable aspects of the linkages in the network, including the number of members in the network (size), the interactions among members independent of the central person (density), frequency of contact between the central person and network members, accessibility of network members, and strength of network ties (eg., Thoits, 1982; Tolsdorf, 1976; Vernon & Roberts, 1985; Walker et al, 1977). A qualitative study based on 45 indepth, semi-structured interviews (McLanahan, Wedemeyer, & Adelberg, 1981) found that the informal support networks of single mothers appeared to fall into three basic structures:

1) small, very dense networks based on the woman's family of origin¹; 2) large, extended networks usually involving a number of new female friends (particularly other single mothers) and community support organizations; and 3) dense or extended networks where the principle provider of informal support was a key male.

A dense network is one in which there is a great deal of interaction between the members of the network independent of the central individual (Walker, McBride, & Vachon, 1977). In the McLanahan et al. study, the dense family of origin network was found to supply the woman with a sense of security and personal worth, as well as a great deal of material support in the form of financial assistance and help with domestic responsibilities and job problems. However, family of origin networks also appeared to isolate the woman from intimate relationships outside the network and from community supports. The extended, less dense networks, consisting primarily of new friends, appeared to be characteristic of women who were attempting to increase their independence. These women, however, were more likely to exhibit low self-esteem and be more distressed than women with dense family of origin networks.

Members of a support network can directly affect the help-seeking behavior of an individual in several ways. They can buffer the psychological stress of a negative experience or provide adequate material or informational support, thereby reducing the need for seeking assistance outside the network. At other times they might take on the role of screener and referral agent to professional services. Additionally, a person's informal support network often establishes the values and norms for help-seeking behavior of its members (Gourash, 1978).

A study of two groups of low-income mothers by Birkel and Reppucci (1983) attempted to determine whether persons with dense networks were less likely to engage in help-seeking behavior than those with open networks. The researchers argued that there

Family of origin – a person's original family-ie. parents, brothers and sisters--as opposed to the family into which that person marries.

was likely to be less encouragement and referral from the informal support network to the formal support network if the values of a dense network did not agree with those of the available existing formal support structure. Also, a dense network might not allow information to reach the central person in the network easily or might exert pressure on the individual to adhere to the help-seeking norms and values of the network. An example of this might be when a woman needs clothes for her children which she cannot afford, but her family and relatives have a very negative attitude toward accepting "charity" and discourage her from going to the local Salvation Army for assistance or do not offer information about other sources of help.

In each group examined in the Birkel and Reppucci study, the frequency of contact per month that each mother had with network members was measured, as was the density of her network, the geographical proximity of network members and the degree of overlap of the mother's kin and friendship networks. The first group examined consisted of low-income women at high-risk for child abuse enrolled in a special parenting group. The number of monthly contacts these mothers had with kin was found to be significantly associated with the number of parenting group sessions attended (F[3,27] = 3.23, p < .05). When the group was divided into low-users (≤ 4 sessions attended) and high-users (≥ 6 sessions attended), low-users were younger (t = 2.28, p < .05), had larger kinnetworks (t = 4.84, p < .01), made more monthly contacts with kin (t = 4.29, p < .001), and had denser networks overall (t = 2.86, p < .01) than high users. Thirty-eight percent of the high-users, as opposed to 7% of the low-users, stated that they had no contact at all with any family members.

For the second sample--a group of mothers receiving WIC--use of professional consultation for child-rearing concerns was negatively associated with overall network density (r = -.49, p < .05) and with number of monthly contacts with kin (r = -.42, p < .05). In both groups, dense, family-oriented networks negatively affected the helpand information-seeking activities of the low-income mothers. However, this study did not

determine why this was the case. The researchers did not ascertain whether these activities were influenced by lack of referral, pressure to adhere to network norms, or through sufficient provision of necessary assistance and advice from network members.

McKinlay (1973) studied 83 low-income women in Aberdeen, Scotland, relative to their informal support networks and use of prenatal care services. Women who were classified as underutilizers of the professional services were more likely to live in close proximity to relatives ($X^2 = 8.49$, p < .005) and have more frequent interactions with them ($X^2 = 53.05$, p < .001) than women who regularly used the prenatal care services (utilizers). Utilizers had more frequent interaction with their friends than underutilizers ($X^2 = 12.79$, p < .005); one-third of the underutilizers stated that they had no friends outside of their family of origin. Some women, mostly underutilizers, reported anecdotally that the first person with whom they discussed their pregnancy was their mother, who encouraged them not to seek prenatal care until absolutely necessary because they themselves had not done so. After the birth of their child, when the mothers in the study were asked whom they consulted before having their baby seen by the family doctor, utilizers were more likely than underutilizers to consult no one first ($X^2 = 12.15$, p < .005), possibly indicating greater independence from their support networks.

When investigating informal social support, it is important to include measures which obtain separate information on both the subject's family and on her friends. This is because the relative number of members from each group in the physical structure of the network appears to have direct and indirect influence on the woman's behavior, as demonstrated in the research findings discussed. It is also important to study both family and friends because support from family and support from friends appear to help to mitigate different problems with which single mothers must cope.

Gladow and Ray (1986) found in their study of low-income, rural single mothers in Washington state that both the scale of family support and scale of friend support entered into a stepwise regression model predicting total problems faced by the mothers (friend

support: F = 12.64, p < .001; family support: F = 9.42, p < .01). When the responses to questions concerning specific individual problems were correlated with the responses to the emotional support question from the friend and family support scales, emotional support from friends was negatively correlated with problems related to dating, lack of emotional support, transportation and forming close friendships. Emotional support from family was negatively correlated with problems related to recreation and finances. Overall friend support was also found to be predictive of decreased loneliness (F = 5.19, p < .05). The researchers concluded that support from family and from friends both influence the well-being of a single mother, but in different ways. Gladow and Ray also suggested that the woman who uses both her friends and family for support would probably be better off than the woman who relies on only one of the two groups.

In summation, although a support system can be important in helping a low-income single mother through a crisis, having a dense, family-oriented network might hinder her in seeking needed assistance from outside sources. Having a more loose network, including involvement with friends, appears to provide a woman with more information about outside resources and to exert less pressure on her than does having a dense support network which might apply pressures for adherence to norms and values of the network. A loose, extended network might also be indicative of the single mother who is in the process of increasing her independence from her family. However, the research does not appear to adequately demonstrate the reasons a woman with a dense family-of-origin network might not seek assistance from the formal sector. It might simply be because she is receiving sufficient and appropriate assistance from her family.

Support from family and from friends appears to decrease the number of problems that a low-income, single mother might have to face. However, each group influences different problems. Therefore, women who can rely on both family and friends are likely better off than women who rely more heavily on only one informal support group.

Statement of the Problem

From the literature reviewed it is apparent that single-parent, female-headed families are a significant, vulnerable sub-group of low-income Americans. There are many factors --including income, shopping behaviors, barriers to welfare participation, and social support networks, to name only a few--continually interacting to affect the food security of these women and their children. Therefore, many aspects of the lives of families must be investigated in concert and not in isolation. (See Appendix C for a conceptual model derived from these factors and used in the initial design of the study.)

In order to determine: 1) what, if any, characteristics or behaviors differ between families that do not use the food bank and families that do; 2) what appear to be the most prevalent chronic factors present in a family or household which might lead up to food bank use; and 3) if there are there families who should be turning to the food bank in times of distress who are not doing so, and if not, why not, the following hypotheses were proposed for study.

The Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested using the data collected in this exploratory study.

HO₁: Demographics

Food bank users, non-users and past users will not differ demographically in terms of household or family size, transience, income, age, race, marital status, education or employment status.

HO2: Domestic Resource Management

HO2a: Food bank users, non-users and past users will purchase most of their food at large grocery stores and will shop for food with equal frequency. All groups will be equally likely to report using a shopping list, plan menus before big trips to the grocery store, purchase national brand foods and use a car to access the grocery store.

HO_{2b}. Users, non-users, and past users will have the same number of working major appliances, utilities and amount of food storage space.

HO_{2c}: Food bank non-users, users and past users will have the same total domestic resource management scores.

HO3: Cash Value Available to Purchase Food

HO_{3a}: There will be no difference between any of the groups in the amount of money, including food stamps but not WIC, spent on food in a month.

HO3b: For users, non-users and past users who receive food stamps, the number of weeks food stamps last the household and the amount of money added to the food stamps to purchase groceries will be the same.

HO4: Assistance Program Participation

HO_{4a}: No difference will be found between food bank non-users, users and past users in participation in individual assistance programs or in total assistance program participation.

HO_{4b}: No group will be less informed about particular assistance programs or attach more stigma to assistance program participation than any other group.

HO5: Ingham County Food Bank (ICFB)

HO_{5a}: Non-users will know of the ICFB as often as users and past users.

HO5b: Non-users who know of the food bank, users, and past users will be equally as likely to choose the ICFB as their first avenue of assistance in a food crisis.

HO6: Informal Social Support Network

HO_{6a}: Non-users, users and past users will interact as often with close friends as with family members or relatives.

HO6b: Overall social support network scores will not vary among users, non-users and past users of the ICFB.

HO7: Meal Skipping Due to Lack of Food

The frequency of meal skipping due to lack of food in the home will be the same in non-user, user, and past user families.

CHAPTER III

Methods

Sampling

The criteria for a woman's inclusion as a subject in this study were that: 1) she was a single mother (divorced, separated, or never married); 2) the household in which she was living contained at least one child under age six; and 3) her family's income did not exceed 185% of the federal poverty level. Because it was determined that one means of coping with inadequate income is to live with another adult or family, the woman was not required to be the head of the household in which she resided. A subject's food bank use status was determined by whether she reported using the ICFB never (non-user); at least once within the last year (user); or at one time, but not within the last twelve months (past user) (Q#48B & D). A final sample of 74 subjects--twenty-one non-users, thirty-seven users and sixteen past users--was obtained.

Only eight percent of all the households in Lansing are headed by poor, single mothers with children under the age of six years (US Bureau of the Census, 1983). Additionally, there was no appropriate existing sampling frame available to use with this population, which includes families that have no phone or that are not involved in the social welfare system. Therefore, a non-probability sampling method was used to maximize the likelihood of contacting members of the target population. It was determined that a door-to-door census technique was the only available means of contacting potential subjects who were not a part of the normal socio-economic system.

Three neighborhoods, based on the boundaries of Gier Park, Walnut, and Bingham elementary schools (see Appendix C), were selected for inclusion in the study because of the high proportion of students in those schools from families receiving AFDC (Gier Park-41%, Walnut--43%, Bingham--49%) (personal communication, P. Peterson, March, 1989). Although AFDC is not used exclusively by female-headed, single parent households, the majority of recipients fit that profile. There were a total of 813 female, single heads of families with children under 18 years living in these three neighborhoods (personal communication, Lansing City Planning Department, March, 1989). This was the best census information available at the time the sampling process occurred. Thirty-one percent of these families lived in the Gier Park neighborhood, 31% in the Bingham neighborhood, and 38% resided in the Walnut school neighborhood. Therefore, including a small over-sampling to allow for unusable interviews, it was decided that 36 interviews would be conducted in the Gier Park neighborhood, 36 in the Bingham area, and 43 interviews in the Walnut area. One hundred usable interviews was set as the desired number of interviews for the final sample based on time and resource constraints, the fact that it was an exploratory study, and the minimum number necessary to be able to use discriminant analysis (personal communications, Dr. J Gill and Dr. H. Perlstadt, April, 1989). However, because the study took longer than anticipated, only the Walnut and Bingham neighborhoods were surveyed. A final sample of 74 usable interviews was obtained.

Within the two neighborhoods surveyed, the blocks to be sampled were randomly selected through a draw of street names and block numbers. This allowed a homogeneous sampling of the neighborhood residents and avoided possible concentration on a group of blocks where senior citizens, married couples or some other distinctive population not fitting the study profile had clustered. Blocks were drawn in groups of five and each group was assigned a consecutive letter of the alphabet. Groups A, C, E, etc. were assigned to one principal interviewer and the remaining blocks were assigned the the second principal

interviewer. Each principal interviewer was instructed that she and her partner could sample the blocks within each group in any order, to be able to move logically through the neighborhood, but the group of blocks as a whole had to be sampled before the next group of five blocks.

The interviewers were instructed to knock on every door on both sides of the street on the randomly chosen blocks. If no one was at home, the interviewers proceeded to the very next house on the block. In those households where someone was found at home, at the conclusion of the prescreen in non-eligible or refuser households or the at end of interview in subject households, the interviewers asked whether a single mother lived next door to the person to whom they were speaking. If the respondent said "yes" or did not know, the adjacent house(s) were sampled. If the interviewers were told that a single mother did not live in a particular house, that house was not sampled. Interviewers returned a minimum of three times to contact someone in a house where they had been told a single mother lived before they considered it a non-respondent household. At houses where household headship was unknown, if no one was home at the time of initial contact, no return calls were made unless there was evidence of children in the home. These procedures were used to minimize the amount of time needed to cover the houses on a block, while maximizing the amount of initial information obtained about the households. Large commercial apartment buildings were not sampled due to problems with access. These procedures were followed on each of the randomly chosen blocks until the necessary number of interviews for that neighborhood was completed.

Interviewing Procedures

Two to three days before the survey began, on each group of randomly chosen blocks, one page flyers (see Appendix D) printed on bright gold paper announcing that the survey was occurring were placed in the doors or behind mailboxes of all houses and

apartments to be screened for potential respondents. In addition to brief, rather generic information about the survey itself, the flyer included a phone number for people to call if they had any questions or required more information.

The operations department of the Lansing Police Department was notified when the interviewers began in each neighborhood. This was done not only to let the police patrolling the neighborhoods know what the interviewers were there for, but to provide central operations with information in case the police received phone calls concerning strangers going door-to-door in the area.

The interview staff over the course of the study consisted of the principal investigator and four to six paid interviewers recruited from graduate and senior undergraduate students at Michigan State University. The interviewers received a minimum of ten hours of training and practice in basic interviewing techniques, presentation of the questionnaire, and personal safety. To help assure personal safety, all canvassing and interviewing activities were conducted in pairs during daylight hours.

When the interviewers found someone at home through the sampling procedures described in the previous section, the interviewers introduced themselves and proceeded with a series of pre-screening questions (see Appendix E) to determine if the family (represented by the single mother) or another family in the household was eligible to participate in the survey. If there was no single mother in the household, or if the respondent became ineligible to participate based on one of the pre-screening questions, the interviewers asked the respondent if there were single mothers living on either side of them, thanked the respondent for his/her time, and moved on to the next appropriate house. If the family met the criteria of the study, the woman was asked to participate in a forty minute interview to be conducted in her home. She was told that she would receive a five dollar gift certificate to a local grocery store upon completion of the interview. If the woman wished to participate, but could not do the interview at the time of the initial contact, an appointment was made for the interviewers to return. All respondents were

required to sign an informed consent form before the interview took place (see Appendix F). Approval for the project was received from the University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects after expedited review (see Appendix G).

The Ouestionnaire

A standardized questionnaire was used for all interviews (see Appendix H). It consisted primarily of close-ended questions covering demographics, domestic resource management, social welfare resource management, social support, and selected hunger indicators. All questions were read by the interviewers to the respondents to control for the unknown literacy levels of the subjects.

Some of the questions used were selected, with or without adaptation, from questionnaires used in other studies (Contra Costa County Hunger Task Force, 1987; Fairchild & Ernst, 1986; Interim Study Committee on Hunger and Nutrition in South Carolina, 1986; Mid-Columbia Community Action Council, 1987; Minnesota Food and Education Resource Center, 1985; NHANES III [draft], 1988; Oregon Food Share, 1986; Social Science Research Bureau and Department of Resource Development, 1987). Other questions were developed from recommendations given by experts in the various areas of interest. The third source of material for the questionnaire was the research literature (Anderson, 1988; Block and Kellerman, 1977; Coe, 1971; Goodban, 1985; Goodman, 1968; McKinlay, 1973).

The questionnaire was pre-tested with a group of seven volunteer, low-income mothers after initial editing by the researcher's thesis committee members¹. It was then reedited and presented to the head of the Ingham county EFNEP program and the thesis committee members for further comment. Final editing took place after the pilot study, based on the data and other information obtained.

¹ Three professionals in nutrition, one in sociology and survey research, and the director of the Ingham County Food Bank.

A pilot study consisting twenty interviews was conducted in a neighborhood similar to the neighborhoods chosen for the study. The procedures to be used in the actual survey were followed as closely as possible, to locate any inherent problems and also to determine a reasonable response rate. Sixteen usable surveys were obtained (80% response rate) from the pilot. Data analysis was inconclusive in determining which questions discriminated best between food bank users and non-users. Based on findings from the pilot study, some of the original questions were rewritten for clarification and others were added to the questionnaire.

Data Analysis

All data analysis was performed using a version of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS/PC+ V3.1) (SPSS, Inc., 1989) on an IBM/PC compatible computer. To increase the efficiency of the analysis process, oneway ANOVA was used to screen for interval-level variables where the means were not equal among the three groupsusers, non-users and past users. The ANOVA technique allows the researcher to control the level of alpha when comparing more than one pair of means. However, if the F-value is statistically significant, it does not allow for determination of which pair(s) of means are different. Therefore, for each interval-level variable that achieved significance at $p \le .10$ with ANOVA, the means of each possible pair of groups (users vs. non-users; ex-users vs. non-users; ex-users vs. users) were tested for equality using the Tukey Multiple Comparison method (Tukey MC). This controls for the increased probability of committing a Type I error when conducting multiple comparisons (Glass & Hopkins, 1984). Bonferroni chi-square was used to evaluate the ordinal data, again to control for an increased probability of Type I error with multiple comparisons (Wickens, 1989). For both the Tukey MC and Bonferroni chi-square, a maximum error rate of p ≤.10 was set for each group of comparisons.

Income Calculations

Yearly income for the families in the study was calculated by multiplying their income for the previous month by twelve. Although this method might over-estimate yearly income for some families and under-estimate it for others, it was the only means available to reach at least a rough determination of yearly income. Other income calculations were computed using the following formulas:

- (p. 54) Per capita family income: family's total income in the month before the interview number of persons in the family
- (p. 61) Average yearly per capita income of all families in each group:

average yearly family income of each group
average family size of group

(p.61) To convert 1985 dollars to 1989 dollars, the 1985 dollar figure was multiplied by the ratio of the 1989 CPI to the 1985 CPI, i.e, \$10,398.00 x 124 107.6

Index Scores

Index scores can sometimes be used to examine a larger underlying concept which is difficult or impossible to quantify using only one or two variables. Combining the results of several observed variables, each of which obtains information on a different aspect of the concept, allows the investigator to better view the "total picture". In this case, the "total picture" is the overall ability of the family to manage food resources in the home (domestic resource management or DRM index) and the overall informal social support network of the single mother (SSN index). These composite indices can also increase the efficiency of the data analysis when the index scores are treated as individual variables in analyses in place of the individual variables which comprise the index.

In the analysis of this study, an attempt was made to construct a DRM index from questions #2, 2A, 3, 6, 7, 10-11, 31, and 32 (see Table 3.1) and an SSN index from questions #39-43 (see Table 3.2). Before any difference in mean scores could be tested for either of these indices, the validity of the indices had to be examined (Carmines & Zeller,

1979). After a search of the relevant literature and examination by experts, it was presumed that each of the included questions was valid on its face in contributing to a description of the named underlying concepts (Allen & Yen, 1979, p. 96), ie. domestic resource management and the informal social support network.

In the next step of index creation, the appropriate correlations were run between the variables in each of the above designated indices to examine all possible bivariate relationships between the items (Babbie, 1989). The correlation matrix for the DRM index is presented in Table 3.3. The matrix for the SSN index is laid out in Table 3.4. Items thought to measure varying aspects of the same underlying concept should exhibit at least moderate correlations (Crocker & Algina, 1986, p. 223). Those questions which consistently correlated $r \le .20$ with the other items in the index should be dropped from further consideration. When two items correlated $r \ge .80$, one of the items should be selected to remain in the index and the other dropped, because they both apparently measured the same dimension of the underlying concept.

Because the responses to the various questions to be used in the indices were scored in several different metrics--there were nominal, ordinal, dichotomous, and interval measures--factor analysis could not be used to examine the cohesiveness of the hypothesized group relationships. Factor analysis requires interval data or at least ordinal data where there is a strong belief that the numbers assigned to the answer categories reflect the true distance between the categories (Kim & Mueller, 1978, 73-74).

The correlations between the variables included in the DRM index were weak at best (see Table 3.3). The one exception was the correlation between total number of times shopping (SHOP###) and number of times shopping at the convenience store (TIMESQD) (r = .79), a relationship which exhibits a high degree of multicollinearity. Overall shopping frequency and number of times the household shopped at Quality Dairy were also the only variables included in the DRM index which discriminated between food bank use categories. Given the weak bivariate relationships between variables and the lack of

discriminating power of the individual variables, it was felt that nothing would be gained by further attempts to combine the variables into a single DRM index score. Additionally, it was found that with response categories of the variables in differing metrics, it was difficult to determine how to weight the answers to the individual variables in relation to the other variables to be used in the final index. This particular problem was also an obstacle in the creation of the SSN index.

When the correlation matrix for the social support network variables was examined (Table 3.4), it could be seen that the correlations between the family network variables were quite good, the correlations between the friend network variables were not quite as strong, and the correlations between the family and friend network variables were relatively weak and scattered. It appeared that these family and friend network variables were not measuring aspects of the same overall underlying concept.

When the next step in the index derivation was undertaken, a friend variable--FNDFIFTN--was removed from further consideration because of its strong correlation with CLOSEFND. It was decided to remove a second friend variable--FNDSMEET--from consideration because only a small subgroup, those women who had more than one friend and whose friends knew each other, were asked that question. As more friend variables were removed, the family variables potentially gained more weight in the final score simply because of the larger number of family variables which would remain in the index.

Additionally, the only variables which discriminated significantly among any of the groups were three family variables: FAMFUN, GLADHELP, and FAMFIFTN. Given the above findings, it did not seem feasible or practical to combine the SSN variables into an overall SSN index.

Within the SSN variables there appeared to be a strong family network component and possibly a friend network component, which were evaluated as separate sub-indices.

First, frequency of interactions with close friends and with family members (SUPPFND and SUPPFAM) were calculated for each subject by summing the points of each chosen response

category in the respective family and friend matrices (Q#35 & 38) after recoding so the points ranged from 0=never to 5=everyday. A maximum of 30 points was possible. SUPPFND and SUPPFAM were then analyzed as individual and distinct continuous variables. The family network score (FAMNET) for each subject was then the sum of SUPPFAM, CALLFAM, GLADHELP, FAMCLOSE and FAMFIFTN. The friend network score (FNDNET) was the sum of SUPPFND, CLOSEFND and FNDSKNOW.

To more equally weight all questions used to create FAMNET and FNDNET, further recoding was done so that all values assigned to response choices were within the range of 0 to 4. Interval variables were divided as closely as possible into quintiles based on frequency of responses by the entire sample. The response categories of "Never" and "Less than once a month" in the matrices (Q#35 and 38) were combined to reduce the number of answer categories to five. The dichotomous variables were assigned a value of 0 for the least desirable response choice and 4 for the most desirable. With the variable CALLFAM, the response choices were assigned the values of -4, -2, 0, 2, and 4. A maximum of 40 points was possible for FAMNET and a maximum of 32 points was possible for FNDNET.

Table 3.1. Questions considered for inclusion in the domestic resource management index.

- Q#2. (TIMESOD) Thinking about all the times someone has gone to the store to buy food for your household in the last 4 weeks or month, how many times would you say someone went to buy food at Quality Dairy, the Magic Market, or the 7-11?
- Q#2A.(BIGSTORE) In the last month, out of all the times someone went to the store to buy food for the household, how many times would you say someone went to Shoprite, Krogers, or Meijers?
 - [SHOP### is the sum of the above two questions plus Q#2C concerning frequency of shopping at any other stores.]
- Q#3. (STORMOST) At which store did your household buy most of its food in the last 4 weeks?
- Q#6. (SHPLST) How often do you use a shopping list when grocery shopping? Would you say you never, almost never, sometimes, frequently, almost always, or always use a shopping list?
- Q#7. (MENUPLAN) How often does someone in your household plan menus before big trips to the grocery store are made? Would you say that menus are never, almost never, sometimes, frequently, almost always, or always planned?
- Q#10. (PKGSIZE) When food items come in different size packages, do you usually buy the small, medium, or large size?
- Q#11. (SHAREFD) Do you and your neighbors or friends ever share or trade food to help each other out when you don't have enough food in the house and can't afford to buy more?
- Q#31. (APPSCORE) Let's take a look now at some of the things you have to work with in your home. Which of the following working appliances do you have in your home right now? Do you have a working refrigerator? oven? freezer? microwave? stove or range?
- Q#32. (NUFSTORG) Which of the following things do you have in your home right now? Enough room to store food? running water? hot water? electricity? a kitchen sink drain that works?

Table 3.2. Questions considered for inclusion in the social support network index.

Q#34. (CLOSEFND) Thinking about all your friends first, how many of them would you consider close friends?

Q#34A. (ENDFIFTN) How many of your close friends live within fifteen minutes of you, either driving or walking?

Q#35. With your close friends, how many times a week or month do you:

		Never	Less than once a month	1 to 3 times a month	About once a week	Several times a week	Every day	Don't recall or NA
Get or give help	(FNDHELP)	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Get or give support	(FNDSUPP)	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Discuss problems	(FNDPROB)	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Exchange advice	(FNDADV)	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Get together i	for fun (FNDFUN)	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Talk on the phone	(FNDPHONE)	1	2	3	4	5	6	0

(SUPPFND is the sum of the chosen responses in the above matrix, after recoding so the responses run from 0=never to 5=everyday.)

Q#36. (FNDSKNOW) Do your close friends know each other?

Q#36A. (FNDSMEET) How often would you say any of your close friends get together when you can't make it? Would you say they get together often, sometimes, hardly ever or never?

Q#37. (FNDFAM) Are any of your close friends also good friends with any other members of your family, other than your children?

Table 3.2 (con't)

Q#38. Think about your family and relatives now. With family members or relatives, how many times a week or a month do you:...

		Never	Less than once a month	1 to 3 times a month	About once a week	Several times a week	Every day	Don't recall or NA
Get or give help	(FAMHELP)	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Get or give support	(FAMSUPP)	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Discuss problems	(FAMPROB)	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Exchange advice	(FAMADV)	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Get together: or relaxation	for fun (<u>FAMFUN</u>)	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Talk on the phone (FAMPHONE)	1	2	3	4	5	6	0

(SUPPFAM is the sum of the chosen responses in the above matrix, after recoding so the responses run from 0-never to 5-everyday.)

- Q#39. (CALLFAM) Tell me whether you strongly disagree, disagree, agree or strongly agree with the following statement: I know I can call on members of my family for help or support whenever I need to.
- Q#40. (GLADHELP) How many different family members or relatives would gladly give you help or support if you asked?
- Q#41. (CLOSEFAM) Would you consider your family a close family or not so close?
- Q#42. (FAMFIFTN) How many of your family and relatives, other than those who live with you, live within fifteen minutes of you, either driving or walking?

Table 3.3. Correlation matrix of domestic resource management variables.a

	SHOP###	TIMESQD	BIGSTORE	SHOP### TIMESQD BIGSTORE STORMOST	SHPLST	SHPLST MENUPLAN PKGSIZE	PKGSIZE	SHAREFD	APPSCORE UTILSCORE NUFSTORG	TILSCORE	UFSTORG
SHOP###	1.0000										
TIMESQD	.7862b	1.000									
BIGSTORE	.3970b	2294b	1.0000								
STORMOST	1575	2893c	.1775	1.0000							
SHPLST	.0717	0643c	.1462	p0Z60.	1.0000						
MENUPLAN	.1536	.0746	.1803	4731d	.3702	1.0000					
PKGSIZE	.1284	2137	0406	3308d	.0267	0990	1.0000				
SHAREFD	.1278c	.1705c	0510c	.0103	b£730	.1345d	.0462d	1.0000			
APPSCORE	1207b	2057 ^b	.1660b	.2269c	0383	1285	0997	.1067	1.0000		
UTILSCORE	2965 ^b	2418 ^b	0013b	.1758c	1187	2004	0702	1944c	.2368b	1.0000	
NUFSTORG	0795c	1710c	2849 ^c	.1090e	p6500	.1808d	.1678d	.0079e	.0064c	.0184c	1.0000

a Correlations are Spearman rank order correlations unless otherwise noted

b Pearson's product moment correlation

c Point biserial correlation d Rank biserial correlation when bracket tie present (Cureton, 1968)

e Phi coefficient **Dumber** fits the selection criteria of $2 \le r \ge .8$

Table 3.4. Correlation matrix of social support variables.a

	CLOSEFND	CLOSEFND FNDFIFTN FNDHELP	FNDHELP F	FNDSUPP	FNDPROB	FNDADV	FNDFUN	FNDPHONE	FNDPHONE FNDSKNOW FNDSMEET	PNDSMEET	FNDFAM
CLOSEFND	1.0000										
FNDFIFTN	.8436 ^b	1.000									
FNDHELP	2269	2596	1.0000								
FNDSUPP	.1231	.1506	4305	1.0000							
FNDPROB	.0747	0060	3140	5586	1.0000						
FNDADV	.0931	.0341	4039	1005	6694	1.0000					
FNDFUN	.1247	.0508	.0504	.1972	.1678	2570	1.0000				
FNDPHONE	0133	0005	.1948	.1660	2499	2852	0467	1.0000			
FNDSKNOW	.2465c	.11470	3862c	3255c	.0330d	.1039e	4049c	.0274e	1.0000		
FNDSMEET	.0602	4709	.1441	3032	.1642	0194	2896	.1502	€	1.0000	
FNDFAM	1068c	-:0963c	.0082e	.0794e	.2479e	2075e	p/£60°	.1837d	.1428e	.2689c	1.0000

^a Correlations are Spearman rank order correlations unless otherwise noted b Pearson's product moment correlation

c Point biserial correlation d Rank biserial correlation e Rank biserial correlation when bracket tie present (Cureton, 1968)

f Phi coefficient (*) Correlation coefficient cannot be computed number fits the selection criteria of $2 \le r \ge .8$

Table 3.4 a (con't)

	CLOSEFND	FNDFIFTN	FNDHELP	FNDSUPP	FNDPROB	FNDADV	FNDFUN	FNDPHONE	FNDSKNOW	FNDSMEET	FNDFAM
FAMHELP	-2125	1360	.0709	.0943	.1810	.1163	.1277	12521	.2964e	2057	.0920e
FAMSUPP	0801	0745	.1264	.1608	.1839	.0917	1536	.1410	3042c	.0736	.2523c
FAMPROB	0187	0745	.0484	.1929	.1884	2195	766 0.	.1545	.0269 c	0586	.1843e
FAMADV	.0210	0301	.0354	.1460	.1545	.2181	.0116	2265	.1683e	1672	2930
FAMFUN	0100	.0448	.0249	0103	.0266	2523	.2159	.0607	2221e	1562	3914e
FAMPHONE	1452	1131	2086	.1293	.1493	2272	0195	1273.	.0144e	.0636	.0882e
CALLFAM	.1137	.0711	.0337	1261	.1382	9700.	0479	.0575	.1763d	0600	.0255e
GLADHELP	.0332b	.1215b	2726	0227	1128	0899	1151	0875	.0180	-3100	2323°
FAMCLOSE	1046 ^c	039 6 c	.1954e	.0716d	.1042e	.1098e	.0835e	.0529e	.0413f	.4200c	£101.
FAMFIFTN	.1714b	.1502 b	.1533	.0034	0836	<i>LL</i> 20.	0112	.2750	.2974°	.1427	.0736

a Correlations are Spearman rank order correlations unless otherwise noted b Pearson's product moment correlation
c Point biserial correlation
d Rank biserial correlation
e Rank biserial correlation when bracket tie present (Cureton, 1968)
f Phi coefficient
number fits the selection criteria of .2 ≤ r ≥.8

Table 3.4 a (con't)

z										
PAMFIFT										1.0000
FAMCLOSE									1.0000	.0986 c
GLADHELP								1.0000	4737c	.0902
CALLFAM							1.0000	.4420	.5878c	.1364
FAMPHONE CALLFAM GLADHELP FAMCLOSE FAMFIFTIN						1.0000	.1330	.1328	2827e	3069
FAMFUN					1.0000	2658	4176	3491	.5276°	.1235
FAMADV				1.0000	£138	4054	3140	.1812	4999°	.1158
FAMPROB			1.0000	7141	1195"	.4622	3053	.1946	.5430c	.2469
FAMHELP FAMSUPP		1.0000	7203	7238	4955	3944	3948	2856	.5466 ^e	.0738
FAMHELP	1.0000	6554	.5210	.5872	.5232	4490	3712	2306	4391c	.1031
	FAMHELP	FAMSUPP	FAMPROB	FAMADV	FAMFUN	FAMPHONE	CALLFAM	GLADHELP	FAMCLOSE	FAMFIFTN

a Correlations are Spearman rank order correlations unless otherwise noted b Pearson's product moment correlation c Point biserial correlation d Rank biserial correlation e Rank biserial correlation e Rank biserial correlation when bracket tie present (Cureton, 1968)

f Phi coefficient
(*) Correlation coefficient camot be computed
number fits the selection criteria of 2 ≤ r ≥.8

CHAPTER 4

Results and Discussion

The results of the data analyses are reported and discussed in this chapter. They are presented according to the seven hypotheses of the study. The discussion immediately follows the results of each hypothesis. In addition to the quantitative questions asked, the subjects were also asked to respond to several open-ended questions which required a more lengthy, qualitative response. In other instances, the mothers voluntarily expanded on the answers given to the quantitative questions. This qualitative data aids in illustrating and providing more depth to the results derived from the quantitative questions and is presented immediately following each discussion in the sub-sections entitled "Qualitative Data".

Division of the sample into food bank non-users, users and past users

The majority of the following analyses are based on comparisons between the three food bank user groups. Of the seventy-four subjects, thirty-seven (50%) of the respondents stated that they had used the ICFB at least once within the last year. Twenty-one (28%) of the respondents had never used the ICFB; sixteen (22%) had used the ICFB some time in the past, but not within the last twelve months before the interview.

Of the users, 27 (73%) had used it at least once within the last six months before the interview. Thirteen of the users (35%) had received food from the ICFB three or more times in the last year and six (16%) had received food five or more times.

HO1: Demographics

Food bank users, non-users and past users will not differ demographically in terms of household or family size, transience, income, age, race, marital status, education or employment status.

Demographics of the households and families

Results: The majority of households in which the respondents were living were headed by the women themselves (90% non-users; 84% users; 94% past users) (Q#56). Households on average consisted of only a family made up of the respondent and two children, but over 35% of the households contained at least one non-family member (Q#74) (see Table 4.1). Eighteen of the mothers (24%) had a male companion or fiance' living with them at the time of the interview (Q#74A). The only households containing more than one non-family member were three in which a food bank user lived.

Households which included a single mother who was a food bank user were larger than those with a non-user (Q#1) (Tukey Multiple Comparisons, q = 3.589, $p \le .05$).

Table 4.1. Average composition of respondents' households.

variable	n	mean±s.d.	range
household			
size	74	3.5±1.4	2 - 7
no. of children	74	2.0±1.2	1 – 6
no. of non-family members	27a	1.3±0.7	1 – 3
family			
size	73	3.1±1.3	2 – 7
income, month before interview (\$) b,c	70	538±222	0 – 1367
per capita income (\$) b,c	70	189 ± 74	0 - 450

a 36.5% of the whole sample

b Dollar amount rounded to nearest whole dollar

^c Does not include food stamps

This was because these households tended to include one more child (Q#16) (Tukey MC, q = 3.505, $p \le .05$) (see Table 4.2) and not because they were more likely to include a non-family member. It follows logically then that families of food bank users were larger than those of non-users (Tukey MC, q = 3.263, $p \le .10$). The difference in family size between non- and past users approached significance with q = 2.93 (critical value, q = 2.96).

None of the groups tended to be more transient than the others, as indicated by the average number of times the families moved in the year before the interview (Q#72) (Table 4.2). However, most of the families had moved at least once in that time period. The number of times families had moved in the last year ranged from zero to ten.

Mean income for all families in the month before the interview (not including the value of food stamps) was \$533.00 (Q#58), with an average per capita family income in that month of \$189.00 (Table 4.1). AFDC was the principal source of income for 85% of

Table 4.2. Demographics of households and families by food bank use status of the single mother.

variable	non-users (n=21)	users (n=37)	past users (n=16)
household			
size	2.9±1.2 a	3.9±1.5×**	3.6±1.4
no. of children	1.5±0.8	2.3±1.4x**	2.1±1.0
contain unrelated member(s) (%)	33.3 (7)b	40.5 (15)	31.2 (5)
family			
size	2.5±0.8	3.3±1.4×*	3.4±1.2
times moved in last year	1.4±1.8	1.4±1.8	1.2±2.4
income, month before interview (\$) c	518±244	516±195	598±238
monthly per capita income, (\$) c	205±63	174±76	203±80

^a Mean ± standard deviation

b Number of subjects represented by the percentage

^C Dollar amount rounded to nearest whole dollar, does not include food stamps

x non-users vs. users

^{*} p ≤ .10, Tukey MC

^{**} p ≤ .05, Tukey MC

families (Q#59, 59A) (see Table 4.3). Fifteen percent of the families had at least some income from salaries in that last month; only 19% had received any child support. The majority of respondents (66.7% non-users, 78.3% users, 68.8% past users) reported that their family's income was the same or higher than it had been twelve months before (Q#57). There were no statistically significant differences among any of the three groups on the above income variables.

Table 4.3. Sources and average amount of families' incomes in the month before the interview.

income source	n	mean+s.d.	range
AFDC	58 a	483±124 b	206 – 900
child support	14	42±10	25 – 50
salary	11	432±400	40 – 1200
selling blood or plasma	6	42±30	17 – 100
SSI	3	255±144	105 – 393
unemployment	2	282±37	256 – 308
social security	1	60	60
other ^c	23	100±108	10 – 360

^a Although 62 families were receiving AFDC at the time of the interview, one had not received it the month before. Complete AFDC income information was not available on the other three families

Demographics of the single mothers

Results: The average age of the women interviewed for the study was 25.5 years, with a range of 17 to 42 years (Q#64). Over half of the respondents were white, 30% African American, 11% Hispanic, and 4% native American (Q#76). The majority (65%) of the subjects had never married, 23% were separated and 12% were divorced

b Dollar amounts rounded to nearest whole dollar

Cother sources of income included, but were not restricted to: unreported earnings, funds borrowed for a security deposit on a house or an abortion, money taken out of savings, income from a garage sale, small amounts of cash borrowed for non-specified purposes.

(Q#70) (see Table 4.4). The average length of time a woman had been separated or divorced was three and a half years (Q#70A). The respondents had lived in Lansing an average of sixteen years, with only two women having lived in the city less than a year and two others having lived there less than two years (Q#71). Thirty-nine percent of the women had lived in Lansing all their lives.

Age or race did not differ significantly among users, non-users and past users (Table 4.4). In terms of marital status, only one out of thirty-seven users and two out of sixteen non-users were divorced. In contrast, almost one-third of past users were divorced. Past users, in fact, were far more likely to be divorced than users (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 2, $X^2 = 9.178$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .05$). Over three-quarters of the non-users, two-thirds of the users and less than half of the past users had never married.

The average mother in the study had completed only 11 years of formal education (Q#67), but had eventually obtained her diploma or equivalent General Education Development degree (GED) (Q#67A) (see Table 4.5). One mother had dropped out of school after the seventh grade and another had completed a bachelor's degree. Eighteen percent of the women were in adult education, high school or college at the time of the interview (Q#67B). Only nine women were not in school and did not plan to return to school (Q#68A). However, all nine had finished high school and two had two years of post-high school education.

The fact that non-users were more likely to have obtained their high school diploma or GED as compared to users approached statistical significance at $X^2 = 4.314$ (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 1, $p_{\Sigma} \le .10$, critical value = 4.53). The opposite is true, however, when examining non-users' and users' intentions to return to school. Ninety-four percent of the food bank users who were not already in school had at least tentative plans to return to school versus 71% of the non-users who were not currently attending classes (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 1, $X^2 = 7.501$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .05$) (Table 4.5). This might be expected, since more users still needed to finish high school. Past users were more likely than users to currently

Table 4.4. Age, race, and marital status of low-income single mothers by food bank use status.

variable	all	non-users	users	past users
	(n=74)	(n=21)	(n=37)	(n=16)
mean age (years)	25.4±5.5 a	23.6±5.6	25.8±5.3	27.1±5.6
race or ethnicity (%)				
white, non-Hispanic	55.4	66.7	48.6	56.3
	(41) b	(14)	(18)	(9)
African-American	29.7	14.3	40.5	25.0
	(22)	(3)	(15)	(4)
Hispanic	10.8	19.0	5.4	12.5
	(8)	(4)	(2)	(2)
native American	4.1 (3)	(O)	5.4 (2)	6.3 (1)
marital status (%) z†				
divorced	12.2	14.3	2.7	31.2
	(9)	(3)	(1)	(5)
separated	23.0	9.5	29.7	25.0
	(17)	(2)	(11)	(4)
never married	64.9	76.2	67.6	43.8
	(48)	(16)	(25)	(7)

^a Mean ± standard deviation

b Number of subjects represented by the percentage

^z users vs. past users † $X^2 = 9.178$, df = 2, $p_{\Sigma} \le .05$, Bonferroni-chi square

Table 4.5. Education status of low-income single mothers by food bank use status.

variable	a ll	non-users	users	past users
	(n=74)	(n=21)	(n=37)	(n=16)
mean years in school	11.6±1.4 ^a	11.8±0.9	11.3±1.6	11.9±1.7
high school diploma/GED (%)	71.6	85.7	59.5	81.3
	(53) b	(18)	(22)	(13)
currently in school (%)	17.6	19.0	8.1	37.5†
	(13)	(4)	(3)	(6)
plan to return to school (%) ^c	85.2	70.6	94.1‡	80.0
	(52)	(12)	(32)	(8)

^a Mean ± standard deviation

be in school (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 1, $X^2 = 6.845$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .05$). Future schooling plans of the respondents ranged from "taking a few classes" at the local community college or earning a GED to training as a corrections officer or attending medical or dental school (Q#68A).

Of the non-users, three worked full-time and two part-time; one food bank user worked full-time and four had part-time jobs; two past users worked full-time (Q#69, 69A). Those unemployed respondents who indicated they were actively looking for work had been seeking employment for an average of nineteen weeks, with a range of a few days to two years. Sixty percent of the unemployed food bank users, 71% of the unemployed non-users, and 56% of the unemployed past users were not actively looking for work (Q#69B) (see Figure 4.1).

It was interesting to note that two women who were doing some babysitting in their homes on a regular, daily basis still considered themselves unemployed. There were no significant differences in employment between any of the groups.

b Number of subjects represented by the percentage

^C This variable only includes those women who were not currently in school.

Therefore, the n's were: all = 61 non-users = 17 users = 34 past users = 10

[†] past users vs. users; $X^2 = 7.501$, df = 1, $p_{\Sigma} \le .05$, Bonferroni chi-square

[‡] users vs. non-users: $X^2 = 6.845$, df = 2, $p_{\Sigma} \le .05$, Bonferroni chi-square

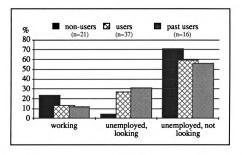


Figure 4.1. Employment status of low-income single mothers as a percentage of each food bank use category.

Based on the above results, the null hypothesis HO₁ concerning the demographics of the sample population must be retained in part and rejected in part. Users differed from non-users on household and family size and on intention to return to school. Past users were more likely to be divorced and more likely to currently be in school than users. The groups did not differ in terms of transience, income, age, race or employment status.

Discussion: The average food bank user household in the Dahl (1986) study was composed of one adult and two children, which is consistent with the reported structure of the average AFDC household in Michigan¹ and with the findings of Emmons (1986) in a low-income population in Cleveland. In the sample studied here, although family size of the food bank users fits the AFDC and Dahl profiles, actual household size averages one person more. This discrepancy might be a reflection of the fact that when seeking assistance, these women tend to not report the presence of the other person—often a male companion—in the the household, for fear of losing benefits. Most of the women did

Derived from Michigan Department of Social Services "Monthly Assistance Payments Statistics" (publication no. 67) for 1989.

not appear to try to hide the presence of the other household occupant from the interviewers. This is a testament to the atmosphere of confidentiality which the interviewers were able to establish. A second reason that household size on the food bank records and actual household size might differ is that a social security number is requested by the ICFB for each adult in the household. If the woman does not have the information available for the other adult, she will then frequently request food for only herself and her children. Perhaps she decides that food for three is better than no food at all (M. Kieselbach, personal communication, May 15, 1990). It is to the detriment of these food bank user households to not receive food for this extra person because an emergency food package for three people will actually have to feed four.

With a mean family income, excluding food stamps, of \$538.00 per month, the average family in the study was at 64% of the 1989 federal poverty level for a family of three (see Table 4.6). The average AFDC grant for the sample was \$483.00. When considering income of this population, however, food stamps should be included. The women were not asked directly what their actual monthly food stamp allotment was. Assuming that the typical family did not have food stamps left at the end of the month, the average amount reported spent per month on groceries by the families which bought 97-100% of their groceries with food stamps (n=37) was \$147.78. This was very close to the \$148.59 average food stamp allotment for AFDC families in Michigan in fiscal year (FY) 1989 and is 63% of the 1989 maximum food stamp allotment for a family of three (see Table 4.7). On this basis, if \$147.78 is accepted as a good approximation of the actual average food stamp allotment for these families and this amount is added to their other income, average family income in the study is raised to \$682.00 per month. This puts the family at 81% of the poverty line. Using 1987 data, Shapiro and Greenstein (1988) found that the average AFDC and food stamp allotments in Michigan brought a single parent family up to 82% of poverty. The sample in this study appears to mirror those findings, but it must be remembered that some of the incomes incorporated into the average include

Table 4.6. 1989 Federal poverty income guidelines by family size.

size of family	poverty guideline (yearly income,\$)	poverty guideline (monthly income, \$)ª	185% of poverty guideline (monthly income, \$)%
2	8,020	668	1,236
3	10,060	838	1,550
4	12,100	1,008	1,865
5	14,140	1,178	2,179
6	16,180	1,348	2,494
7	18,220	1,518	2,808
8	20,260°	1,688	3,123

Source: Federal Register

Table 4.7. Maximum 1989 monthly food stamp coupon allotments.

household size	food stamp allotment (\$)
1	90
2	165
3	236
4	300
5	356
6	427
7	472
8	540

Source: Federal Register

² Amounts rounded to nearest dollar

b Income cut-off for study participation eligibility

^c For family units with more than 8 members, add \$2,040 for each additional member.

a For family units with more than 8 members, add \$68.00 for each additional member.

income other than AFDC. The families which were existing solely on AFDC and foodstamps were at 79% of poverty, a small decline from Shapiro and Greenstein's findings. It must also be pointed out that in some instances "other" income consisted of a substantial sum of money borrowed for a specific purpose, such as a down payment on a rental house or an abortion. These funds, therefore, would not be used for basic necessities such as food.

The 19% of families who had received a child support payment in the month before the interview was a somewhat higher rate than might be expected (Wilson, 1988), and was over twice the rate found in a survey of low-income families conducted in Washington state (Governor's Task Force on Hunger, 1988). Many of these families in the current study, however, were receiving support for only one of the children or the payment was the only one they had received in the last six months. It is important to remember also that all child support payments are counted as income when calculating food stamp allotments. As income increases, the food stamp allotment decreases. Therefore, the family's income actually only increased by about two-thirds of the actual value of the payment (ie., \$33.00 for a \$50.00 support payment) because of the decline in the amount of food stamps received. If over \$50.00 was received then the AFDC allotment was reduced, also.

When the income of the families in the study is compared to the average yearly per capita income for Lansing as a whole, a large discrepancy is found. If only the per capita income for family members (as opposed to all household members) in the study is calculated and the fact that in some instances the family's income was also supporting additional non-family members is disregarded, yearly per capita income for these families averaged \$2,268.00 (1989 dollars). In 1985, the average yearly per capita income in Lansing was \$11,983.00 (1989 dollars) (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1988) or over five times that of the study population. This is similar to what Farley and Neidert (1986) found in their analysis of national data from the March 1985 Current Population Survey conducted by the Census Bureau. When they compared non-poor households to households that

relied on government assistance for the majority of their income, they found the per capita income in the non-poor households to be six times that of the dependent poor households.

The income for a large portion of the families in the study appears to have been relatively stable, at least over the last twelve months (see Figure 4.2). Many of the women who reported that their income was higher than it had been a year ago were quick to point out that it was only slightly higher. It is interesting to note that the income of non-users appears to be undergoing the most transition, either higher or lower, although the trend is small. The fact that over 30% of the past users indicated that their current income had dropped from the previous year is similar to the trend found for current food bank users in a statewide Minnesota study (Minnesota Food Education and Resource Center, 1985). With the small numbers in the study it is difficult to draw any conclusions, though this might perhaps be one indication that some past users are still at risk for a food emergency.

For food bank status groups not to differ dramatically on the income variables lends some credence to the hypothesis that, although income is the primary determinant of food

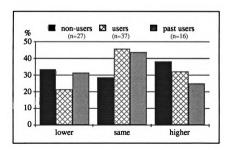


Figure 4.2. The direction of perceived income change over the last twelve months by the proportion of women in each food bank use category.

purchasing power in the household (Herrmann, 1964), other factors affecting disposition and management of that income might play a crucial role in food availability. For example, when allocating available income, it appears that low-income families will pay rent, utility, medical or other large, fixed bills before buying food (Williams, Nall and Deck 1976).

Sixty-five percent of the sample had changed residence at least once in the last twelve months compared to the 20% residential movement rate of all single parent families in the United States (Norton & Glick, 1986). Even though the families in the study tended to have moved only once in the last year, moving can be a stressful event. Moving also inevitably involves expenses over and above the family's normal budget.

The racial mixture of the sample reflects the heterogeneity of the two neighborhoods in the study. Lansing as a whole is a predominantly white community with approximately 14% African Americans and 6% Hispanic Americans. However, it was seen in this sample that African Americans were disproportionately concentrated in this low-income population when compared to the general population of Lansing (see Figure 4.3). They were especially over-represented among food bank users, where they were three times more prevalent than in Lansing's general population. This should not be too surprising, since census data show that poor African Americans living in central city poverty areas in the United States increased dramatically in the 1980's (O'Hare, 1987), and over half of all female-headed African American households in the country are poor (Wilson, 1988). Two out of three children living with an African American female single parent are living in poverty and 48% of those live with a mother who has never married (O'Hare, 1987). The high prevalence of low-income, African American single mothers is an ongoing concern nationwide. Although native Americans and Hispanics also appear to be over-represented in the sample as a whole relative to their presence in the general population, it must be remembered that their numbers in this study (eight Hispanics and three native Americans) were quite small, making it difficult to draw any conclusions or even discuss trends regarding these groups. It should be noted, however, that Norton and Glick (1986) found

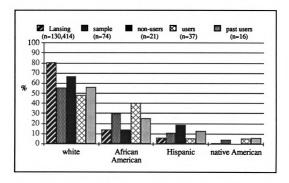


Figure 5.3. Comparison of the racial composition of Lansing, Michigan and the study sample.

that Hispanic single mothers had less education and lower employment rates than either African American or white single mothers, factors which have a direct effect on earning capacity.

Early childbearing, with its concomitant social and economic impacts (Wilson, 1988) cannot be ignored in a study such as this one. There was a question asked in the interview concerning the woman's age at the birth of her first child (Q#65), but problems with the question wording precluded analysis except for multigravidas and five of the primagravidas. For those women whose data were felt to be valid (n = 46), the mean age at the birth of the first child was 19 years (19.3±3.8 years), somewhat older than might be expected if teenage motherhood is thought to be a leading cause of dropping out of school and subsequent poverty (Furstenberg, Brooks-Gunn & Morgan, 1987; Hofferth & Moore, 1979; Wilson, 1987).

Eight of the respondents (11%) were under 20 years of age at the time of the

interview. In one household the respondent was older (age 39), but the preschooler in the household belonged to the woman's unmarried sixteen year old daughter, who also lived in the home. It appeared that the eighteen month old granddaughter had simply been "tacked on to the end of the line" of children in the home. A situation similar to this was encountered in one other home, but in this case the teenager was interviewed and not the older mother. This researcher learned that in such cases it is important to interview both women because they seem to split the responsibilities in the household. In these homes the older mother was the breadwinner and the younger mother appeared to a certain extent to manage the food in the home. As Sheirer (1983) demonstrated in her profile of a nationally representative sample of AFDC families, the teenage mother and her child living with her parent(s) is not an uncommon household structure in this population.

The average 11.6 years of formal schooling for these single female household heads is in agreement with what was found in a random sample of low-income persons in Utah (Fairchild & Ernst, 1986). Thirty-one percent of the female household heads in the Utah study did not have a high school diploma or equivalent and more than 95% did not have at least a four year college degree, as compared to 38% and 99%, respectively, of this sample.

Qualitative Data: The majority of respondents expressed a need to further their education to be better able to support themselves and their families in the future. Regardless of whether or not the women in this study dropped out of school because of pregnancy, it appears that their children perhaps have kept them from furthering their education and most likely have kept them out of the workforce. What was most surprising was the degree of educational and career ambition of many women in the study. Fortyfour of those not currently in school reported definite plans to return to school and another eight had tentative plans (Q#68). Many were not content with simply attaining their GED's or high school diplomas, but said they wanted their associate's degree from the community

college or a four-year degree from a university. Career goals ranged from training as a dog groomer to obtaining a license as a sign language interpreter to becoming a pulmonologist. One women was going through the dental hygiene program at the community college so that she would be able to work her way through dental school at the University of Michigan. Interestingly, although the meteoric increase in prison construction in the state has had a devastating effect on funds budgeted by the legislature for human services, the increased availability of jobs in corrections has impacted on this population. One woman in the study sample was waiting to pass her final test to become a corrections officer and two others were signed up for training programs. It is difficult to judge how many of the women will follow through with their educational and career plans, but many of the respondents were quite firm in their declarations of intent.

Reasons given by the women for not looking for work included: a) wanting to stay home with the child(ren); b) lack of affordable child care; c) distrust of child care; d) inability to obtain an adequately paying job; e) need for more school/training; f) in school or returning to school soon; g) disabled, injured or temporarily laid off. A primary barrier to employment and educational advancement for these women was child care, similar to what was found in the Washington state survey (Governor's Task Force on Hunger, 1988). In several cases women who were in school offered the information that while they were in class their mother, who lived nearby, cared for the children. However, many women were in the same situation as one mother who stated she wanted to go back to college to become a secretary when her kids got "old enough". Several women put it in terms of waiting until the kids were in school full time. Another group of respondents said they wanted to be home with their children while they were young. Many women were afraid of day care facilities because of what they had seen on the evening news or read in the newspaper:

I'm just going to stay home and take care of my kids. I don't trust anyone else to do it.

(#1314) 1

I don't want my daughter to be raised by strangers. (#1215)

I don't really trust nobody with my kids. (#1226)

I don't like the idea of leaving my two youngest anywhere where their older sister isn't because they can't talk to tell me if anything is wrong. (#1231)

For others, getting a job and having to use day care was simply not economically advantageous:

I couldn't find anything that I could do that would pay a babysitter. (#1221)

I'm waiting for the minimum wage to go up. I need a job that pays enough so that all my income doesn't go to the babysitter (#8302)

It wouldn't be worth the cost of a babysitter, transportation, etc. for the amount of money I would make. (#8201)

It's hard with two kids. I couldn't afford to pay a babysitter with the kind of job I would get. (#1233)

Though the women frequently focused on affordable child care as an issue, their comments often implied lack of training for reasonably paying jobs.

The way the welfare system is you can't afford to get any measly minimum wage job because it would be sabotaging your survival. You need \$7-\$8 an hour and you can't get that without some college. (#1202)

To make the equivalent of her income on AFDC and food stamps (ie., 81% of the poverty level) the average woman in the study would have to have a job that paid at least \$3.94 per hour (assuming a 40 hour work week and a full fifty-two weeks of work). In order to bring the family up to the poverty line, which the federal government assumes is the minimum necessary to meet basic needs, the mother would need to make at least \$5.10 per hour. Of course, if she were working full-time she would have additional expenses other than babysitting, such as transportation and clothing, that she would most likely not have if she were staying home. The family would also eventually lose its Medicaid benefits. The loss of healthcare benefits in a family with young children is a serious problem.

¹ Respondent code number

HO2: **Domestic Resource Management**

HO2a: Shopping

Food bank users, non-users and past users will purchase most of their food at large grocery stores and will shop for food with equal frequency. All groups will be equally likely to report using a shopping list, plan menus before big trips to the grocery store, purchase national brand foods and use

a car to access the grocery store.

Results: The single mothers were the primary food shoppers in 88% of the households surveyed (Q#4). In another 8% of the households, she and another person did most of the grocery shopping. Half of all the shoppers purchased most of their groceries at Meijers (Q#3) (see Figure 4.4), a large multi-purpose discount store located within driving but not walking distance of both neighborhoods (Q#3). Another 34% of the principal food shoppers bought most of the household's groceries at Shoprite, a chain of independently owned medium-sized grocery stores. There was a Shoprite located within the Walnut school neighborhood, but there was not one within walking distance of the Bingham school area.

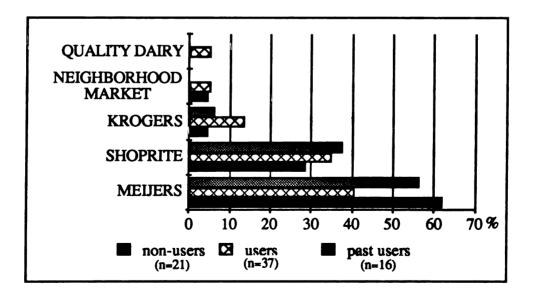


Figure 4.4. Percentage of food bank non-users, users and past users choosing each store as their principal grocery store.

Only two women reported buying most of the their household's food at Quality Dairy (QD), a chain of local convenience store. No group was more likely to report doing most of their grocery shopping at one store over another store. However, store choice did differ by neighborhood ($X^2 = 17.455$, df = 2, p = .0002). Women living in the Walnut school neighborhood were six times more likely to shop at Shoprite than women living in the Bingham school neighborhood, who were more likely to shop at Meijers. The most frequently given reason for shopping at a particular store was that it was easy to get to (46%), followed by lower prices than other stores (35%), sales and coupons (16%), products the shopper liked (16%) and it carried needed items other than food (15%)¹ (Q#3a). Users and past users who shopped at Shoprite were very likely to give easy access as a reason for their store choice (users: Bonferroni chi-square, df = 2, $X^2 = 22.849, p_{\Sigma} \le .01$; past users: Bonferroni chi-square, $df = 2, X^2 = 8.652, p_{\Sigma} \le .05$). Seventy-three percent of all the women who shopped at Meijers gave lower prices as a reason for shopping there. Several women stated they shopped at a particular store because their parents had shopped there or because it was where the person who gave them a ride shopped.

The average number of times food was purchased for the household in the month before the interview was eleven, with a range of two to thirty-five times (see Table 4.8). When comparing shopping frequency of the three groups under study, significant differences begin to emerge between users and non-users (Table 4.9). Users not only shopped for food more often in the last month than non-users (Tukey MC, q = 3.961, $p \le .05$), but this difference was almost entirely accounted for by the fact that users shopped over five times more often at the convenience store than non-users (Tukey MC, q = 5.353, $p \le .01$) (Q#2). The correlation between total number of times shopping and times shopping at the convenience store was r = .79 (p < .001), explaining 62% of the variance.

¹ Respondents could give more than one answer.

Average frequency of household grocery shopping in the month before the interview. **Table 4.8.**

variable	mean+ s.d. (n=74)	range
total no. times groceries purchased in last month	11.3±8.1	2 – 35
no. times food purchased at large store a	5.0±4.9	1 – 32
no. times food purchased at convenience store	5.6±7.2	0 – 30

a large stores = Meijers, Krogers or Shoprite

Frequency of household grocery purchases by food bank use status of single mother. Table 4.9.

variable	non-users (n=21)	users (n=37)	past users (n=16)
total times groceries purchased in last month	7.7±7.1 a	13.7±8.7×**	10.6±6.4
no. times food purchased at large store(s) b	5.8±6.4	4.5±3.8	5.2±4.7
no. times food purchased at convenience store	1.5±2.3	8.4±8.6×***	4.9±5.0

^a Mean ± standard deviation

b large stores = Meijers, Krogers or Shoprite

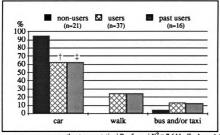
X users vs. non-users

^{**} p ≤ .05, Tukey MC *** p ≤ .01, Tukey MC

When asked how often they or the person who was the primary food shopper used a shopping list when grocery shopping (Q#6), 28% of the women reported a shopping list was never or almost never used, 28% used a list sometimes, and 43% said they used a shopping list frequently, almost always or always. Past users were twice as likely as non-users to report using a shopping list frequently to always. In 34% of the households someone frequently, almost always or always planned menus before big trips to the grocery store were made (Q#7). Thirty-eight percent of the households never planned menus and another 28% sometimes did. Neither shopping list use or menu planning differed between groups at the $p_{\Sigma} \leq .10$ level.

Brand preference was evaluated by asking the women which type of brand—national, store or generic—of nine selected food items they normally purchased. Seventy-four percent of the women appeared to demonstrate a brand preference by selecting one type of brand for over half the items. Of these 54 women, 32 (60%) stated they normally purchased national brands more than the store or generic brands (94.1% of the non-users, 82.6% of the users and 66.7% of the past users). Within this sub-sample there were no significant differences in brand preference between any of the groups. Only three of the respondents reported they usually purchased the generic brand.

Seventy-one percent of the women traveled to the grocery store by car. Some had their own cars (31%), others obtained a ride from a friend or relative (29%) or borrowed a car (11%). Fifteen percent of the women walked to the store (none of the non-users walked), and the remaining 14% traveled by bus or taxi. Two women walked to the store, then took a cab home with their purchases (see Figure 4.5). Users and past users were more likely to walk or take public transportation to the store and non-users were more likely to go by car (users vs. non-users: Bonferroni chi square, df = 1, $X^2 = 7.644$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .05$) (past users vs. non-users: Bonferroni chi square, df = 1, $X^2 = 6.345$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .05$).



† users vs. non-users, car vs. other transportation: Bonferroni $X^2=7.644$; df=1; $p_{\Sigma}\leq .05$ ‡ past users vs. non-users, car vs. other transportation: Bonferroni $X^2=6.345$; df=1; $p_{\Sigma}\leq .05$

Figure 4.5. Primary transportation to the grocery store of food bank users, non-users and past users.

Based on these results, HO_{2a} in regards to principal store choice, shopping list and menu planning use and brand preference must be retained. However, HO_{2a} pertaining to shopping frequency and transportation to the grocery store can be rejected.

Discussion: The fact that 60% of the respondents in the study chose to shop at a large chain supermarket (either Meijers or Krogers), which was not within walking distance of either neighborhood is similar to the findings of Berry & Solomon (1971) and Alexis et al. (1969). However, it is a smaller proportion than the 81% in Goodman's (1968) study of central city residents who chose this store type and location.

That the majority of women traveled to the grocery store by car also is in agreement with the results of Berry & Solomon (1971). However, over 25% more traveled by car in this study than in the survey by Goodman (1968). Although in this sample traveling by car to shop for food was strongly associated with shopping at Meijers ($X^2 = 14.960$, p = .0001), it is not known whether the women chose to shop at Meijers because they had

access a car or if they first decided Meijers was the best place to shop and then, if necessary, found transportation.

It appears that the choice of store might actually have been most strongly influenced by the neighborhood in which the respondent lived. If she lived in the Bingham school neighborhood, where within walking distance there was only a convenience store and, at one end of the neighborhood, a small neighborhood market, the subject most often chose to shop at Meijers (see Table 4.10). It might be that if the women have to drive or take public transportation to shop at a larger store, Meijers is their store of choice. A different trend is seen in the Walnut school neighborhood, where the Shoprite was easily accessed from almost anywhere in the neighborhood, even if the woman had to walk to the store. In that neighborhood it was the store of choice, even though it is generally more expensive than Meijers. It is worth noting that in this sample "easy access" was not necessarily synonymous with "within walking distance". It often was related to the fact that the person who regularly gave the respondent a ride to grocery shop at that particular store.

Table 4.10. The choice of primary grocery store by percentage (number) of neighborhood residents in the sample.†

	NEIGH	BORHOOD
	Walnut	Bingham
	(n=41)	(n=33)
	 %	
STORE:		
Meijers	39.0	63.6
•	(16) a	(21)
Shoprite	53.7	9.1
•	(22)	(3)
other	7.3	27.3
	(3)	(9)

^a Number of subjects represented by the percentage

 $[\]dagger X^2 = 117.455$, df = 2, p = .0002

The fact that "easy access" and not "lower prices" was the most frequent reason stated by this low-income sample for store choice contrasts with what other researchers have discovered (Berry & Solomon, 1971; Goodman, 1968). In these other studies, "lower prices" and "quality" predominated.

Differences in frequency of food shopping in general and food shopping at Quality Dairy in particular were the most striking findings for this hypothesis. The possible implications of these results will be discussed under HO_{3a}.

It appears that the findings here tend to support what Coe (1971) discovered, ie. that national brands are the brand of choice in a low-income population. However, somewhat "cleaner" results might have been obtained regarding brand preference in this population if all the women simply had been asked whether they normally purchased national, store, or the generic brand and why.

Qualitative Data: One woman made the interesting comment that, although she would have preferred to shop at Meijers, she liked shopping at Shoprite (the medium-sized independent located in the Walnut school neighborhood) because they carried her groceries out to her car for her. She appreciated the extra service because "a single parent has to do everything. You get so tired." (#1202)

After examination of the research literature and discussion with experts, it became apparent that shopping list use and menu planning have been assumed to be good behaviors for food resource management, but no one appears to have systematically researched the efficacy of either practice. Some mothers in this study did comment that making (and remembering to take) a shopping list or planning ahead made shopping easier for them, but over half of this population did not engage frequently in either behavior. One mother remarked that she never used a shopping list because she always bought the same thing and basically had the list in her head. Sinkula (1984) hypothesized that the single parent, with limited time and energy, might decide that the costs of "organized shopping efforts",

especially the time costs, outweigh the perceived benefits. Sinkula did not specify what those benefits might be.

The women who expressed a preference for a particular type of brand of food (national, store or generic) were asked to explain why they purchased that particular brand type. Taste and quality were the two top reasons given by the women who typically purchased national brands:

Because brand names tend to have more taste. Unbrand names don't seem to be good. (#1218)

I guess because it (national brands) tastes better. It's not as watered down. (#1215)

Just for the fact I know what's in them. There's a lot less salt in them and stuff. (#1220)

Additionally, the comments of one woman suggested that buying national brand foods was one of the few "good" things she could do for her children:

Somewhere in the back of my mind I think the quality is better. If my children are going to eat it I want it to be the best. (#1213)

The children's preferences also appeared to have influenced the type of brand purchased, particularly cold cereal:

The kids might not eat the cheapest thing. (#3312)

Cause my kids won't eat other brands. They think they taste different. (#1219)

Some women said they preferred national brands because they were what their parents always bought:

I heard they're better. It's all my mother ever bought". (#8302)

Probably because that's what I had at my mom's when I was growing up. (#1308)

Other women mentioned that they purchased national brands of certain items—such as apple juice, peanut butter and cold cereal—because they got them with WIC coupons. This is even though in most instances the coupons do not specify that they must be used for a certain brand or brand type (K. Scrimger, personal communication, May 18, 1990). These women clearly preferred national brands when given an unrestricted choice, even if they

purchased mostly the generic or store brand when spending their own money or food stamps.

Cost was the primary consideration for the women who usually purchased the store or generic brands:

With food stamps you get more [of the unbranded]. They're cheaper. (#3314)

The quality [of store brands] is similar to national brands, but they're less expensive. (#3301)

National brands are expensive. I don't care for the taste of generic. (#1222)

They (store brand) are cheaper. They're better quality than unbranded and probably the same quality as the national brands. (#1229)

Although Kunreuther (1973) empirically demonstrated that foodstuffs purchased in larger size packages typically cost less per unit than those purchased in small packages, cost was not the primary reason given by the respondents for purchasing a particular package size. There was no clear distinction among the groups on which size package (small, medium or large) was generally purchased. Most respondents purchased a particular size because it was the "right size" to feed the household. Some reported buying the large or medium size because they would have leftovers or it would last the household the entire month. Other respondents purchased the medium or small size because they did not want to have leftovers or food wasted. Only two women said they bought small packages because they could not afford the larger ones:

I try to buy large whenever possible because it's cheaper. Sometimes I'm forced to buy smaller because of limited money. (#1302)

Budget-wise I don't have the money to buy in quantity. (#3316)

HO_{2b}:

In-home resources

Users, non-users, and past users will have the same number of working major appliances, utilities and amount of food storage space.

Results: Three of the households in the study had no working refrigerator, two did not have a working range and five had no working oven. All but one of the households had some type of freezer, usually as part of the refrigerator, that was at least somewhat operational. One home did not have hot water because the gas had been shut off and in three houses the kitchen sink drain was not working. All households had running water and electricity.

When the women were given simple scores¹ for the number of major appliances and utilities they had, users and non-users were significantly different in their mean appliance scores (Tukey MC, q = 3.890, $p \le .05$), but not in mean utility scores (see Table 4.11).. Appliance scores and utility scores were only weakly correlated at r = .24 (p = .022)

Table 4.11 Mean appliance and utility scores¹ by food bank use status of single mother.

score	non-users (n=21)	users (n=37)	past users (n=16)
appliance score	5.4±0.5 a,b	4.97±0.7×**	5.13±0.5
utility score	4.0+0.0 c	3.89±.31	4.00±0.0

a non-users: n=20

b maximum possible score = 6.0

c maximum possible score = 4.0

x users vs. non-users

^{**} p ≤ .05, Tukey MC

¹ Each woman was given 1 point for each major appliance she had (see Q#31 in the survey, Appendix H) and 0 if she did not have that appliance. The appliance score was a simple total of all the points given for having the specified appliances. The utilities score was calculated in the same manner, summing over the utilities (not including storage) listed in Q#32 of the survey.

Lack of specific major appliances or utilities did not appear to be a problem for the majority of households. However, almost one quarter of all the women in the study reported that they did not have enough room to store food. Although the groups were not significantly different on this variable, eleven of thirty-seven users and one out of every four past users reported not having enough food storage space, while only 9.5% of the non-users perceived this as a problem (see Figure 4.6).

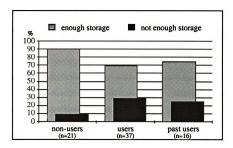


Figure 4.6. Perceived adequacy of food storage space by food bank use group.

Given the above results, the hypotheses concerning number of utilities and amount of storage space must be retained. The hypothesis concerning number of appliances can be rejected.

Discussion: Although the difference in the appliance scores between users and non-users is statistically significant, it must be examined in the light of its *practical* significance. The slightly higher mean score of the non-users was driven not by the fact that users or past users were less likely to have a range or refrigerator, but by the fact that

non-users were slightly more likely to own a microwave oven in addition to their other major appliances. The microwave was included in the list of major appliances in the survey because it was thought that women who did not have a range and could not afford to buy or rent one might be able to buy or borrow a microwave. The microwave might also be a less expensive alternative in terms utility bills. Apparently, however, this population perceived the value of the microwave oven as an adjunct and not an alternative to a range.

Even though lacking one or more major appliances, having no gas to heat water or a non-functional kitchen drain were not pervasive problems, they should not be underrated. For those families affected, they were problems not easily solved and seriously hampered daily living.

For some families, having appliances was a major financial sacrifice. One woman with six children was paying \$75.00 every two weeks to rent her range and refrigerator (plus another \$112.00 bi-weekly for a washer, dryer and TV). Another woman had a \$70.00 monthly payment on the refrigerator she was purchasing.

Compared to the results of Kunreuther (1973), fewer respondents in this study felt they had inadequate storage space, although 25% of the sample answered in the negative to that part of Q#32. Whether or not the family had enough room to store food might reflect on both ability to purchase the larger, more economical package sizes and frequency of shopping, ie. a household might have to shop more often because they could only store small amounts of an item at any given time.

Over half of households in the study (55%) normally purchased medium sized packages of food items; another 30% purchased large sizes and only three households regularly purchased the small sized packages. The relationship between available food storage and purchased package size appears to be very tenuous at $r_{rb} = .17$ (rank biserial correlation when a tie is present) (Cureton, 1968). No one reported having to buy the medium or small sizes because they did not have enough room to store a larger size. Statistically, there appeared to be no relationship between shopping frequency and

perceived amount of storage space in this sample. The rank biserial correlation (Glass & Hopkins, 1984) between perceived storage capacity and overall shopping frequency was $r_{rb} = -.08$; the relationship between storage and frequency of shopping at Quality Dairy was very weak at $r_{pb} = -.17$.

HO_{2c}: Domestic Resource Management (DRM) Index

Food bank non-users, users and past users will have the same total domestic resource management index scores.

Results: Failure to derive a DRM index prohibited the testing of this hypothesis. The correlations between the variables included in the score were weak at best (see Table 3.3). The one exception was the correlation between total number of times shopping and number of times shopping at Quality Dairy (r = .79), a relationship which exhibits a high degree of multicollinearity. Overall shopping frequency and number of times the household shopped at Quality Dairy were also the only variables included in the score derivation which discriminated between food bank use categories. Given the weak bivariate relationships between variables and the lack of discriminating power of the individual variables, it was felt that nothing would be gained by further attempts to combine the variables into a single score. Therefore this hypothesis cannot be tested at this time.

Discussion: The inability to derive a DRM index might be a reflection of the fact that the individual items were poorly written or did not effectively measure the actual content domain (Crocker & Algina, 1986, p. 223). The processes by which the items were matched to the domain were perhaps not rigorous enough or perhaps there is no such domain as theorized. Also, the concept of domestic resource management in relation to food--an area in which instruction is given regularly in home economics classes and programs such as EFNEP--might not have been adequately defined in this study.

HO3: Cash Value Available to Purchase Food

HO_{3a}: There will be no difference between any of the groups in the amount of money, including food stamps but not WIC, spent on food in a month.

Results: An average of \$175.00 per month in food stamps and cash was spent by the households on food, with a range of \$70.00 to \$450.00. The per capita amount spent was calculated to be \$52.00/person/month (range \$17.00 – \$117.00). Typically, 83% of the total amount spent was food stamps (see Table 4.12). Neither the monthly total spent, per capita amount spent, or percent of cash value for food that was food stamps differed between the groups.

Almost half of all the women (47%) in the study reported that they had borrowed money in the last six months to buy food (29% of non-users, 51% of users and 62% of past users). The difference between past users and non-users on this variable approached significance at $p_{\Sigma} \le .10$ with $X^2 = 4.259$ (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 1, critical value = 4.53).

Given the above results, HO_{3a} concerning differences in amounts of cash value available to purchase food must be retained.

Table 4.12. Average household expenditures for food in the last month by food bank use status of the single mother.

variable	a l (n=71)	non-users (n=20)	users (n=35)	past users (n=16)
usual amount spent in cash and food stamps (\$)	175±76 ^a	149±63	191±81	173±75
monthly per capita expenditure (\$)	52±15	51±9	53±18	49±12
% of food dollars that were food stamps	83 (n=73)	78	85 (n=37)	87

^a Dollar amounts rounded to nearest whole dollar

Discussion: As was seen under HO_{2a}, food bank users were shopping significantly more often than non-users, both overall and at the Quality Dairy, a convenience store. However, users were not spending any more money per capita than non-users, probably because they did not have more money to spend. This is somewhat dissimilar to the findings of Campbell and Desjardins (1987) who found that frequent shopping per se did not increase household food expenditures in their population, but frequent shopping in convenience-type stores did. Boone and Bonno (1971) and Goodman (1968) confirmed that convenience stores were indeed more expensive than independent grocery stores or chain supermarkets.

A likely consequence of shopping frequently at a more expensive food store such as a convenience store and not spending more money is purchasing less food in the long run and being less likely to meet the household's optimal nutrition needs. As researchers have found, even when the low-income homemaker is shopping as efficiently as possible, s/he will still have difficulties meeting the minimal nutrition needs of the household (Barney and Morse, 1967; Morgan et al, 1985).

The average household in this study was spending 25% of its income, including food stamps, on food. This is substantially less than the 42% of income spent on food in 1988 by the poorest 20% of families in the United States, but it is much more than the proportion of income--9%--spent on food by the wealthiest 20% of families in this country (Blaylock & Elitzak, 1989).

Similar to the non-users in this study, but in sharp contrast to users and past users, 29% of both "adequately fed" and "hungry" households in the CCHIP (Community Childhood Hunger Identification Project) survey (Connecticut Association for Human Services, 1986) sometimes borrowed money for food. However, "hungry" families in the Washington state survey (Governor's Task Force on Hunger, 1988) were twice as likely as adequately fed families to report borrowing money specifically to purchase food, proportions similar to what was found between ICFB users and non-users.

HO_{3b}: The number of weeks food stamps last the household and the amount of money added to the food stamps to purchase groceries will be the same for users, non-users and past users who receive food stamps.

Results: The single mothers who received food stamps reported that the food purchased with their stamps lasted approximately 3.5 weeks (Q#50C) (see table 4.13). Two-thirds of the food stamp recipients added money (an average of \$44.00/month) to their food stamps in order to purchase more food (Q#50D&E). Food purchased with food stamps lasted non-users almost the whole month, while that purchased by users lasted only three weeks (Tukeys MC, q = 4.328, $p \le .01$). Food bank users were more than twice as likely as non-users to report usually adding cash to their food stamps (Bonferroni chisquare, df = 2, $X^2 = 7.130$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .10$). The average amount of cash added by the groups did not differ, however. One quarter of the women who stated that they could never or only sometimes buy enough food for their household reported adding no money to their food stamps in order to buy more food.

Given the above results HO_{3b} must be retained in part and rejected in part.

Discussion: As in this study, in the statewide Minnesota study of food bank users (Minnesota Food Education and Resource Center, 1985), half of the subjects who were receiving food stamps reported that their stamps ran out by the end of the third week of the month. Another 32% said their stamps ran out by the end of the second week. For those classified as "hungry" in the CCHIP survey (Connecticut Association for Human Services, 1986) food stamp allotments lasted an average of 2.4 weeks.

More than one family in the current study was having problems because their food stamp allotments changed monthly depending on the family's fluctuating income. When cash income increases, the family might actually perceive that they have less money available to spend on food. Research has shown that a higher proportion of each dollar added to the household budget that is food stamps goes to food than of each dollar that is cash (e.g., Johnson, Burt & Morgan, 1981; Senauer & Young, 1986). There might also

Table 4.13. Adequacy of the households' food stamp allotments by food bank use status of the single mother.

variable	all (n=69)	non-users (n=19)	users (n=36)	past users (n=14)
number of weeks food stamps last participating households	3.4±0.9 a	3.9±1.2	3.2±0.6×**	3.4±1.0
% of participating households adding money to food stamp allotment	46.4 (32) b	21.1 (4)	58.3 ^{x†} (21)	50.0 (7)
amount of money added to food stamps per month (\$)	44±36 °	60±50	45±35	49±12

^a Mean ± standard deviation

be sufficient enough lag time in the adjustment of the food stamp allotment that the month the food stamps are decreased the family's income might again have declined.

It is noteworthy that forty-six percent of the women who, in response to Q#11A, reported that all of their food expenditures were in food stamps stated in response to a later question (Q#50E) that they sometimes or always added anywhere from \$7.00 to \$45.00 in cash to their food stamp allotment to purchase food. This discrepancy reinforces the need in surveys to ask for important information in several different ways and at different points in the questioning process in order to obtain the most valid data.

Fifteen percent of the study participants--six users, four past users and one non-user--stated they could not buy enough food for their household with available food dollars. Another 22%--twelve users, three past users and one non-user--could buy enough food only some of the time (Q#15). Ninety percent of non-users said they could purchase enough food with available cash and food stamps, while almost half (49%) of the users

b Actual number of subjects represented by the percentage

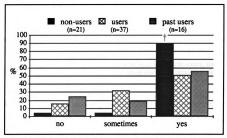
^C Dollar amounts rounded to nearest whole dollar

x users vs. non-users

^{***} p≤ .01, Tukeys MC

[†] $p_{\Sigma} \le .10$, Bonferroni chi-square, df = 2, $X^2 = 7.130$

reported never or only sometimes being able to buy enough food (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 2, $X^2 = 9.163$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .05$) (see Figure 4.7). The women who reported they could never or only sometimes buy enough food with available food dollars estimated that they would need an average of \$53.00 a month more to adequately feed the household (Q#15A), not an unsubstantial amount of money.



† non-users vs. users: Bonferroni chi square, df = 2, $X^2 = 9.163$, $p_x \le .05$

Figure 4.7. Proportion of subjects responding when asked whether or not they were able to purchase enough food for their household with available cash and food stamps.

Qualitative Data: When asked whether she could feed her family for the whole month on her food stamps, one mother's succinct reply was "Are you kidding?" (#1302). Other respondents said it was possible if they were careful and "budgeted it out". One woman discussed how she prefered to buy more fruits and vegetables and meats, but instead bought starchy foods that were less expensive. Two mothers made the point that whether or not they could buy enough food in any given month depended in large part on the children's appetites that month.

Some mothers in this study talked about what it was like toward the end of the month in their homes.

It's hard. Some months I have to stretch out the food at the end of the month. (#1302)

It (the food) lasts until the last week. The last week it's really low. (#3310)

It gets kinda' low at the end of the month, but we get by. (#1309)

I would like to buy more. When I don't plan well, it's sometimes "lean". (#3316)

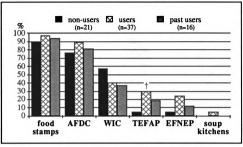
HO4: Assistance Program Participation

HO_{4a}: Actual program participation

No difference will be found between food bank non-users, users and past users in participation in individual assistance programs or in total assistance program participation.

Results: The majority of women in the study (95%) were currently receiving food stamps (FS) (Q#50A). Eighty-four percent of the respondents were on Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) (Q#54B). Forty-five percent were receiving supplemental food either for themselves or one or more of their children through the Supplemental Food Program for Women, Infants and Children (WIC) (Q#47B). Another 16% of the families had received WIC within the last year (Q#47A). Only one out of five respondents was receiving federal commodity foods through the Temporary Emergency Food Assistance Program (TEFAP) (Q#44) and just two women said they used community or soup kitchens (Q#45). Twelve of the respondents (16%) reported they had gone through the Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program (EFNEP) program (Q#46A) (see Figure 4.8).

Users were more likely than non-users to avail themselves of commodity foods through TEFAP (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 1, $X^2 = 5.089$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .10$). TEFAP was the only one of the above assistance programs that exhibited a significant difference in



† users vs. non-users: Bonferonni chi-square, df = 1, $X^2 = 5.089$, $p_S \le .10$

Figure 4.8. Assistance program participation of low-income single mothers and their families by food bank use status.

participation depending upon the respondent's food bank use status.

Four other food assistance programs—school breakfast, school lunch, Headstart and the summer feeding program—directly benefit children in the household. Much of the participation in school-based nutrition programs by families is a reflection of the ages of the children in those families. The average age of the children in non-user households was 2.9 years, in user households the average child was 4.8 years of age, and children in the households of past users were on average 4.7 years old. The children in non-user families were significantly younger than those in user families (Tukey MC, q = 3.233, p < .10). The difference in the average age of the children in past user and non-user families approached significance at the $p \le .10$ level with q = 2.527 (critical q value = 2.96).

Over half of the children in non-user households were under the age of two years (the age group of children principally served by WIC), while in user and past user households only about one-quarter of the children were that young (Q#17) (see Figure 4.9). The trend is reversed at the other end of the age spectrum, where one out of three children from user

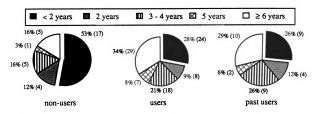


Figure 4.9. Percentage (number) of children in each age group by food bank use category (n=152).

families and 29% of those from past user families were age 6 years or older. Only 16% of the children from non-user families were in the 6 years and over age group. Only two non-user households contained elementary school age children and only four non-user households had children in the 3 to 4 year age range (the age requirement for Headstart participation).

Fifteen households--62% of those with age-eligible children--had at least one child participating in the school breakfast program and twenty-one households--100% of those with age-eligible children--had at least one child receiving free or reduced price school lunch. Users were more likely than non-users to have at least one child participating in school breakfast (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 2, $X^2 = 7.676$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .10$). Past users were more likely than non-users to have a child enrolled in Headstart or who had just graduated from the program (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 2, $X^2 = 7.744$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .10$). Six families had a child currently or in the last school year enrolled in Headstart; two of those were food bank users and four were past users. Six more families had children starting the program in the fall term. Only five families had children who participated in the summer feeding program--three users and two past user (Q#19). Past users were more likely than non-users to have a child who participated in summer feeding (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 2,

 $X^2 = 11.857$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .01$). Again, it must be remembered that part of the difference in participation in these child nutrition programs is a reflection of the age distributions of the children in the households.

Almost all of the families met the income criteria for each of the programs discussed above, with very few exceptions. None of the programs is mutually exclusive, therefore, depending primarily on the age range of the children, most families could participate in any of the ten programs included in the study. The actual number of programs used at least some time in the last year¹ ranged from zero to eight. Almost all the families who had used particular programs in the recent past were still using them. Current and past users, on average, participated in one more program than non-users (users vs. non-users: Tukey MC, q = 4.171, $p \le .05$) (past users vs. non-users: (Tukey MC, q = 3.07, $p \le .10$) (see Table 4.14). Almost one-quarter of the current users and 37% of the past users in the last twelve months had participated in at least half of the assistance programs included in the study, while none of the families that had never used the food bank had participated in that many programs (see Table 4.15).

Given the above results, HO_{4a} regarding degree of participation in individual assistance programs and total program participation is retained in part and rejected in part.

Discussion: It is not surprising that such a high percentage of low-income single mothers in this study were participating in the food stamp program. A recent study by the United States General Accounting Office (1990) found that 87% of the low-income households in their sample eligible for food stamps and participating in at least one other welfare program, such as AFDC, actually received food stamps. In addition, the GAO found that the liklihood of a household using food stamps increased by 67% with every additional child in that household. Also, never married women who were eligible for the

¹ The time frame for food stamp use was the last six months.

Table 4.14. Average number of assistance programs (other than food bank) participated in by families, categorized by food bank use status of the single mother.

mothers' food bank use status	n	avg.# of programs n (mean±s.d.)	
non-users	21	2.6±1.1	0-4
users	37	3.9±1.6 X**	0 – 8
past users	16	3.8±1.9 y *	0 – 7

x users vs non-users

Table 4.15. The degree of multiple assistance program participation by families in each food bank use category. ^a

number of programs	all	non-users	users	past users
participated in	(n=74)	(n=21)	(n=37)	(n=16)
			%	
0	5.4	9.5	2.7	6.3
	(4) b	(2)	(1)	(1)
2-4	75.7	90.5	75.7	56.2
	(56)	(19)	(28)	(9)
≥5	18.9	0.0	21.6	37.5
	(14)	(0)	(8)	(6)

a Does not include food bank use

y past users vs non-users

^{*} p≤ .10, Tukeys MC

^{**} p≤ .05, Tukeys MC

b Number of subjects represented by the percentage

program, particularly non-white women, had a higher probability of participating in the program than men or widowed, divorced or separated women.

The AFDC participation rate by the current sample, however, is in contrast to what was found by Weinburg (1987). In his examination of poor female-headed, single parent households, 86% received government transfer income of some kind, but only 58% were on AFDC, as opposed to the 84% who were currently receiving AFDC in this sample.

That the low-income families in this study participated in an average two or three government assistance programs supports what has been found in previous research, i.e., that multiple assistance program participation is the norm rather than the exception. Long (1988) found that 95% of the low-income households in her data set who were participating in the food stamp program were also participating in at least one other government assistance program. Almost three-quarters of the families in the study by Emmons (1986), all of whom were on food stamps and AFDC, also participated in at least one other assistance program. In a study by MacDonald (1985) of multiple transfer program participation, eighty-six percent of the households on public assistance (most were on AFDC) participated in at least one other major government assistance program.

It must be remembered that multiple program participation is almost a necessity for these families if, for whatever reasons, they must rely on government transfer income to support their families. As found both by Shapiro and Greenstein (1988) and by this study, relying on AFDC alone or AFDC and food stamps does not bring a family's income up to the poverty line, the income level the federal government presumes is needed to provide a minimally adequate amount of basic goods and services for a given family size.

HO_{4b}: Barriers to participation

No group will be less informed about particular assistance programs or attach more stigma to assistance program participation than any other group.

Results: All respondents had heard of FS, AFDC and WIC (Q#47, 51, 52A&B, 54). Only three women did not know what commodity foods were (Q#44A). In contrast, three out of four women said they had never heard of EFNEP (Q#46). However, food bank users were more likely to know about this program than non-users (Bonferroni chisquare, df = 1, $X^2 = 5.376$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .10$). This was the only program where there was a significant difference between any of the groups in terms of knowing of a specified program's existence. Nineteen percent of the women did not know what the community or soup kitchens were (Q#45A).

Whether the respondents attached any stigma to assistance program participation was addressed by asking whether the women had "ever been bothered or embarrassed" about using food stamps (Q#50F, 51A) or AFDC (Q#54D). Past users were significantly more likely than users to admit being bothered or embarrassed about using food stamps either currently or in the past (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 1, $X^2 = 4.760$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .10$) (see table 4.16). There was no statistically significant difference between groups on the question concerning embarrassment and AFDC participation. There appears to be a trend among non-users and users to be more stigmatized by receipt of AFDC than by using food stamps. Past users were equally likely to be bothered or embarrassed by participation in either program.

When the relationship between being embarrassed about food stamp use and being embarrassed about AFDC participation was examined, a clear association emerged (see Table 4.17). If a woman reported not being bothered or embarrassed about her participation in one program, she was likely to report feeling the same way about the other program ($X^2 = 28.890$, df = 1, $p \le .0000$). Fifty-five percent of the women who were participating in both FS and AFDC reported not feeling stigmatized by either program, but

Table 4.16. Percentage (number) of respondents who had participated in the food stamp and/or AFDC programs reporting being bothered or embarrassed by their participation.

program	all a	non-users b	users c	past users d
			-%	
food stamps	31.4 (22)	31.6 (6)	22.2 (8)	53.3z† (8)
AFDC	40.3 (27)	47. 1 (8)	31.4 (11)	53.3 (8)

a food stamps: n=70; AFDC: n=67

Table 4.17. Relationship between stigma associated with FS use and AFDC participation by percentage (number) of respondents participating in both programs (n = 67).†

	bothered or embarrassed by AFDC		
	yes	no	
bothered or embarrassed by food stamp use:	%		
yes	28.4 (19)	4.5 (3)	
no	11.9 (8)	55.2 (37)	

 $[\]dagger X^2 = 28.890, df = 1, p \le .0000$

b food stamps: n=19; AFDC: n=17

c food stamps: n=36; AFDC: n=35

d food stamps: n=15; AFDC: n=15

z past users vs. users

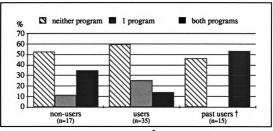
[†] Bonferroni chi-square, df = 1, $X^2 = 4.760$, $p_T \le .10$

over one-quarter of the dual program participants reported being bothered or embarrassed by both programs. Regardless of the respondent's food bank use status, similar relationships existed. Sixty percent of the users and 53% of the non-users were not bothered or embarrassed by either program (users: $X^2 = 4.646$, df = 1, p = .03) (non-users: Fisher's exact test, p < .003). The opposite is true for the ex-users, however, 53% of whom were bothered or embarrassed by their participation in both programs (Fisher's exact test, p < .0002) (see Figure 4.10). Past users were almost four times as likely as current users to feel bothered or embarrassed about participating in both programs. The difference between the two groups was significant at $p\Sigma \le .05$ (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 2, $X^2 = 10.348$).

Respondents were also asked whether they considered food stamps and AFDC a handout and whether these programs were a right to which they were entitled. Two-thirds of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed that food stamps were a handout and 70% did not feel that AFDC was a handout. Only two women did not feel that food stamps were a right and 36% strongly agreed that they were. Forty percent of the women strongly agreed that AFDC was a right to which they were entitled and again only two disagreed. Although non-users, users and past users did not differ in the direction of their opinions, users and non-users differed significantly in the degree of their feelings about food stamps. Users were much more likely than non-users to strongly agree that food stamps were a right to which they were entitled (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 2, $X^2 = 11.321$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .05$)

Given the above results, hypothesis HO_{4b} concerning lack of information and stigma as barriers to program participation must be rejected.

Discussion: That the women in this sample felt more stigmatized by AFDC than by food stamps supports the findings of both Stuart (1975) and Goodban (1985). Both non-users' and users' responses displayed this trend, but not past users'. There is no



† users vs. past users: Bonferroni chi-square, df = 2, $X^2 = 10.348$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .05$

Figure 4.10. Percentage (number) of respondents in each food bank use category bothered or embarrassed by AFDC and food stamp program participation (n=67).

information available to explain this difference. The significant relationship in this sample between lack of embarrassment with participation in one program and not being bothered by participation in the other program either also agrees with results obtained by Goodban.

The questions regarding whether the women considered food stamps and AFDC a handout or a right to which they were entitled yielded results very similar to those of the Stuart study (1975), where the majority of the women felt that they were indeed a right and not charity. If anything, the results of this study were even more striking in terms of the women feeling that they were entitled to these benefits. Interestingly, two or three respondents interpreted the word "handout" used in Q#53A and Q#55A as having a positive meaning and based their "agree" or "strongly agree" response on that interpretation. In retrospect, using the word "charity" instead might have been a better choice.

Qualitative Data: Lack of information about an assistance program is often cited as a reason for non-participation, particularly in studies of the food stamp program

(eg. Coe, 1983; United States General Accounting Office, 1990). This was clearly not a problem in this study, at least for food stamps, AFDC, and WIC. The women expressed a variety of reasons for not participating in TEFAP. Some said they did not know how to apply or that they were eligible or where to go. Others used to get the commodity foods, but said they stopped when cheese was no longer being distributed. Transportation was a significant barrier to participation for one respondent:

I went one time. I was going to get a card, but without transportation I haven't. I can't even afford bus fare. It would help a lot. (#1312)

Several women expressed the feeling that the program was for others who were worse off:

...because I'm a stubborn person. I think that people who are poorer than I am are the ones who need it. (#1229)

I never went to apply for it because I think I've got enough here for myself and my child and there's probably people out there who need it worse than I do. (#1211)

For some respondents, not knowing what a soup kitchen or community kitchen was appeared to have been a barrier to taking advantage of the free meals offered at them. Other women who knew of the kitchens reported not knowing that there was one within walking distance of their home. However, personal attitudes about the kitchens were perhaps the greatest barrier to their use by this population:

I have food stamps and money. I figure those are for people who are destitute and homeless. (#1302)

I feel embarrassed. Plus, they're for other people who don't have nothing and I feel I have more than they do. (#1204)

I don't feel too comfortable with it. (#1222)

I don't like the type of people that hang out in them. (#1305)

The only one I know of is the one down on Michigan Avenue and it's not the kind of people I want my kids with. (#1312)

Again, transportation was a problem for one of the respondents:

By the time I get to the point I can't afford to buy food, I can't afford to get anywhere but two blocks away to the food bank. (#1231)

One woman who had used the food bank five times in the last year simply stated that she did not want to use the community kitchens. Another subject reported that if she needed food she would go to the food bank to get some and cook it herself. Apparently, use of the community kitchens carries more stigma with it than use of the food bank.

Lack of knowledge about the program appears to be the major barrier to participation by these women in EFNEP or the Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program. It was found by the interviewers, however, that reported lack of knowing about the program might in part be because the women do not remember it by that name or acronym. Some asked if it was that "that cooking program" or even "that county extension program that teaches cooking". One woman in the pilot study even reported not knowing of the program, although the interviewer saw her graduation certificate sitting on the shelf. Clearly, this program has an "identity problem", which has been realized by its administrators (M. Bucklin, personal communication, May 1, 1990).

The comments by many of the women about the AFDC and food stamp programs appear to reflect a greater degradation of self-esteem as a result of being on AFDC and a greater likelihood of being embarrassed by attitudes of others when in the act of using food stamps. When asked what bothered or embarrassed them about being on AFDC, the women said:

I hate it. It's self-degrading. The case workers look down on you. Relatives think you enjoy being on ADC. I'm always telling my daughter to get an education and do better. (#1213)

It really strongly affects you self-esteemwise. It's the victim's role that you're placed in. It can be a trap. You need to have a job. (#1202)

I feel that a lot of people have a bad outlook on it. I think it's bad on my self-image.
(#1308)

I don't want my kid thinking you grow up and get on welfare. Others think you're lazy. (#3303)

I should be able to work, but I'm afraid to leave my child with someone right now. Others talk about you when cashing checks or using food stamps. (#3314)

There's people that I went to school with that ask me what I'm doing. They're at LCC and I have to say I'm at home with my kids and on welfare. (#1312)

Friends say you should get a job and sometimes it bothers me. (#1315)

I like to work. I feel like I'm helpless because I'm on ADC and I don't like it. (#1208)

It's a handout. I've always worked until they fired me.....More than one person has told me that people are going to look down on me because I'm on ADC. They're going to say I had my kids to get more welfare. (#1231)

I just feel like people say that you're lower than they are. (#1222)

Similar, though somewhat less strident, remarks were made concerning feeling stigmatized by food stamp use:

It depends on the person at the counter. Others think women are breeding to avoid work. (#3303)

People have stereotypes of people who accept aid from the State. You feel discriminated against. You're not treated equal sometimes. (#3308)

Probably when I first had to be on them I was really humiliated. I think you grow numb to it after a year. Just say you have to survive. I think that feeling's always there. (#1202

Most people tend to look down on food stamps. I look down on them. (#1213)

I feel like a failure. (#1309)

I'm always embarrassed. When we were younger we had everything we needed. Right now I have no choice. I feel like I'm poor or something. (#1225)

They're not real money. Everybody knows you're on welfare. (#1204)

I guess it bothers me some, but it's been a necessity. I figure I've paid my taxes and should get help when I need it. (#1302)

Rainwater (1982) makes the point that the stigma attached to program participation, either by the woman herself or by others, must be viewed as a cost of assistance program participation. Because the women chose to go on the programs and continue to use them very likely reflects the fact that they feel the benefits to them and their children outweigh the costs of being stigmatized by program participation, as discussed by Moffitt (1983).

Some women reported being bothered or embarrassed when they first went on assistance, but that it did not bother them any more. Others stated that they were not bothered or embarrassed because they felt they had no other choice:

You have to suck in your pride. I'm not going to be on it much longer. I can stretch it out. (#!229)

I'd rather not use them [food stamps], but if you don't have any choice....(#1313)

If I have to use them there ain't no use in being embarrassed by them. It's the only way I can get food. (#1311)

[I was embarrassed] at first. I used to think people abused the system. I'm not anymore because I know I need the help. (#1220)

At first I was. I was afraid someone might see. (#8203)

It is difficult to judge whether either of these attitudes were indeed the true feelings of the women or if they were, as Rainwater (1982) discussed, used as a defense mechanism against the negative attitudes of others and of the woman herself toward participation in public assistance programs. Rainwater also made the point, however, that

The most common defenses are actually more constructive. The woman accepts, because she cannot avoid it, the social status into which she has fallen, but she demonstrates her basic commitment to mainstream values by moving as rapidly as she can to dig out of her situation of dependency and to "get back on her own feet".

On whether food stamps were a right or a handout, even though most of the respondents agreed that they were a right, over and over again they stated that food stamps or AFDC were only a right for those who really needed them. This could possible be because the women felt that the behaviors of the welfare "cheats" reflected badly on everybody who truly needed the help and who was honest.

HO5: Ingham County Food Bank (ICFB)

HO_{5a}: Knowledge of the ICFB

Non-users will know of the ICFB as often as users and past users.

Results: Four non-users had never heard of the Ingham County Food Bank (Q#48), making this group significantly different from the users who, of course, all knew

of the ICFB (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 1, $X^2 = 7.37$, $p \le .05$). Based on this finding, HO_{5a} can be rejected.

Discussion: The fact that only four of twenty-one non-user respondents had not heard of the ICFB perhaps seems of little consequence. However, one of the four women stated that she was not always able to buy enough food for herself and her one year old. Her earned income was \$250.00 in the month before the interview plus food stamps and WIC. What will happen when her baby is taken off the WIC roles, but the woman's food stamp allotment does not go up to compensate is of concern. This woman might also be in trouble if she loses her part-time job and has no income while going through the application process for AFDC.

Of the respondents who knew of the ICFB, half had first heard about it from family or friends; only 20% recalled hearing about the ICFB for the first time from their caseworker (Q#48A) (see Table 4.18). The fact that friends appeared to be a major source of information about the food bank might be useful knowledge for the ICFB to use in

Table 4.18. Where low-income, single mothers found out about the ICFB.

source	all	non-users	users	past users
	(n=70)	(n=17)	(n=37)	(n=16)
	%%			
family	17.1	17.6	13.5	25.0
	(12) ^a	(3)	(5)	(4)
friend	34.3	23.5	35.1	43.8
	(24)	(4)	(13)	(7)
caseworker	20.0		27.0	25.0
	(14)	(0)	(10)	(4)
other/don't recall	28.6	58.8	24.3	6.3
	(20)	(10)	(9)	(1)

^a Actual number represented by the percentage.

targeting informational campaigns about its services. Perhaps a campaign along the lines of "Friends Don't Let Friends Drive Drunk" might be effective, e.g. "Friends Don't Let Friends Go Hungry". Q#73A-D collected information concerning where the respondents obtained information about what was happening in Lansing and also the general television viewing and radio listening habits of the women (see Appendix I). This information might also assist the ICFB in targeting outreach efforts.

Qualitative data: One would hope that social services would make sure that applicants learned of the food bank if they were obviously in need. However, one mother in the study reported that it was not until she started to cry and asked where she could get food for her children until her food stamps came through that the social services caseworker told her about the food bank.

One of the research questions was whether there were families who should be using the food bank who were not. One non-user, who knew of the food bank, admitted that she had needed to use it, but could not explain why she had not.

HO_{5b}: Choice of the ICFB for emergency food assistance

Non-users who know of the food bank, users, and past users will be equally as likely to choose the ICFB as their first avenue of assistance in a food crisis.

Results: Only nine of all respondents (12%) stated they would turn to the food bank first if they ran out of money and needed food or help buying food (Q#43) (see Figure 4.11). Eight of those nine were food bank users and one was a non-user. Surprisingly, none of the past users said they would turn to the food bank first for help. The data showed that 30 of the respondents, or 40% overall, would turn to their mothers first for help; another 26% would turn first to other family members or relatives. Twelve percent would ask a friend first for assistance. Statistically, there were no differences

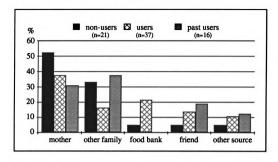


Figure 4.11. Where low-income, single mothers would turn first for help if they needed food or help buying food by proportion of food bank use categories.

between any of the groups regarding choice of first avenue of assistance in a food crisis.

Therefore, HO5a is retained.

Discussion: The fact that <u>no</u> past users would turn to the ICFB first in the event of a food crisis is disturbing. Respondents were not asked why this was the case and no one voluntarily offered an explanation. One hypothesis is that the respondents associated the food bank with an unpleasant experience at the Department of Social Services. Or perhaps they had a bad experience at the food closet where they picked up their food. One clue that might help to shed light on this question was seen in HO4b, where it was found that past users appeared to feel more stigmatized by assistance program participation than either current users or non-users. This feeling might carry over to assistance programs other than AFDC or food stamps. If a person felt the the stigma of program participation outweighed the benefits, Moffitt (1983) reported they were likely to decide against using that particular program.

HO6: Informal Social Support

HO_{6a}: Frequency of interaction with friends and relatives

Non-users, users and past users will interact as often with close friends as

with family members or relatives.

Results: Average frequency of interactions with close friends or with family members and relatives, as calculated by the process explained in the methods section, did not differ among the food bank use categories (see Table 4.19). The difference between frequency of interaction with friends and with family was calculated by subtracting SUPPFND from SUPPFAM for each subject and then comparing the mean differences of the groups. No group interacted more frequently with family than with friends or vice versa than either other group.

When the individual variables included in these composite frequency scores were evaluated for how well they discriminated between groups, the only significant difference occurring between users and non-users was in how often the women got together with family members or relatives for fun or relaxation (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 2, $X^2 = 6.817$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .10$). Sixty-two percent of the non-users reported getting together with family members or relatives at least once a week for fun or relaxation, while only 27% of the users reported socializing with relations that often. Over one-third of the users reported that they

Table 4.19. Average friend and family frequency of interaction indices of single mothers by the woman's food bank use status.

variable	non-users (n=21)	users (n=37)	past users (n=16)
friend interaction index	16.4±7.3 a,b	15.8±8.2	18.9±4.9
family interaction index	16.9±6.4	15.6±6.3	18.6±5.4

^a Mean ± standard deviation

b A maximum of 30 pts was possible

socialized with family members or relatives less than once a month or never and almost 40% of past users never got together with family and relatives for fun or relaxation.

Given the above results, HO_{6a} must be retained.

Discussion: In contrast to the above results comparing those who have used an emergency food assistance system with those who have not, previous investigations of low-income mothers have found a negative association between help seeking in the formal sector and frequency of contact with kin networks. Birkel and Reppucci (1983) found in their study that the more frequent contact a low-income single mother had with her kin network, the less likely she was to seek outside assistance from food assistance and mental health care professionals. The women who were least likely to use prenatal care services in McKinlay's research (1973) had more frequent contact with their kin networks than those woman who were classified as utilizers of the professional services. McKinlay also found the opposite to be true in relation to friends--utilizers had more frequent contact with friends than underutilizers.

HO6b: Social support network index scores

Overall social support network scores will not vary among non-users, users and past users of the ICFB.

Results: As explained in the methods section, an overall social support network score which included both family and friends variables could not be calculated. Therefore, HO6b cannot be tested at this time. The inability to derive an overall social support network index might be because the individual items were poorly written or did not effectively measure the same underlying concept (Crocker & Algina, 1986, p. 223), as discussed earlier under HO2c. Again, the processes by which the items were matched to the domain were perhaps not rigorous enough and the domain of content of informal social support might not have been adequately defined in this study.

When group means for the FAMNET and FNDNET sub-indices (see p. 44 of methods) were compared, there were no significant differences found between groups. In examination of individual variables included in these sub-indices, non-users reported significantly more family members or relatives would gladly give them support or help if asked (GLADHELP) than did users (Tukey's MC, q = 4.44, $p \le .01$) or past users (Tukey's MC, q = 5.298, $p \le .10$). Non-users also reported more family members living within fifteen minutes of them (FAMFIFTN) than did users (Tukey's MC, q = 3.191, $p \le .10$)

Although Q#43 concerning where a woman would turn first for assistance if she needed food was evaluated under HO5b, it is in essence a question about informal social support (Figure 4.11). There is a strong propensity for women in all three food bank use categories to turn to their families first in event of a food crisis.

Discussion: That the women in this study would turn to family first for help in a food crisis is not surprising, given the results of the Utah study of a general low-income population (Fairchild & Ernst, 1986), where 47% of the respondents stated that they would turn to family first if they needed food. Actual proximity of family members and relatives also appears to potentially have an effect on help-seeking behavior, both in this study and in previous work. McKinlay (1973) found that the women in his study who sought the least assistance in the formal sector were also the ones living in closest proximity to their families.

The social support section of this questionnaire was built around the family and friend interaction matrices because of a desire to compare the results of this sample with the results of two other populations in Michigan with whom these matrices have been used (Perlstadt, Smith, McConnell & Numinen, 1989; Social Science Research Bureau, Department of Resource Development, 1987). The additional social support network questions (Q#34, 34A, 36, 37, and 39-42) were used to fill information gaps concerning size, density, strength and perceived accessibility of the friends and family support

networks left by the matrix questions. Because there was only a limited amount of interview time available for each broad area under study in this questionnaire, it was not possible to include more questions to cover other dimensions of informal social support, such as the actual amount of help or support received or the woman's satisfaction with that help or support. It was presumed that, with detailed questioning concerning frequency of a variety of interactions occurring under a range of circumstances where social support might be given, this might serve at least as a rough proxy for amount of help and support received. However, the fact that the matrix questions were worded to include both getting and giving help and support did not allow for examining just the help and support received or the reciprocity of relationships between the individual and other members of her network.

Another flaw in the SSN section of the questionnaire was that it did not necessarily capture any of the support given by a live-in male companion. It is not known in this study whether the women who were living with someone as a couple included their companion in with their close friends, their family or not at all. As McLanahan (1981) and her colleagues found, the male companion can be a significant part of some women's support networks and not of others. When examining the impact of a romantic involvement, along with support from family and friends, Gladow and Ray (1986) found that friendships were probably more important to the single mother than romantic involvement in terms of her overall well-being, but that a romantic involvement did have a negative association with the woman's feelings of isolation.

HO7: Meal Skipping Due to Lack of Food

The frequency of meal skipping due to lack of food in the home will be the same in non-user, user, and past user families.

Results: The children in 21% of households studied had skipped at least one meal in the six months before the interview due to lack of food in the home (Q#21, 22). In 12% of the households, the children had skipped at least one meal in the last four weeks (Q#20). One out of three mothers had skipped at least one meal in the last month due to lack of food in the home (Q#24); an equal number had skipped at least one meal in the last six months before the interview (Q#25, 26). Over three-quarters of the women who skipped meals in the last month had skipped between one and four meals. One woman was skipping a meal every day. Forty-three percent of the women who skipped meals in the last six months had skipped meals five or more times; five of the women had skipped meals more than ten times in the six month time period due to lack of food in the home. If the mother was not skipping meals it was highly unlikely that the child or children in the home were skipping meals (last month: $X^2 = 10.430$, $p \le .002$; last six months: $X^2 = 15.680$, $p \le .0001$) (see Table 4.20).

Meal skipping by both the children and the mothers was significantly more likely to occur among food bank users than among non-users. Meal skipping during the month before the interview was more prevalent for both the children (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 1, $X^2 = 5.267$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .10$) and the mothers (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 1, $X^2 = 7.117$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .05$) who were users than for those who were non-users. During the six months preceding the interview just the food bank user mothers were more likely to have skipped meals than non-user mothers (Bonferroni chi-square, df = 1, $X^2 = 7.117$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .05$). The difference in meal skipping between the children of food bank users and non-users during the preceding six months approached significance at $X^2 = 4.321$

(critical value = 4.53, $p_{\Sigma} \le .10$) (see Figure 4.12). The past users did not differ statistically from either users or non-users.

Given the above results, HO7 can be rejected.

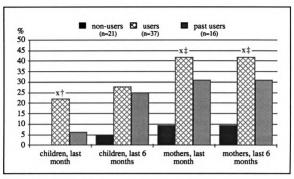
Table 4.20 The relationship of mothers' meal skipping to children's meal skipping in the month before the interview by percentage (number) of the whole sample.†

	mothers		
	no	yes	
child(ren)			
no	66.2	21.6	
	(49)	(16)	
yes	2.7	9.5	
	(2)	(7)	

 $[\]dagger X^2 = 10.430, df = 1, p = 0012$

Discussion: The fact that the children in one out of five households had skipped meals because there was no food in the home is remarkably consistent with results found in a statewide study in Minnesota (Minnesota Food Education and Resource Center, 1985) and a non-random national survey of emergency food recipients conducted by PIRGs (1986). As can be seen from Figure 4.12, at every time period in this study mothers were more likely to skip meals than children. In sixteen of the twenty-three homes where mothers had skipped meals in the month before the interview, the children had not skipped a meal.

It seems highly unlikely that there would be households where the children had skipped a meal but the mother had not. However, this appears to have happened in four of the households in this study. One possibility is that perhaps the mother's typical eating pattern was to only eat one or two meals a day, even when there was food in the house, to make sure there would be enough food for the children. Then, when there was no food



x non-users vs. users

Figure 4.12 Percentage of children and mothers skipping meals due to lack of food in the home by food bank use category.

available, she did not "skip" a meal because she would not have eaten it anyway on a normal day.

It does not appear that mothers in this sample frequently used friends and/or relatives as an alternative meal source for themselves or their children. When asked if they had sent their children to a friend's or relative's to eat in the last month because there was no food in the house (Q#23), only five women (four food bank users, one past user) admitted that they had done this. Nine women (seven food bank users, one non-user, one past user) said that they themselves had eaten at a friend's or relative's at least once in the last month because there was not enough food in the house (Q#27). None of the groups differed significantly in this behavior, although it is noteworthy that it was primarily food bank users who were using friends or relatives as a source of meals, or at least admitting to

[†] Bonferroni chi square, $df = 1 X^2 = 5.267$, $p_x \le .10$

[‡] Bonferroni chi square, df = 1, $X^2 = 7.117$, $p_{\Sigma} \le .05$

doing so. The CCHIP survey found that those households defined as "hungry" in their results (those having "five or more positive responses on eight hunger variables") were significantly more likely than "adequate" households to send their children to a friend's or relative's for meals ($p \le .001$) (Connecticut Association for Human Services, 1986).

Qualitative Data. When asked about their children skipping meals, the mothers frequently volunteered that if food were in short supply, they themselves would skip a meal before they would make their children skip a meal. One mother skipped breakfast and regularly cut back on her milk consumption toward the end of each month so she could save the milk for her daughter. Another mother would only eat a can of green beans instead of a meal if the family was short on food. One respondent who typically ate only one meal a day, said she knew there wouldn't be enough food in the house for her and her son if she started eating more often. Yet another subject reported that two to three days before she picked up her food stamps she might not eat because the children may want more food. In the CCHIP survey in New Haven, Connecticut (Connecticut Association for Human Services, 1986), mothers in 31% of the households reported that there were days when they themselves skipped meals or ate less so their children could eat enough.

Although not a specific question on the survey, another frequent food conservation strategy reported by the mothers was that, even though the family might not be skipping meals, sometimes the entire family, not just the mother, might eat less. They would have just soup instead of soup and a sandwich or the children would not get any snacks. Seventeen percent of the CCHIP respondents reported that there were days when they cut back on the size of the children's meals so there would be enough food to go around. Even though most respondents did not report taking advantage of meals at friend's or relative's when they were short of food in their own homes, one woman did remark that if she were sending the children to her mother's to eat because the family had no food, she would not tell her mother that was why they were coming over.

A frequent reason given by respondents in community based studies of food bank users for why they ran out of food is inadequacy of their assistance allotments (eg., Bureau of Nutrition-Nutrition Surveillance Program, 1989; HANNYS, 1987; Project Bread Hunger Hotline et al, 1987). Clients reported their food stamps or grant monies had run out before the end of the month or they had a problem with their case and did not receive their food stamps or received less than usual. Similar problems were reported by several respondents to this survey along with the following comments:

What they give us on food stamps and what they give us on money just don't make ends meet. (#1305)

Didn't have the money to get the food. You don't get enough to take care of personal stuff and buy food and take care of bills. (#1313)

What we're allowed on ADC and what's happening with our economy. Food costs went up and ADC stayed down. (#1202)

My food stamps were cut to \$65.00. (#3309)

I didn't have any money. It was only one day. A couple of days before my food stamps are the worst. (#1229)

Not having transportation to the larger, less expensive stores and being forced to shop at the neighborhood market lead to a food crisis in other homes:

This month we didn't have transportation to get to Krogers [because the car was stolen] and bought most of our food at Sunset and Quality Dairy. Some months we have transportation, others we don't. (#1312)

Sunset is more expensive than other stores. I have no transportation. (#1315)

Many women, however, shouldered the blame themselves for the household running out of food, feeling that they had improperly budgeted or mismanaged the food purchasing resources:

```
I mismanaged. I didn't figure right. (#1215)

Just didn't stretch it long enough. ((#1207)

...probably because I didn't budget well. (#1213)

...misbudgeting; not planning well. (#3316)

...not shopping properly. (#1218)
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Additionally, with these families there was little leeway in the food budget for unexpected company--a problem in three homes--or the now ex-husband who drank up the food money, or those months when food costs were higher. There was especially no cushion for those women who experienced a sudden job loss or whose food stamps were stolen.

CHAPTER 5

Summary and Recommendations

It was hoped from the beginning of this project that some practical and immediate use could be made of the research findings. This chapter presents a summary of those findings, as well as some policy recommendations derived from them. Strengths and limitations of the study which could not be appropriately addressed in the discussion are also presented at this point.

One of the most important things investigating a research question does is create more questions. Therefore, in this summary chapter are also recommendations for further research which suggested themselves during the course of this project. Also put forth here are the planned strategies for the dissemination of the findings and recommendations to advocates for the poor, politicians, fellow researchers in the area of hunger, and nutritionists. And, finally, some concluding remarks are offered which provide a "profile" of the women in this study and which attempt to place food bank use into the broader context of not only their lives, but the lives of nutrition professionals as well.

Summary of Results

A request for emergency food assistance identifies a family in crisis. Investigating possible differences in characteristics and behaviors of those who do and do not use the Ingham County Food Bank (ICFB) might help to improve interventions for households potentially at risk for no food in the home or for chronic users of the food bank.

Knowledge of differences in food bank users and non-users might also assist agencies in

screening for families at risk for a potential food crisis and help identify means to reach atrisk families not yet in any assistance system.

Although a preliminary picture of food bank users in this population began to emerge during the data analysis, this research was not able to clearly define why some women were non-users of the ICFB. The non-users actually appear to be a dichotomous group, with some members who will never have to use the food bank and others who are in all likelihood "pre-users".

However, this exploratory study of thirty-seven current food bank users, twentyone non-users and sixteen past users identified several trends and statistically significant
differences among the groups which might prove useful to investigate further in an
explanatory or predictive study. The statistically significant results included the following,
which have been informally categorized according to the order of the stated hypotheses
(pg. 33) and to potential use in screening (S) for families at serious risk for a food crisis in
the home or for intervention (I) to help reduce or eliminate the food crisis risk.

Demographics:

- O Households and families which included a single mother who was a food bank user were larger than those of non-users. This was because there was one more child in the households and not because those households were more likely to include a second adult. (S)
- O Past users were more likely to be currently in school than users. Users were significantly more likely to have plans to further their education than non-users, but users were somewhat more likely to have already gone back to school and obtained a high school diploma or equivalent. (S, I)
- O The children in the households of non-users were significantly younger then those in households of users and past users. (S)

Domestic Resource Management

- O Shopping at a convenience store occurred five times more often among users than non-users. Overall, users shopped for food more often in the last month than non-users. (S, I)
- Walking or taking public transportation to the grocery store was more likely for users and past users than non-users. Non-users were more likely to travel to the store by car. (S,I)

Cash Value Available to Purchase Food:

- O Never or only sometimes being able to purchase enough food for their households with available cash and food stamps was a problem reported significantly more often by food bank users than non-users. (S,I)
- O Food purchased with food stamps lasted non-users almost the whole month, while that purchased by users lasted an average of three weeks. (S)

Assistance Program Participation:

- O Being bothered or embarrassed about using food stamps was reported significantly more often by past users than users. Also, past users were almost four times as likely as current users to feel bothered or embarrassed about participating concurrently in food stamps and AFDC. (S,I)
- O Not one of sixteen past users stated that they would turn to the food bank first for assistance if they needed food. The reasons for this are not known. (S,I)
- O Using federal commodity foods from the Temporary Emergency Food Assistance program (TEFAP) was more likely for users than non-users. Users were also more likely than non-users to have heard of the Expanded Food and Nutrition Education program (EFNEP). (I)
- O Current and past users, on average, participated in one more assistance program than non-users. (I)

Ingham County Food Bank:

O Four (19%) of the non-users did not know about the ICFB. One of those four reported not being able to purchase enough food for herself and her child with available resources. (I)

Informal Social Support Network:

O Getting together with family and relatives for fun or relaxation was reported to happen more often for non-users than for users. Non-users also reported having more family and relatives living within fifteen minutes of them than did users and more whom they thought would be glad to give help or support. (S)

Meal Skipping Due to Lack of Food:

 Meal skipping by both the children and the mothers due to lack of food in the home was significantly more likely to occur among food bank users than among nonusers. (S)

Variables which approached statistical significance and likely merit further study include the difference in family size and whether or not the woman had her high school diploma or GED. Several factors presumed to possibly differentiate food bank users from non-users were in fact not found to do so in this study, although many of them provided good descriptors for the sample as a whole. These variables included transience, income, age, race, employment status, preplanning of food purchases, available utilities and food storage space, amount spent per capita on food, choice of the food bank as the first avenue of food assistance and interacting more frequently with family than with friends. It must be noted that on most variables there was a large range of responses within each food bank use category.

Notable descriptors found for the sample as a whole included:

1) The average household in this study spent \$175.00 per month in food stamps and cash on food or \$52.00 per person. This was 26% of the average family income

- and about half of what the typical family in the United States spends.
- 2) The average income for the entire study sample was \$538.00 in the month before the interview, which was 64% of the federal poverty level in 1989. With food stamps, the average family income was at 81% of poverty. AFDC was the principal source of support for 85% of the families.
- 3) The average family had moved at least once in the last twelve months. Some families had moved as many as ten times during the year.
- 4) African Americans appear to be disproportionately concentrated in this low-income population when compared to the racial composition of the city of Lansing as a whole. African Americans were three times more prevalent among food bank users than among the city's general population.

Implications for Policy

EFNEP, or the Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program, works directly with low-income homemakers with young children on many of the food resource management problems revealed by this study (Synectics Corporation, 1979). It is a program which teaches the necessary skills for managing limited family food resources and has a proven record of success. Yet, it is a program that is not readily available to everyone who needs it because of consistent shortfalls in Federal funding. This study demonstrates that a substantial need for programs such as EFNEP exists.

Affordable, accessible, trustworthy child care is vital for these women if they are to be able to either complete their education or work to support their families. As it now stands, many of them must put their lives on hold and rely on the government to support their families until the last child is in school full-time. Also, for those women who want to and are able to work, it must be economically advantageous for them to do so. These

women should not be required to take the risk of putting their families in further economic jeopardy because they want to work.

Food stamps, in most cases, are not meant to be 100% of a family's food purchasing resources. However, with what little cash many of these families have available to add to their stamps to purchase food, food stamps are not adequate. This shorfall can especially be felt in the summertime, when school-aged children are eating more meals at home. The basis for determining food stamp allotments must be reexamined, anchored in reality not theory.

Strengths and Limitations of the Study

Several aspects of this study were both its strengths and its limitations:

Ouestionnaire

The questionnaire was broad-based, with input from experts in all the relevant areas covered. This document allowed an investigation of a broad range of issues which might impact on food availability in the family. However, in order to keep the interview time with the subjects of reasonable length, in-depth questioning in any one area was not feasible. It must be kept in mind that this study was exploratory in nature and one of its purposes was to reveal what areas warranted further, in-depth examination.

For the purposes of efficient data collection, the majority of questions were quantitative in nature. This provided objective data so often lacking in other studies of food assistance use. However, this type of investigation cannot explain individual behavior as well as more qualitative, open-ended questioning might. Fortunately, the anecdotal responses of the subjects, solicited or offered voluntarily, did much to provide some depth to the results.

Some problems existed with individual questions which could easily be corrected if those particular questions were used in future research. Problems with wording of a few

questions made some of the data unusable in the final analyses (eg., Q#65). Also, offering restricted answer categories, such as "close, not so close" as opposed to "very close, somewhat close, not so close, not close at all" (Q#41) lead to not only the loss of information from the subject, but also to unexpected difficulties in data analysis. A serious omission on the questionnaire was that there was no question asking directly why users and past users had had to use the food bank the last time. An example of the questionnaire with revisions is offered in Appendix J.

The sample

The process used to obtain the sample, a door-to-door census with call-backs, was expensive, especially in terms of time. The decision to do the sampling in this manner was not reached lightly. Drawing a sample from assistance program rolls or school enrollment lists might have been employed. However, it was agreed that the census method was the only way of reaching those families who were not in any of the major assistance programs or who did not have school age children.

Most of the interviewers were not required to keep detailed records of time spent in the field, so it was difficult to estimate person hours required to obtain each interview. However, there were many weeks when in 15 to 21 team hours only one or no interviews were obtained. Most interviews took two hours to complete, one hour for the portion discussed in this thesis and one hour for a nutrition assessment of the mother and one of her children, results of which will be presented elsewhere. Additional time was needed for many of the interviews because one or more call-backs were required to complete both parts.

The stability of the statistics would have been improved with a larger sample size, particularly in the non-user and past user groups. Increasing the maximum age for the youngest child in the household to ten or twelve years would have increased the pool of

subjects available and allowed more in-depth comparisons of the effect of the childrens' ages on food availability in the home.

Suggestions for Future Research

As with most research, particularly exploratory research, more questions were generated with this study than were answered. What follows here are recommendations from the researchers involved in this work, as well as other interested parties, of possible areas for future examination.

- 1) A study similar to the current one needs to be conducted with a larger sample size based on power analysis using data from this study. This follow-up study should use a revised questionnaire based on the findings of this study (see Appendix J for an example), focused on the best discriminators (such as frequency of shopping, the family informal support network, educational status, transportation to the grocery store, demographics, meal skipping) and using more in-depth, qualitative questions.
- 2) A multi-community study, where assistance resources varied in quality and quantity between areas, would be of interest, as would a study contrasting assistance use by persons in urban and rural areas.
- 3) This study demonstrated the need for a long-term follow-up of non-users to determine the incidence of future food bank use in this sub-sample and the precipitating factors of that use.
- 4) Vital is an in-depth profile of past users to assess their current food security and also to attempt to answer the question of why they are reluctant to return to the food bank for assistance.
- 5) A comparison of single mothers who have only older children with those who have only younger children would be of interest. It would be done to investigate the

- differences in coping strategies and food problems related to the children's ages, such as the differing appetites of a two year old and a twelve year old, and also potentially the mothers' ages and experiences.
- It has been suggested that a study of homeless single mothers and their children concerning issues related to food security would be of importance. Although difficult to conduct because of problems locating and accessing the population, a study such as this could prove to be worthwhile in documenting the unique needs and problems of this growing population. The current study examined only non-homeless families.
- A comparison of the social support network questions with comparable data collected in studies of the general population of the greater Lansing, MI, area and the support needs of parents of handicapped children could provide further insights into the significance of family and friend network in the lives of all these groups.
- 8) There is a need to examine in depth the nutrient adequacy of the diets these types of households are currently obtaining with available food dollars. Knowledge gained from this research could be applied in programs such as EFNEP to develop the most practical interventions for improving the diets without increasing the cost.

Strategies for Dissemination of the Findings

In order to disseminate the results of this research to those who can best make use of the findings, the following avenues will be pursued.

- O A one page fact sheet will be developed for use in conjunction with the following strategies as well for distribution on its own to interested parties.
- Verbal presentations will be given to local and state nutrition groups and hunger coalitions (e.g., Food & Nutrition Advisory Commission, Nutritionists and Dietitians in Official Public Health Agencies, Ingham County Food Bank Board, annual WIC Conference).

- O An executive summary will be developed for distribution to local, state and federal policy makers.
- O A verbal or written presentation of the results will be made to the Lansing School District's Board of Education, focusing on the need to make child care available if women are to be able to return to school.
- O Poster presentations on preliminary results have already been conducted at the annual meetings of the Michigan Dietetics Association and the Michigan Home Economics Association and at the first annual fall meeting of the American Institute of Nutrition. The final results have presented as a poster at the annual meeting of the American Public Health Association.
- O Articles will be submitted for consideration to peer-reviewed public health, nutrition and possibly sociology journals.
- O Results of the study will be submitted to appropriate national and statewide organization newsletters for dissemination to members of those organizations.
- O Personal meetings will be held with the local directors of the Ingham County Food Bank and the Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program to discuss the general findings and also data collected specifically for those organizations.

Conclusions

Although for the purposes of scientific study it is easiest to collect and analyze data on a group basis, it must never be forgotten that a family's ability to maintain an adequate food supply and their decision to turn to the emergency food assistance system when in need are complex and individual. Even though there were distinct differences between the food bank use categories, within each group there was a range of potential risk among the individual families for no food in the home. To most effectively serve families at risk for a food crisis in the home, each family must be evaluated on its own merits.

However, it was stated in the introduction to this study that one of the outcomes of this investigation might be to assist agencies in screening for potential risk. Because of the small sample size and restricted sampling frame, it is difficult to generalize the results of this study to the general population. However, given these caveats and logically assuming that food bank use is a good proxy for a food crisis in the home, the following provisional

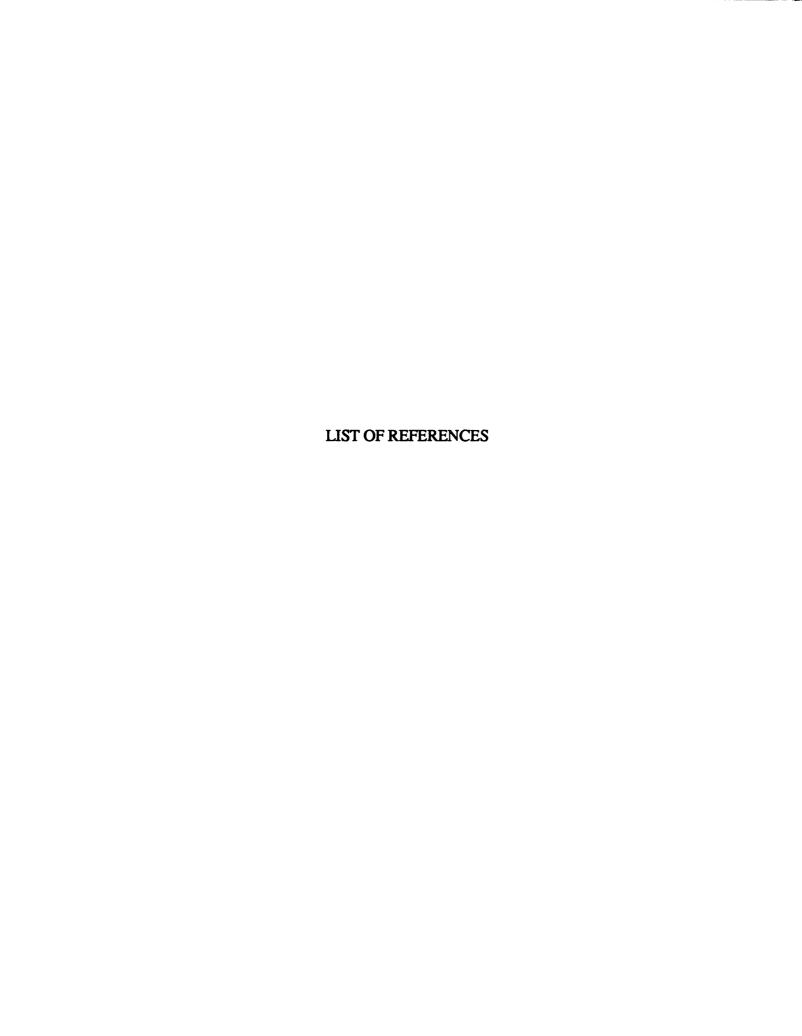
description of a typical food bank user in Ingham County, Michigan, is provided.

The typical food bank user has two children and has never married. She does not have her high school diploma or equivalent and is not currently in school. The woman is not working and feels she does not have the skills to get a job that would make it economically feasible to get off welfare. Furthering her education or looking for even a minimum wage job is not possible at this time because she cannot afford child care. Even if she could access day care, she is afraid of what might happen to her children, given what she has seen in the newspapers and on TV about day care facilities. The family's income is significantly below the federal poverty guidelines, even with AFDC and food stamps. The single mother says she is not bothered or embarrassed about being on public assistance and, indeed, is probably participating in several different programs. To get to the grocery store she most likely has to walk or take the bus and she shops for food frequently, especially at small neighborhood convenience stores. However, she reports that she can only purchase three weeks worth of food using just her food stamps and at best, even with added cash, can only purchase enough food for her household some of the time. She says she would turn to her family or relatives first if she needed food or help buying food, but she feels only three relatives would gladly help her out if she asked and only two relations actually live close by.

If poverty level income is the minimum income necessary to meet basic needs and the average income of the families in this study at 81% of the poverty level (which is comparable to all families in Michigan relying on AFDC and food stamps for most of their income), it must be concluded that the holes in the Federal safety net of assistance programs are indeed large enough for almost any low-income single mother and her children to fall through. These are families who, for the most part, are living "on the brink". One of the greatest barriers to these woman improving their lives and the lives of their families, both in terms of food security and otherwise, is lack of access to affordable child care where the women feel their children are safe from harm. Women who want to attend school and want work must stay at home on public assistance in order to care for their pre-school children because they have no other choice.

This study demonstrates why nutritionists must look beyond the aspects of a person's life that directly and obviously impact on his/her diet or nutritional status.

Nutrition professionals must not only have the ability to assist in applying the necessary band-aid solutions to an acute problem such as no food in the home, but they must possess the skills and knowledge to identify, advocate for and work toward long-term solutions of the larger and seemingly unrelated problems which directly or indirectly impact on food access and availability in the home.



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APPENDIX A

Hunger and Emergency Food Assistance Bibliography

APPENDIX A

Domestic Hunger and Food Assistance Bibliography:

A Selection of Reports, Studies, Writings and Federal Hearings

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APPENDIX B

Food Closets Within the Lansing City Limits

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FOOD CLOSETS WITHIN THE LANSING, MICHIGAN, CITY LIMITS

# households served in 1988	# households served in 1989	% change 1988-1989
712	1,042	+46.5
179	183	+2.0
649	1,022	+57.5
171	236	+38.0
363	193	-47.0
3,260	3,526	+8.0
250	275	+10.0
206	305	+48.0
6	1	-83.0
47	57	+21.0
427	30	-93.0
1,261	1,301	+3.0
1,819	3,235	+78.0
480	421	-12.0
264	519	+96.5
	served in 1988 712 179 649 171 363 3,260 250 206 6 47 427 1,261 1,819 480	served in 1988 served in 1989 712 1,042 179 183 649 1,022 171 236 363 193 3,260 3,526 250 275 206 305 6 1 47 57 427 30 1,261 1,301 1,819 3,235 480 421

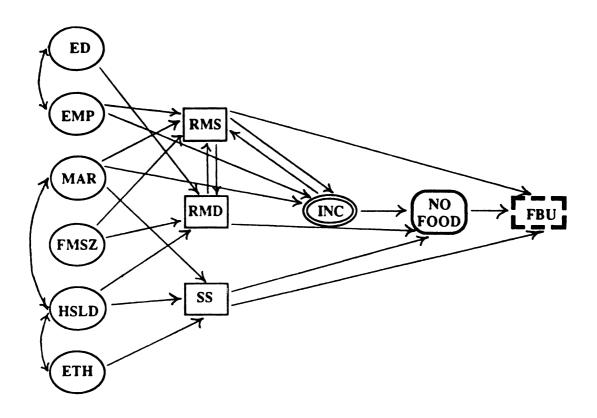
North Presbyterian Church 108 W. Grand River 48906	275	278	+1.0
Our Savior Lutheran Church 1601 W. Holmes Rd. 48910	69	22	-68.0
Potter Park United Methodist Chur 1001 Dakin 48912	ch 1,269	1,637	+29.0
Prince of Peace Baptist Church 2000 Forest 48910	39	25	-36.0
The Salvation Army 525 N. Pennsylvania 48912	2,136	2,340	+9.5
Seventh Day Adventist Community 5400 W. St. Joseph 48917	Center 88	75	-9.0
Trinity Lutheran Church 501 Saginaw 48933	46	36	-21.5
TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS SERVED IN LANSING	13,986	16,759	+20%

APPENDIX C

Conceptual Model of the Study Variables

144 APPENDIX C

A conceptual model of the study variables and their possible effect on food bank use. This model was used only in the initial design of the study and was never tested.



KEY

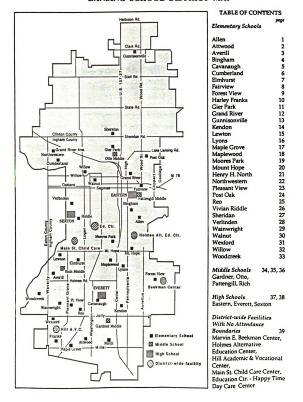
ED	Respondent's level of formal education	INC	Total family income
EMP	Employment status of respondent	MAR	Marital status of single mother divorced, widowed, never married)
ETH	Respondent's ethnicity/race	''	sivorcea, widowed, never married,
FBU	Food bank use	RMD	Resource management: domestic
FMSZ	Family size	RMS	Resource management: social welfare system
HSLD	Household make-up		social wellare system
	·	SS	Social Support

APPENDIX D

Boundary Maps of Selected School Attendence Areas

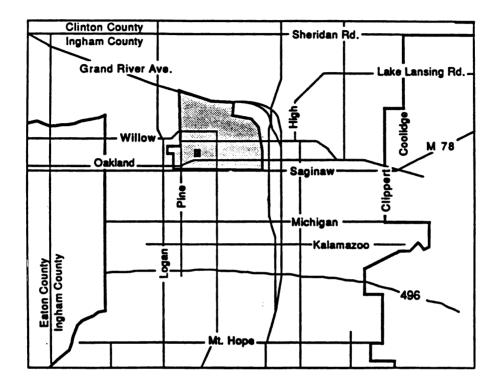
APPENDIX D

LANSING SCHOOL DISTRICT MAP



WALNUT ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Revised July, 1988



Walnut Elementary School 1012 North Walnut Street

The school service area of the Walnut School shall be within these described boundaries:

Commencing in the northwest at the intersection of Pine Street extended and North Grand River Avenue, southeast along North Grand River to Washington Avenue,

Thence south along Washington to the Grand River,

Thence south along the river to Saginaw Street,

Thence west along Saginaw to Sycamore Street,

Thence north along Sycamore to Daleford Avenue,

Thence west along Daleford to State Street,

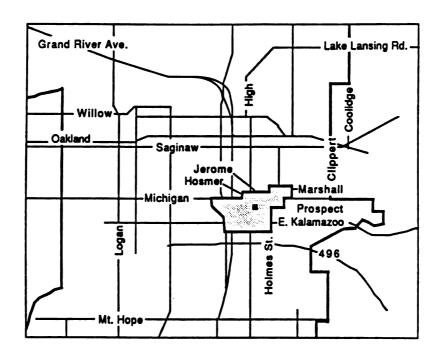
Thence north along State to Maple Street,

Thence east along Maple to Pine Street,

Thence north along Pine and Pine extended to the point of beginning.

BINGHAM ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Effective July, 1988



Bingham Elementary School 121 Bingham Street

The school service area of the Bingham School shall be within these described boundaries:

Commencing in the northwest at the intersection of the Grand River and Michigan Avenue, east along Michigan to Hosmer Street,

Thence north along Hosmer to Jerome Street,

Thence east along Jerome to Holmes Street,

Thence north along Holmes, including both sides of Holmes, to its end,

Thence due east to Marshall Street,

Thence south along Marshall to Michigan Avenue,

Thence west along Michigan to Clifford Street,

Thence south along Clifford, including both sides of Clifford, to Prospect Street,

Thence west along Prospect to Holmes Street,

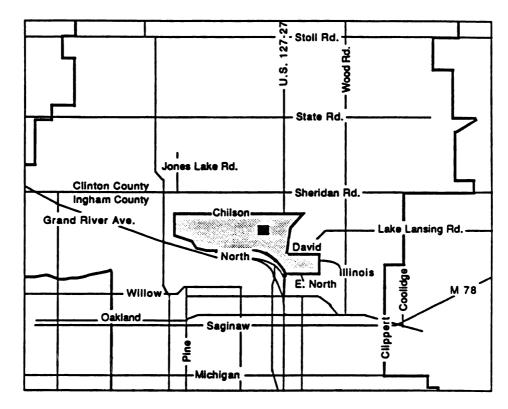
Thence south along Holmes to I-496,

Thence west along I-496 to the Grand River,

Thence north along the river to the point of beginning.

GIER PARK ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Revised July, 1988



Gier Park Elementary School 401 East Gier Street

The school service area of the Gier Park School shall be within these described boundaries:

Commencing in the northwest at the intersection of Jones Lake Road extended and Chilson Street extended, east along Chilson extended and Chilson to the NYCRR,

Thence south along the railroad to David Street extended,

Thence east along David, including both sides of David, to Illinois Avenue,

Thence south on Illinois, including both sides of Illinois, to East North Street,

Thence west on East North, including both sides of East North, to the railroad,

Thence south along the NYCRR to the PMRR,

Thence northwest along the railroad to North Street,

Thence west along North to North Grand River Avenue,

Thence west along North Grand River to Pine Street extended,

Thence north on Pine extended to the PMRR,

Thence northwest along the railroad to Jones Lake Road extended,

Thence north along Jones Lake Road extended to the point of beginning.

IN ADDITION, those students living in the former Hurd School area shall attend Gier Park.

ALSO, students living in the Hildebrandt housing project shall attend Gier Park (3112-3220 Turner Street - even side).

APPENDIX E

Pre-Survey Flyer

APPENDIX E

PRE-SURVEY FLYER

MSU FOOD USE SURVEY

An important survey is going to be conducted in your neighborhood in the next few days!

Who is Doing The Survey?

The survey is being conducted by people from the Department of Food Science and Human Mutrition at Michigan State University.

What is the Survey For?

We are trying to learn more about things that affect how single mothers obtain and use food in their homes. This information will help us and others in our efforts to improve services to single mothers.

What Do I Have To Do?

If your house is randomly selected, someone will come to your door and you will be asked a few simple questions to see if your household is the kind of household we're looking for. If it is, you will be asked to answer some more questions. It's up to you to decide whether or not you want to participate!

Who Will See My Answers? Will My Name Be Used?

Only the people conducting the study will ever see your questionnaire. Your answers will be completely confidential. Your name will not be connected with your answers in any way.

FOR MORE INFORMATION CALL:

* * * * * * * * * *

Dr. Sharon Hoerr or Pat Smith at MSU. Phone 355-7701.

APPENDIX F

Pre-Screening Questions

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PRE-SCREENING QUESTIONS

Hello, my name is an	d this is We are working on
an important study talking to single mothers ab	out how they obtain and use food for themselves and
their children. You probably received a fiyer in	your door from the Department of Food Science and
Human Nutrition at Michigan State University to	illing you we would be in your neighborhood.
[IF SPEAKING TO A YOUNGER WOMAN, ASK:]	[IF SPEAKING TO AN OLDER WOMAN OR A MAN, ASK:]
Are you a single mother?	is there a single mother in this household?
[IF "NO" ASK:]	[IF "NO", THANK RESPONDENT AND END]
[IF "YES" GO TO ***]	[IF "YES", ASK:]
	"May I speak to her?"
	IF NOT AVAILABLE, ASK WHEN WOULD BE A GOOD TIME TO STOP BY TO SEE HER.
	IF HOME, REPEAT INTRODUCTION THEN GO TO ***
*** I'd like to ask you a few preliminary que	stions to see if you fit our survey.
Do you have any bables or children age 6 or un	der living with you?
[IF "YES", CONTINUE. IF "NO", THANK T	HE PERSON AND END THE INTERVIEW.]
How big is your family?	
(SHOW DESIGNATED RESPONDENT INCOME CARD	APPROPRIATE FOR FAMILY SIZE.)
Mould you got your familials monthly become to	phone or below this amount
Would you say your family's monthly income is	BOOVE OF DEIOW this amount?
[IF "BELOW", CONTINUE. IF "ABOVE", TH	ANK THE PERSON AND END THE INTERVIEW.]
I would like to ask you a few more questions the	at won't take more than 40 minutes. Your house was
chosen at random to take part in this study and	if you choose to participate your answers will never
be identified with you or anyone in your househ	old. When we finish, to show our appreciation for
your help with this important study, you'll receive	ve a \$5.00 gift certificate to a local grocery store.
Would you be willing to help us with this survey	of food use?
[IF "NO" THANK RESPONDENT AND END INTER	RVIEW.]
[IF "YES", ASK:]	
"May we sit down somewhere?"	

APPENDIX G

Informed Consent Form

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INFORMED CONSENT FORM

You are being asked to participate in a study being conducted by Patricia Smith and Dr. Sharon Hoerr, from the Department of Food Science and Human Nutrition at Michigan State University. You are asked to answer as completely as you can a short questionnaire which I will read to you. Total interview time will be about 40 minutes. Any information collected from you will be kept in strict confidence at all times. Results of all the interviews will be grouped together and no individuals will be identified in any reports. In this manner, information regarding your participation will be kept confidential. Upon completion of the interview, you will receive a \$5.00 gift certificate to a local grocery store.

If you decide to participate, you may refuse to answer any questions you wish and you are free to withdraw consent and discontinue participation at any time. Your signature below indicates that you have decided to participate in this study and that you understand the information in this consent form. If you would like a copy of this consent form, one will be provided for you.

Date		
Participant's signature	 	
Interviewer' signature		

APPENDIX H

UCRIHS Letter of Approval

152 APPENDIX H

UCHRIS LETTER OF APPROVAL

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

UNIVERSITY COMMITTEE ON RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS (UCRIHS) 206 BERKEY HALL (517) 353-9738 EAST LANSING . MICHIGAN . 48824-1111

December 2, 1988

IRB# 88-481

Patricia K. Smith 165 S. Anthony Annex

Dear Ms. Smith:

Subject:

"PREDICTORS OF FOOD BANK USE IN A LOW-INCOME

POPULATION IRB# 88-481"

The above project is exempt from full UCRIHS review. The proposed research protocol has been reviewed by another committee member. The rights and welfare of human subjects appear to be protected and you have approval to conduct the research.

You are reminded that UCRIHS approval is valid for one calendar year. If you plan to continue this project beyond one year, please make provisions for obtaining appropriate UCRIHS approval one month prior to December 2, 1989,

Any changes in procedures involving human subjects must be reviewed by UCRIHS prior to initiation of the change. UCRIHS must also be notified promptly of any problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.) involving human subjects during the course of the work.

Thank you for bringing this project to my attention. If I can be of any future help, please do not hesitate to let me know.

Sincerely,

John K. Hudzik, Ph.D.

Chair, UCRIHS

JKH/sar

cc: S. Hoerr

APPENDIX I

Questionnaire

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FOOD USE SURVEY

		Resp	onde	nt Code		
		Intervie	— ewer	Neighborhood	ir	nterview
		Reco	ord of	f Calls		
Call	Date	Time		Outcome		Initials
				Time	Intervi	ew Started
						a.m./p.m.

This is a survey looking at how single mothers get and use food in their homes. I also want to talk about different things that can affect how and where a family gets food or things that might keep them from having enough food. Before we begin, I need to read to you this informed consent form and you and I both have to sign it. This is just to let the people back at the office know that I have explained the survey to you and that you voluntarily ageed to participate. (READ INFORMED CONSENT AND OBTAIN R'S SIGNATURE)

A LOT OF THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ASK ABOUT FOOD USE IN YOUR <u>HOUSEHOLD</u>. WHEN I TALK ABOUT YOUR HOUSEHOLD, I MEAN EVERYBODY WHO LIVES IN THIS HOUSE AND REGULARLY BUYS FOOD AND SHARES MEALS <u>TOGETHER</u>.

1.	1. INCLUDING YOURSELF, YOUR CHILDREN, RELATIVES OR OTHER PEOPLE WHO A REGULAR PART OF THE HOUSEHOLD, BUT NOT INCLUDING ANY CHILDREN WHO FROM HOME, HOW MANY PEOPLE LIVE IN YOUR HOUSEHOLD RIGHT NOW?	RE A D LIVE AWAY
2.	2. THINKING ABOUT ALL THE TIMES SOMEONE HAS GONE TO THE STORE TO BUY FOUR HOUSEHOLD IN THE LAST 4 WEEKS OR MONTH, HOW MANY TIMES WOUL SOMEONE WENT TO BUY FOOD AT QUALITY DAIRY, THE MAGIC MARKET, OR THE MAGIC MARKET, OR T	D YOU SAY
	A. In the last month, out of all the times someone went to the store to buy food for the many times would you say someone went to Shoprite, Krogers, or Meijers?	household, how
	B. Where else did someone go to buy food for the household in the last month?	
	C. How many times was food bought there?	
3.	3. AT WHICH STORE DID YOUR HOUSEHOLD BUY MOST OF ITS FOOD IN THE LAST 4	WEEKS?
	A. Why did your household buy most of its food at? (CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY)	_
	Products they like 1	
	Better prices than other stores. 2	
	Easy to get to 3	
	Accepts food stamps 4	
	Accepts WIC 5	
	Sales 6	
	Other (Specify)	
١.	WHO DOES MOST OF THE GROCERY SHOPPING IN YOUR HOUSEHOLD?	
	Respondent 1	
	Other adult 2	
	Teenage child 3	
	Other 4	

5.	WHAT'S YOUR (THEIR) ONE MAIN SOUF	RCE OF TRANSPORTATION TO THE GROCERY STORE?
		Own car (Ask B) 1
		Walk (Ask A) 2
		Bus (Ask A) 3
		Taxi (Ask A) 4
		Friend or relative drives (Ask A) 5
		Borrow a car (Ask A) 6
		Bus there, taxi back (Ask A) 7
		Other (Specify, then ask A) 8
	A. Do you have a car that runs?	
		Yes (Ask B) 1
		No (Go to Q. 6) 2
	B. Is the car reliable?	
		Yes 1
		No 2
		NA 9
•		ODDING LICT WILITH ODGCEDV CHODDINGS WOLLD VOLL
6.		OPPING LIST WHEN GROCERY SHOPPING? WOULD YOU EVER, SOMETIMES, FREQUENTLY, ALMOST ALWAYS, OR
6.	SAY YOU (THEY) NEVER, ALMOST NE	
б.	SAY YOU (THEY) NEVER, ALMOST NE	EVER, SOMETIMES, FREQUENTLY, ALMOST ALWAYS, OR
б.	SAY YOU (THEY) NEVER, ALMOST NE	EVER, SOMETIMES, FREQUENTLY, ALMOST ALWAYS, OR Never
6.	SAY YOU (THEY) NEVER, ALMOST NE	Never
6.	SAY YOU (THEY) NEVER, ALMOST NE	Never
6.	SAY YOU (THEY) NEVER, ALMOST NE	Never
6.	SAY YOU (THEY) NEVER, ALMOST NE	Never
7.	SAY YOU (THEY) NEVER, ALMOST NE ALWAYS USE A SHOPPING LIST? HOW OFTEN DOES SOMEONE IN YOUR	Never
	SAY YOU (THEY) NEVER, ALMOST NE ALWAYS USE A SHOPPING LIST? HOW OFTEN DOES SOMEONE IN YOUR GROCERY STORE ARE MADE? WOU	Never
	SAY YOU (THEY) NEVER, ALMOST NE ALWAYS USE A SHOPPING LIST? HOW OFTEN DOES SOMEONE IN YOUR GROCERY STORE ARE MADE? WOU	Never
	SAY YOU (THEY) NEVER, ALMOST NE ALWAYS USE A SHOPPING LIST? HOW OFTEN DOES SOMEONE IN YOUR GROCERY STORE ARE MADE? WOU	Never
	SAY YOU (THEY) NEVER, ALMOST NE ALWAYS USE A SHOPPING LIST? HOW OFTEN DOES SOMEONE IN YOUR GROCERY STORE ARE MADE? WOU	Never
	SAY YOU (THEY) NEVER, ALMOST NE ALWAYS USE A SHOPPING LIST? HOW OFTEN DOES SOMEONE IN YOUR GROCERY STORE ARE MADE? WOU	Never

- 8. WHAT ARE SOME THINGS THAT MAKE GROCERY SHOPPING EASY OR HARD FOR YOU?
- 9. I'M GOING TO READ A LIST OF THINGS PEOPLE BUY AT THE GROCERY STORE. FIRST, JUST TELL ME WHETHER YOU (THE PERSON WHO DOES THE GROCERY SHOPPING) BUY(S) IT OR NOT. THEN TELL ME WHETHER YOU (THEY) USUALLY BUY(S) THE NATIONAL BRAND, THE STORE BRAND OR THE GENERIC BRAND. NATIONAL BRANDS ARE LIKE DEL MONTE OR MAXWELL HOUSE. STORE BRANDS ARE LIKE FOOD CLUB OR SPARTAN. THE GENERIC BRAND IS THE KIND THAT HAS THE BLACK AND WHITE LABELS.

(Probe: "DO YOU NORMALLY BUY THE NATIONAL BRAND, THE STORE BRAND, OR THE GENERIC BRAND?")

	DOESN'T BUY	RARELY BUYS	NATIONAL BRAND	STORE BRAND	GENERIC BRAND
Macaroni or spaghetti noodles	1		2	3	4
Apple juice	1		2	3	4
Cold cereal	1		2	3	4
Peanut butter	1		2	3	4
Canned Green Beans	1		2	3	4
Cooking Oil	1		2	3	4
Shortening ("the white stuff in the can")	1		2	3	4
Jams or Jellies	1		2	3	4
Canned Soup	1		2	3	4

	A. (IF BUYS 5 OR MORE OF C	NE TYPE OF BRAND)
	Do you usually buy	brands more than the other brands?
		Yes (Ask B) 1
		No (Go to Q.10) 2
	B. What are the reasons you usually	buybrands more than the other brands?
10.	WHEN FOOD ITEMS COME IN DIFF MEDIUM, OR LARGE SIZE?	ERENT SIZE PACKAGES, DO YOU USUALLY BUY THE SMALL,
	S	mall (Ask A) 1
	M	edium (Ask A) 2
	La	arge (Ask A) 3
	De	epends on the product (Go to Q.11) 4

	A. Why do you usually buy the size?
11.	ABOUT HOW MUCH DID YOUR HOUSEHOLD SPEND ON GROCERIES IN THE LAST $\underline{\text{TWO}}$ WEEKS OR LAST MONTH? THIS AMOUNT SHOULD INCLUDE FOOD STAMPS, IF YOU GET THEM. AN ESTIMATE OF HOW MUCH YOU SPENT IS FINE.
	\$ 2 wks/mth
	A. How much of the \$ was food stamps?
	\$
12.	IS THIS ABOUT WHAT YOU USUALLY SPEND EVERY TWO WEEKS (EVERY MONTH)?
	Yes (Go to Q.13) 1
	No (Ask A & B) 2
	Don't know (Go to Q.13) 3
	A. What made these last two weeks (month) different?
	B. How much would you say your household <u>normally</u> spends on groceries in two weeks (a month)?
	\$
13.	DOES THIS INCLUDE MONEY SPENT FOR BABY FORMULA?
	Yes (Ask A) 1
	No (Go to Q.14) 2
	A. About how much is spent every two weeks (month) for baby formula?
	\$
14.	DOES THE \$ SPENT AT THE GROCERY STORE OR MARKET INCLUDE PURCHASES OF NON-FOOD ITEMS LIKE DISH SOAP, PET FOOD, BEER, CIGARETTES, PAPER PRODUCTS, OR GARBAGE BAGS?
	Yes (Ask A) 1
	No (Go to Q.15)
	Don't know (Go to Q.15) 3
	A. About how much was spent on these non-food items? Again, a rough estimate will be fine.
	\$
	Don't know001

	TO SPEND?		,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	D FOR TO		SEHOLD W	VIIH THE MO	MEY YOU HAVE
			Y	' es (Go	to Q.1	6)	2	
			N	lo (As l	A)		0	
			s	ometimes,	but not al	ways (A.	sk A) 1	
		more money			uld need t	to spend e	very two weel	ks (every month) to
	·					\$_		
16.	LET'S TALK A LI CHILDREN LIV 18.							T, HOW MANY ER THE AGE OF
					_	(If	only 1 ch	nild ask A)
	A. What is his or	her first nam	e?					
					_			
17.	HOW MANY ME	ALS A DAY [OOES		EAT?			
				OR				
	HOW MANY MEA BEGINNING WI	LS A DAY D	O THE CH	LDREN E	AT? TELL	ME ABOU	TEACH CHIL	LD INDIVIDUALLY,
	MEALS HE OR						3L AND INC	TOW MALE
		One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Constantly	
	Age	Meal	Meals	Meals	Meals	Meals	Eating	
	Age			Meals		Meals		
	Child 1			Meals		Meals		
	Child 1 Child 2			Meals		Meals		
	Child 1 Child 2 Child 3			Meals		Meals		
	Child 1 Child 2 Child 3 Child 4			Meals		Meals		
	Child 1 Child 2 Child 3 Child 4 Child 5			Meals		Meals		
	Child 1 Child 2 Child 3 Child 4			Meals		Meals		
	Child 1 Child 2 Child 3 Child 4 Child 5	Meal	Meals	and it	Meals is les		Eating	old, now go
	Child 1 Child 2 Child 3 Child 4 Child 5 Child 6	Meal	Meals	and it	Meals is les		Eating	old, now go
	Child 1 Child 2 Child 3 Child 4 Child 5 Child 6	Meal ild in ho only abo	Meals usehold ut day	and it	is les	ss than	eating one year	_
to	Child 1 Child 2 Child 3 Child 4 Child 5 Child 6 Child 6 Conly one child 2 Conly one child 3 Child 6 Conly one child 3 Child 5 Child 6	Meal ild in ho only abo	Meals usehold ut day	and it	is les	ss than	eating one year	_
to	Child 1 Child 2 Child 3 Child 4 Child 5 Child 6 Child 6 Conly one child 2 Conly one child 3 Child 6 Conly one child 3 Child 5 Child 6	Meal ild in ho only abo	Meals usehold ut day	and it	is lesals)	ss than EFOR_	eating one year	_

	A. What	are typical snacks	(tnat the	e chiliaren)	eat(s)? (C	circle all that apply)
Toas	st	Donuts C	hips	J	ello	Processed Meat
Ice Cream		Muffins F	ruit/Juice	s	andwiches	Peanut Butter
Kool	aid	Soup P	opsicle	С	heese	Other (specify)
Crac	kers	Cake C	andy	C	ookies	
19. DOES_ THE I		(DO ANY OF THE OLLOWING PROGRAMS?	CHILDRE	N IN YOU	R HOUSE	HOLD) GET MEALS FROM ANY OF
			YES	NO	NA_	NUMBER OF KIDS RECEIVING
		Free or reduced price school breakfast	1	2	9	
		Free or reduced price school lunch	1	2	9	
		Day care meals	1	2	9	
		Summer feeding program	1	2	9	
		Headstart	1	2	9	
20.	SKIP A	PAST THREE OR FOUR WE INY MEALS BECAUSE THE	RE WASN	T ENOUG Yo N	SH FOOD 86 (Ask 0 (Go t	ANY OF THE CHILDREN) HAD TO N THE HOUSE? A) 1 o Q. 22) 0
	А. ПО	w many times has this happ	eneo in the			1
						es 2
				Five to	seven tin	nes 3
				More	than seven	times 4
				Almos	t daily	5
				Every	day	6
21.	NOW, THERE	HINKING BACK OVER THE (HAVE ANY OF THE C VASN'T ENOUGH FOOD IN	LAST <u>6 M</u> CHILDREN) THE HOU	HAD TO SE?	SKIP MEA	, HAS LS ANY OTHER TIMES BECAUSE
						A) 1 o Q.23) 0
				1	J 100 L	∪ ¥.23/ ♥

	A. About now many times in the last 6 months has this happened?
	Once or twice 1
	Three or four times 2
	Five to seven times 3
	Eight to ten times 4
	More than ten times 5
	Almost daily 6
	Everyday 7
	(Go to Q.23)
22.	NOW, THINKING BACK OVER THE LAST <u>6 MONTHS.</u> SINCE, HAS (HAVE ANY OF THE CHILDREN) HAD TO SKIP MEALS BECAUSE THERE WASN'T ENOUGH FOOD IN THE HOUSE?
	Yes (Ask A) 1
	No (Go to Q.23) 0
	A. About how many times in the last 6 months has this happened?
	Once or twice 1
	Three or four times 2
	Five to seven times 3
	Eight to ten times 4
	More than ten times 5
	Almost daily 6
	Everyday 7
23.	IN THE LAST FOUR WEEKS, HAVE YOU EVER SENT (THE CHILDREN) OVER TO A FRIEND'S OR RELATIVE'S HOME TO EAT BECAUSE THERE WASN'T ENOUGH FOOD IN THE HOUSE?
	Yes (Ask A) 1
	No (Go to Q.24) 0
	A. About how many times in the four weeks has this happened?
	Once or twice 1
	Three or four times 2
	Five to seven times 3
	More than seven times 4
	Almost daily 5
	Everyday 6

24.	IN THE PAST THREE OR FOUR WEEKS, HAVE YOU, YOURSELF, HAD TO SKIP MEALS BECAUSE THERE WASN'T ENOUGH FOOD IN THE HOUSE?						
	Yes (Ask A) 1						
	No (Go to Q.26) 0						
	A. How many times has this happened in the past four weeks?						
	Once or twice 1						
	Three or four times 2						
	Five to seven times 3						
	More than seven times 4						
	Almost daily 5						
	Everyday 6						
25.	NOW, THINKING BACK OVER THE LAST <u>SIX MONTHS</u> , SINCE, HAVE THERE BEEN ANY OTHER TIMES THAT YOU, YOURSELF, HAVE HAD TO SKIP MEALS BECAUSE THERE WASN'T ENOUGH FOOD IN THE HOUSE?						
	Yes (Ask A) 1						
	No (Go to Q.27) 0						
	A. How many times in the last 6 months have you had to do this?						
	Once or twice 1						
	Three or four times 2						
	Five to seven times 3						
	Eight to ten times 4						
	More than ten times 5						
	Almost daily 6						
	Everyday 7						
	(Go to Q.27)						
26.	NOW, THINKING BACK OVER THE LAST <u>SIX MONTHS</u> , SINCE, HAVE YOU, YOURSELF, HAD TO SKIP MEALS BECAUSE THERE WASN'T ENOUGH FOOD IN THE HOUSE?						
	Yes (Ask A) 1						
	No (Go to Q.27) 0						
	A. How many times in the last 6 months have you had to do this?						
	Once or twice 1						
	Three or four times 2						
	Five to seven times 3						
	Eight to ten times 4						
	More than ten times 5						
	Almost daily 6						
	Everyday 7						

27.	IN THE LAST THREE OR FOUR WEEKS, HAVE YOU, YOURSELF, EVER EATEN AT A FRIEND'S OR RELATIVE'S HOME BECAUSE THERE WASN'T ENOUGH FOOD IN THE HOUSE?
	Yes (Ask A) 1
	No (Go to next instruction) 0
	A. How many times in the four weeks did you do this?
	Once or twice 1
	Three or four times 2
	Five to seven times 3
	More than seven times 4
	Almost daily 5
	Everyday 6
(I	f R or any of the children had to skip any meals at any time, ask
·	Q.28. Otherwise, skip to Q.29)
	• • •
28.	WHAT IS THE MAIN REASON YOU DIDN'T HAVE ENOUGH FOOD IN THE HOUSE? (IF SAYS "RAN OUT OF MONEY" ASK "WHAT WAS THE MAIN REASON YOU RAN OUT OF MONEY? IF SAYS "RAN OUT OF FOOD" ASK "WHAT WAS THE MAIN REASON YOU RAN OUT OF FOOD?")
	No transportation to grocery store 01
	Ran out of Food Stamps 02
	Ran out of money (Circle only if no further explanation on lack of money given)
	Applied for assistance and was waiting to receive 04
	Recent job loss 05
	Unusual expenses (Specify) 06
	Not enough money left after paying the bills 07
	Didn't receive child support payment 08
	Other (Specify)
	NA 99
29.	IN THE LAST 6 MONTHS, SINCE, HAVE YOU EVER BORROWED MONEY TO BUY FOOD BECAUSE YOU DIDN'T HAVE ENOUGH FOOD IN THE HOUSE AND COULDN'T AFFORD TO BUY MORE?
	Yes 2
	No 1
	Doesn't recall or want to say 0

30.	OTHER OUT WHEN YOU DON'T HAVE ENOUGH FOOD IN THE HOUSE AND CAN'T AFFORD TO BUY MORE?							
		Yes		1				
		No		0				
31.	LET'S TAKE A LOOK NOW AT SOME OF WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING WORKIN NOW? DO YOU HAVE A WORKING (RAPPROPRIATE BOX):	NG APPLIANCES DO YOU	HAVE IN	YOUR HON	ME RIGHT			
			YES	NO				
		Refrigerator	1	0				
		Oven	1	0				
		Freezer	1	0				
		Microwave	1	0				
		Stove or range	1	0 (Ask	A)			
		Has none of the above	0	1				
	A. Do you have a working:		YES	NO NO				
		Hotplate	1	0				
			1	0				
		Toaster Oven						
32.	WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING THINGS DO NAME AND CHECK THE APPROPRI		ME RIGH	TNOW? (R	EAD EACH			
			YES	NO NO	٦			
	Enough room to store food		1	0				
	Running water		1	0]			
	Hot water		1	0				

1

1

0

Yes...... 1 No..... 0

Has none of the above

0

0

Electricity

A kitchen sink drain that works

33. DO YOU HAVE A WORKING TELEPHONE?

SINGLE-PARENTS MIGHT SOMETIMES NEED A LITTLE HELP OR SUPPORT FROM NEIGHBORS OR FRIENDS OR FAMILY. HELP IS THINGS LIKE LOANING OR GIVING FOOD OR MONEY, BABYSITTING, OR GIVING SOMEONE A RIDE AND SUPPORT IS THINGS LIKE A SHOULDER TO CRY ON WHEN YOU'RE DOWN OR SOMEONE TO KEEP YOU COMPANY. I WANT TO LOOK AT BOTH THE HELP AND SUPPORT YOU GIVE AND GET AND THE PEOPLE INVOLVED IN HELP AND SUPPORT. ANY INFORMATION YOU CAN GIVE ME IS VERY IMPORTANT TO OUR STUDY ON FOOD USE AND SINGLE MOTHERS.

34.	THINKING ABOUT ALL YOUR CLOSE FRIENDS?	FRIENDS FIRST, HOW MANY OF THEM WOULD YOU CONSIDER
		(If "0", go to 38)
	A. How many of your close fri	iends live within fifteen minutes of you, either driving or walking?

35. (READ EACH ACTIVITY PRECEDED BY:) "WITH YOUR CLOSE FRIENDS, HOW MANY TIMES A WEEK OR A MONTH DO YOU..."

	Never	Less than once a month	1 to 3 times a month	About once a week	Several times a week	Every day	Don't recall or NA
Get or give help	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Get or give support	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Discuss problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Exchange advice	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Get together for fun or relaxation	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Talk on the phone	1	2	3	4	5	6	0

36.	DO.	YOUR	CLOSE	FRIENDS	KNOW EACH	OTHER?

Yes ((Ask	A)	1
No. (6	o to	37)	0

A.	How often would you say any of your close friends get together when you can't make it? Wo	ould
	you say they get together <u>often, sometimes, hardly ever,</u> or <u>never</u> ?	

Oileil	3
Sometimes	2
Hardly ever	1
Never	0

37. ARE ANY OF YOUR CLOSE FRIENDS ALSO GOOD FRIENDS WITH ANY OTHER MEMBERS OF YOUR FAMILY, OTHER THAN YOUR CHILDREN?

Yes..... 1

						No	o		
38.	THINK ABOUT YOUR J BY:) "WITH FAM YOU"								
		Never	Less than once a month	1 to 3 times a month	About once a week	Several times a week	Every day	Don't recall or NA	_
	Get or give help	1	2	3	4	5	6	0	
	Get or give support	1	2	3	4	5	6	0	
	Discuss problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	0	1
	Exchange								1
	advice Get together for	1	2	3	4	5	6	0	ł
	fun or relaxation		2	3	4	5	6	0	1
	Talk on the phone	1	2	3	4	5	6	o	
39 .	TELL ME WHETHER Y WITH THE FOLLOW I know I can call on me HOW MANY DIFFERE	ING STAT	EMENT:	or help or s	Strong Disagi Neutra Agree Strong	enever I ne gly disagre reeal	e2 00 0	2 1 0 1 2	
	SUPPORT IF YOU	ASKED?			_				
41.	WOULD YOU CONSID	ER YOUR	FAMILY A	CLOSE F	AMILY OF	R NOT SO	CLOSE?		
					C	close	1		
					V	lot so clos	e 0		
42.	HOW MANY OF YOUR WITHIN FIFTEEN MII	FAMILY (NUTES OF	OR RELATI	IVES, OTH IER DRIVI	IER THAN NG OR W	THOSE W ALKING?	/HO LIVE	WITH YOU	J, LIVE

43. IF YOU RAN OUT OF MONEY AND NEEDED FOOD OR DO OR WHO WOULD YOU CALL FIRST FOR HELP? (THEY TO YOU?)	
	Mother 01
	Father 02
	Sister 03
	Brother 04
	Other relative 05
	Friend 06
	Food bank 07
	Church 08
	Other Organization 09
	Other 10
THIS NEXT GROUP OF QUESTIONS LOOKS AT SOURCES OF BUYING IT AT THE GROCERY STORE. REMEMBER THAT YOU	
WILL IN NO WAY AFFECT YOUR ABILITY TO PARTICIPATE IN	ANY OF THE PROGRAMS WE'RE GOING TO
TALK ABOUT.	
44. DO YOU GET COMMODITY FOODS, LIKE THE FREE CI	HEESE OR DRIED MILK?
	es (Go to Q.45) 1
	o (Ask A) 2
A. What's the reason you don't get commodity foods?	
45. DO YOU USE ANY OF THE COMMUNITY KITCHENS OF	SOUP KITCHENS?
Y	88 (Go to Q.46) 1
N	o (Ask A) 2
A. What's the reason you don't use the community kitch	nens or soup kitchens?
46. HAVE YOU EVER HEARD OF EFNEP OR THE EXPAND PROGRAM?	ED FOOD AND NUTRITION EDUCATION
	Yes (Ask A) 1
	No (Go to Q. 47) 2
A. Have you ever gone through the EFNEP program?	
	Yes 1
	No 2
	(NA 9)

47.	HAVE YOU EVER HEARD OF WIC?	
		Yes (Ask A) 1
		No (Go to Q.48) 2
	A. Did you receive WIC any time in the last	year, since last?
		Yes (Ask B) 1
		No (Go to Q.48) 2
		(NA 9)
	B. Are you receiving WIC now?	
		Yes 1
		No 2
		(NA 9)
48.	HAVE YOU EVER HEARD OF THE FOOD BA	NK OR THE FOOD CLOSETS?
		Yes (Ask A-B) 1
		No (Go to Q. 49) 2
	A. How did you find out about the food bank	or food closet?
		Family 01
		Friends 02
		Caseworker/DSS 03
		More than one place 04
		M edia 05
		Other 06
		Don't recall 07
		(NA 99)
	B. Have you ever used the food bank or one	of the food closets?
		Yes (Ask D) 1
		No (Ask C) 2
		(NA 9)

C. What are the reasons you've never used the food bank or food closets?

(GO TO Q.49)

D.	. Have you used the food bank or a food closet anytime in the last year, since last?
	Yes (Ask E) 1
	No (Go to Q.49) 2
	(NA 9)
E.	. How many times?
F.	Have you used the food bank or a food closet anytime in the last six months, since?
	Yes (Ask G) 1
	No (Go to Q.49) 2
	(NA 9)
G	. How many times?
Н	. Where did you pick up your food?
	Yes (Ask A)
	A. What was this source (were these other sources)?
. Di	ID VOLUBEOEINE EOOD OTAANDO ANN TIME IN THE LACT ON MONTHO ONIOE
וט	ID YOU RECEIVE FOOD STAMPS ANY TIME IN THE LAST SIX MONTHS, SINCE Yes (Ask A)1
	No (Go to Q. 52) 2
	A. Are you receiving Food Stamps now?
	Yes (Ask B) 1
	No (Go to Q.51) 2
	(NA 9)
	B. Are you able to feed your family for the whole month on your Food Stamps?
	Yes 1
	No 2
	(NA 9)

	C.	How many weeks does the food you buy with your food stamps usually last?	
	D.	Do you add money to your Food Stamps so you can buy more food?	
		Yes (Ask E) 1	
		No (Ask F)2	
		Sometimes (Ask E) 3	
		Need to add, but don't have money (Ask F) 4	
		(NA9)
	E.	About how much money do you add?	
		\$ wk/mth	
	F.	Have you ever been bothered or embarassed about using foodstamps?	
		Yes (Ask G) 1	
		No (Go to Q.53) 2	
		(NA9)
	G.	What is it about food stamps that bothers or embarrasses you?	
		(Go to Q.53)	
51.	WHA	IT IS THE REASON YOU'RE NOT GETTING FOOD STAMPS NOW?	
		Doesn't need them 1	
		Not qualified any more 2	
		Waiting to receive after reapplying 3	
		Feels it's not worth the trouble 4	
		Other (Specify) 7	
		(Ask A)	
		Too embarassing (Ask B)	
		Feels it's charity or a handout (Go to Q.54) 6	
		(NA 9))
	A	Were you ever bothered or embarrassed about using food stamps?	
		Yes (Ask B) 1	
		No (Go to Q.53) 2	
		(NA 9))

B. What is it about food stamps that bothers or embarrasses you?

	(Go to Q.53)
52.	HAVE YOU EVER APPLIED FOR FOOD STAMPS?
	Yes (Ask A) 1
	No (Ask B) 2
	(NA 9)
	A. What is the reason you're not getting Food Stamps now?
	Not qualified (Go to Q.53)
	Applied and now waiting to receive (Go to Q.53) 2
	Other (Go to Q.53)
	(NA 9)
	B. What is the reason you've never applied for Food Stamps?
	Doesn't need them
	Doesn't think they're qualified 02
	Doesn't want to go through the hassle 03
	Can't fill out the forms
	Doesn't have transportation to go and apply 05
	Doesn't know about Food Stamps 06
	Feels it's "charity" or a "handout" (Go to Q. 53B) 07
	Other (Specify)
	(NA 99)
53.	TELL ME WHETHER YOU STRONGLY DISAGREE, DISAGREE, AGREE, OR STRONGLY AGRE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS:
	a. Food stamps are a handout. Strongly disagree 1
	Disagree 2
	Neutral 3
	Agree 4
	Strongly agree 5
	Judiyiy ayi 90 3

(NA..... 9)

	b. F	Food stamps are help that everyone who needs it has a right to receive.
		Strongly disagree 1
		Disagree 2
		Neutral 3
		Agree 4
		Strongly agree 5
		(NA 9)
54.	HAVI	E YOU EVER HEARD OF AFDC OR ADC, AID TO FAMILIES WITH DEPENDENT CHILDREN?
		Yes (Ask A) 1
		No (Go to Q.56) 2
	A.	Did you receive ADC any time in the last year, since last?
		Yes (Ask B) 1
		No (Go to Q.55) 2
	В.	Are you receiving ADC now?
		Yes (Ask D) 1
		No (Ask C) 2
		(NA 9)
	C.	What's the reason you're not getting ADC now?
	D.	Are (Were) you ever bothered or embarrassed about getting ADC?
		Yes (Ask E) 1
		No (Go to Q.55) 2
		(NA 9)
	E.	What is it that bothers(ed) or embarrasses(ed)you about ADC?

55.	TELL ME WHETHER YOU STRONGLY AGREE, AGREE, DIS WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS:	SAGREE, OR STRON	IGLY DISAGREE
	A. ADC is a handout.		
	Stro	ongly disagree	1
	Dis	agree	2
	Neu	utral	3
	Agr	'86 ·	4
	Stro	ongly agree	5
		(NA	9)
	B. ADC is help that everyone who needs it has a right to rec	eive.	
	Stro	ongly disagree	1
	Disa	agree	2
	Neu	utral ;	3
	Agr	ee 4	4
	Stro	ongly agree	5
		(NA	9)
COM	LIKE TO KNOW A LITTLE MORE ABOUT YOUR HOUSEHOLD AMPARE THE INFORMATION YOU'VE GIVEN ME WITH THE INF THE STUDY.		
56 .	ARE YOU THE HEAD OF THE HOUSEHOLD?		
	Yes	(Go to Q.57)	1
	No (Ask A) 2	2
	A. Who is the head of the household?		
	M	lother ¹	1
	B	oyfriend/fiance' 2	2
	F	emale friend	3
	0	ther 4	4
		(NA S	9)
57.	THINKING ABOUT ALL YOUR FAMILY MEMBERS IN THIS H HIGHER, LOWER, OR ABOUT THE SAME AS IT WAS LAST		R <u>FAMILY'S</u> INCOME
	н	igher 3	3
	Lo	ower 1	1
	Sa	ame 2	2

8.	WHAT WAS YO	UR FAMILY'S TOTAL INCOME F	FOR LAS	ST MON	TH, FOF	R	?
					\$_		
i9.	NEXT, I'M GOING TO READ YOU A LIST OF PLACES WHERE A FAMILY CAN GET INCOME. PLEASE TELL ME WHETHER OR NOT <u>LAST MONTH</u> YOU OR THE MEMBERS OF YOUR FAMILY IN THIS HOUSEHOLD GOT MONEY FROM EACH OF THESE PLACES. (READ EACH ITEM AND CHECK APPROPRIATE BOX)						
		each that was a source ers receive from			ow muc t mont		and your
			Yes	No	Don't know	Amount	ļ
		Salary or wages	1	2	3		
		Child support	1	2	3		
		SSI/disability	11	2	3		
		AFDC or ADC (If "yes", ask B after amount)	1	2	3		
		Unemployment	1	2	3		
		General assistance	1	2	3		
		Pension	1	2	3		
		Social Security	1	2	3		
		Workmen's compensation	1	2	3		
		Alimony	1	2	3		
		Selling blood or plasma	1	2	3		j
		Anything else, like savings or borrowed money or money from odd jobs	1	2	3		
		None of the above (Ask D)	1				•
	D. Door this on		-0				
	b. Does this arr	nount include vendored payment				4	
		Yes (As)					
		No (Go ba	ack to		_	9)	
	C. How much d	o you receive , not including ven	dored o	avmente	.7		
	O. How much o	o you receive , not modeling ven	00100 p	aymonte	'' C		
				(Go	back	to "Unemp	lovment
	D. What was yo	ur main source of income last mo	onth?	,50	~ ~~		

60.	IS THERE ANYONE ELSE WHO HELPS OUT WITH TH	E HOUSEHOLD'	S BILLS?
		Yes	1
		No	0
61.	DID YOU HAVE ANY OTHER SOURCES OF INCOME L	AST MONTH THA	T I DIDN'T MENTION?
	•	Yes (Ask A- B) 1
		No (Go to Q.	<i>62)</i> 0
	A. How much was it (were they)?		
		\$	
	B. What were they?		
62.	HOW MUCH DID YOU, YOURSELF, SPEND LAST MON		
		Amount	Vendored
	Rent or mortgage	Amount	T
	Utilities		
	Medical or dental expenses not covered by insurance		
63.	DID YOU HAVE ANY OTHER EXPENSES OR BILLS ON MENTION?	/ER ABOUT \$25 L	AST MONTH THAT I DIDN'T
		Yes (Ask	A-B) 1
		No (Go to	Q.64) 2
	A. What were they?		
	B. How much was it (were they)?		
FINA	ALLY, I'D LIKE A LITTLE MORE INFORMATION ABOUT Y	OU PERSONALL	Υ.
64.	WHAT YEAR WERE YOU BORN?		
	(R's age: 1989	– birth year =	
65 .	HOW OLD WERE YOU WHEN YOU HAD	(YOUR F	IRST CHILD)?

66	ARF YOU	PREGNANT	OR BREAST	-FFFDING	RIGHT NOW?

Yes	1
No	2

67. WHAT IS THE HIGHEST GRADE OR YEAR OF REGULAR SCHOOL YOU HAVE FINISHED? [Circle two-digit code for highest grade (year) finished)]

No formal school	Grade <u>Schoo</u> l	High School	College
(Ask A-B)	(Ask A-B)	(Ask A-B)	(Ask B)
00	01		13
	02	09	14
	03	10	15
	04	11	16
	05	12	17
	06		18
	07		19
	80		20+

Α.	Did you	receive a	ı hiah	school d	ioloma (or aet	your GED'	?
----	---------	-----------	--------	----------	----------	--------	-----------	---

Y e s	1
No	2
(NA	9)

B. Are you in school right now?

Yes	1
No	2

68. DO YOU HAVE ANY PLANS TO GO BACK TO SCHOOL?

A. What are they?

69 .	ARE YOU PRESENTLY WO HOMEMAKER, OR WHAT?	RKING, OR ARE YOU UNEMPLOYED, A STUDENT, (PROBE: "WHAT IS THE MAIN THING I	
		Working (Ask A)	1
		With a job, but not working because of temporary illness, on sick leave, vacation, labor dispute, on strike, bad weather (Ask A)	2
		Unemployed, looking for work (Ask C)	3
		Unemployed, not looking for work (Ask D)	4
		In school (Ask B)	5
		Homemaker (Ask B)	6
		Disabled (Go to Q. 70)	7
		Other (Specify) (Go to Q.70)	8
	A. Is your job full or part ti	me?	
		Full time (Go to Q. 70)	. 1
		Part time (Go to Q. 70)	2
		(NA	9)
	B. Are you looking for wo	rk right now?	
		Yes (Ask C)	1
		No (Ask D)	
		(NA	
	C. How long have you be	•	•
	C. TOW KING HAVE YOU DE		
		days/wks/mths (Go to Q.70)	•
	D. Why are you not looking	g for work right now? (CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY)	
		Can only get minimum wage job	01
		Lack of education	02
		Lack of child care	03
		Chose to stay home with child	04
		Getting more training/ going to school first	05
		Pointless to look	06
		Too much of a hassle	07
		Other (Specify)	08
		(NA	99)

70.	WHAT IS YOUR PRESENT MARITAL STA OR NEVER MARRIED?	TUS? ARE YOU WIDOWED, DIVORCED, SEPARATED,
		Widowed (Ask A) 1
		Divorced (Ask A) 2
		Separated (Ask A)
		Never married (Go to Q.71) 4
	A. How long have you been widowed (div	vorced) (separated)?
		yrs/mths/wks
71.	HOW LONG HAVE YOU LIVED IN LANSIN	G?
		
72 .	HOW MANY TIMES HAVE YOU MOVED IN	I THE PAST YEAR?
		
73.	WHAT ARE YOUR MAIN SOURCES OF IN (CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY)	FORMATION ABOUT WHAT'S GOING ON IN LANSING?
		Television 1
		Radio 2
		Newspaper 3
		Word of mouth 4
		Nothing 5
		Other (Specify) 6
	A. What TV station do you normally watch	?
	B. What time do you usually watch Chann	nel?
	C. What radio station do you normally liste	en to?
	D. What time do you usually listen to	?
74.	HOW MANY PEOPLE IN THIS HOUSEHOL OR BROTHERS?	LD ARE NOT YOUR CHILDREN, PARENTS, SISTERS,
		(If "1" or more, ask A)

	A. What relation are they to you? (CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY)
	Friend 1
	Boyfriend 2
	Fiance 3
	Boarder 4
	Other (Specify) 5
	(SIZE OF FAMILY)
75 .	IF SOMEONE GAVE YOU AN EXTRA \$10.00 THIS MONTH, WHAT WOULD YOU DO WITH IT?
76.	WHICH OF THESE CATEGORIES BEST DESCRIBES YOUR RACE OR ETHNIC GROUP? WHITE, NON-HISPANIC; BLACK; HISPANIC-AMERICAN; ASIAN OR PACIFIC ISLANDS AMERICAN; OR NATIVE AMERICAN INDIAN?
	White, non-Hispanic 1
	Black 2
	Hispanic-American 3
	Asian or Pacific Islands American 4
	Native American Indian 5
	Other (specify) 6
	THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME!
	Time Interview Ended a.m./p.m.

APPENDIX J

Where the Subjects Obtained Information About What Was Happening in Lansing

179 APPENDIX J

Percentage (number) of subjects who used each of the following resources as one of their main sources of information for what was going on in Lansing.^a

information	a l l	non-users	users	past users
source	(n=74)	(n=21)	(n=37)	(n=16)
television	77.0	81.0	78.4	68.8
	(57)	(17)	(29)	(11)
radio	16.2	4.8	13.5	37.5
	(12)	(1)	(5)	(6)
newspaper	47.3	23.8	54.1	62.5
	(35)	(5)	(20)	(10)
word of mouth	36.5	19.0	48.6	31.3
	(27)	(4)	(18)	(5)
nothing	2.7 (2)	(0)	5.4 (2)	(0)
other	12.2	14.3	13.5	6.3
	(9)	(3)	(5)	(1)

^a Subjects could give more than one answer

Number of subjects watching television by station and time of day.^a

	TV station			
time of day	6	10	47	other
morning	3	1	3	2
afternoon	21	2	3	3
6 o'clock news	22	3		****
prime time	11	3	2	2
late night	9	2	1	1
all day	11	3	2	

a Subjects could name more than one station for the same time of day.

APPENDIX K

Sample Revised Questionnaire

A LOT OF THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ASK ABOUT FOOD USE IN YOUR HOUSEHOLD. WHEN I TALK ABOUT YOUR HOUSEHOLD, I MEAN EVERYBODY WHO LIVES IN THIS HOUSE AND REGULARLY BUYS FOOD AND SHARES MEALS TOGETHER.

1.	REGULAR PART OF 1	F, YOUR CHILDREN, RELATIVES OR OT THE HOUSEHOLD, BUT NOT INCLUDING HOW MANY PEOPLE LIVE IN YOUR HO	ANY CHIL	DREN WHO	LIVE
2.	YOUR HOUSEHOLD I	THE TIMES SOMEONE HAS GONE TO T N THE LAST 4 WEEKS OR MONTH, HO BUY FOOD AT QUALITY DAIRY, THE M	N MANY TIA	MES WOUL	D YOU SA'
	A. In the last month, ou how many times wou	it of all the times someone went to the sto uld you say someone went to Shoprite, Ki	ore to buy forogers, or M	ood for the l eijers?	nousehold,
	B. Where else did some	sone go to buy food for the household in	the last mo	nth?	
	C. How many times was	s food bought there?			
3.	AT WHICH STORE DID	YOUR HOUSEHOLD BUY MOST OF ITS	FOOD IN TI	HE LAST 4	WEEKS?
			Meijers		l
			Shoprite.		2
			Kroger		3
			Quality Da	iry4	ŧ.
			Other		5
			Don't kno	w	3
		hold buy most of its food at ALL THAT APPLY)	?		
			No	Yes	ì
		Good quality	0	1	
		Better prices than other stores	0	1	
		Easy to get to	0	1	II
		Has everything they need	0	1	
		Where person they shop with goes	0	1	
		Sales/Coupons		I . 1	

Other (Specify)

0

4.	WHAT'S YOUR ONE MAIN SOURCE OF TRANSPORTATION TO THE GROCERY STORE?
	Own car (Ask B) 1
	Walk(Ask A) 2
	Bus(Ask A) 3
	Taxi (Ask A) 4
	Friend or relative drives (Ask A) 5
	Borrow a car (Ask A) 6
	Bus there, taxi back (Ask A) 7
	Other (Specify, then ask A) 8
	A. Do you have a car that runs?
	Yes (Ask B) 1
	No (Go to Q. 5) 0
	B. Is the car reliable?
	Yes 1
	No 0
	NA 9
5.	WHAT ARE SOME THINGS THAT MAKE GROCERY SHOPPING EASY FOR YOU?
	A. What are some things that make it hard for you?
	·
6.	WHEN YOU GO GROCERY SHOPPING, DO YOU USUALLY BUY THE NATIONAL BRAND, THE STORE BRAND OR THE GENERIC BRAND?
	(IF NEEDED: "National brands are like Del Monte or Maxwell House.
	Store brands are like Food Club or Spartan. The generic brand is
	the kind that has the black and white labels.) "
	National (Ask A)1
	Store (Ask A)2
	Generic(Ask A)3
	Buys more than one type (Go to Q.7)4
	A. What are the reasons you usually buy thebrand more than the other
	hrande?

7.	ABOUT HOW MUCH DID YOUR HOUSEHOLD SPEND ON GROCERIES IN THE LAST <u>TWO</u> WEEKS OR LAST MONTH? THIS AMOUNT SHOULD INCLUDE FOOD STAMPS, IF YOU GET THEM. AN ESTIMATE OF HOW MUCH YOU SPENT IS FINE.			
		\$ 2 wks/mth		
	A. How much of the \$ was food stamps?			
		\$		
8.	IS THIS ABOUT WHAT YOU USUALLY SPEND EVERY	TWO WEEKS (EVERY MONTH)?		
		Yes (Go to Q.9) 1		
		No (Ask A & B) 2		
		Don't know (Go to Q.9) 3		
	A. What made these last two weeks (month) different	?		
	B. How much would you say your household <u>normally</u> two weeks (a month)?	spends on groceries in		
		\$		
9.	DOES THIS INCLUDE MONEY SPENT FOR BABY FOR	MULA?		
	Y	'es (Ask A) 1		
		lo (Go to Q.10) 2		
	A. About how much is spent every two weeks (month) for	or baby formula?		
		\$		
10.	DOES THE \$SPENT AT THE GROCERY STORES OF NON-FOOD ITEMS LIKE DISH SOAP, PET FOOD, E OR GARBAGE BAGS?	RE OR MARKET INCLUDE PURCHASES BEER, CIGARETTES, PAPER PRODUCTS,		
		sk A) 1		
	No (Go	o to Q.11)2		
	Don't kno	w (Go to Q.11) 3		
	A. About how much was spent on these non-food items	s? Again, a rough estimate will be fine.		
		\$		
		Don't know001		

11.	ARE YOU ABLE TO HAVE TO SPEN		OOD FOR YOUR H	IOUSEHOLD WITH THE MONE	EY YOU
			Yes (Go to	Q.12) 2	
			No (Ask A)	0	
			Sometimes, but r	ot always (Ask A) 1	
	A. How much month) to bu	ore money do you y enough food for	u think you would n your household?	eed to spend every two weeks	(every
				\$	
12.				IRST, HOW MANY CHILDREN NE UNDER THE AGE OF 18. 	LIVE IN
13.	(IF ONLY ONE HOW IS HE/SHE	CHILD ASK) RELATED TO YO	WHAT IS HIS/HEI U?	R NAME? HOW OLD IS HE/SHI	E?
			CR		
	INDIVIDUALLY,B THEIR AGE.AND	EGINNING WITH 1 THEN HOW THE "Are they	THE YOUNGEST. I Y ARE RELATED T y your own ch	ild, your grandchild,	
		Name	Age	Relationship	
	Child 1				7
	Child 2				7
	Child 3				7
	Child 4				1
	Child 5				1
	Child 6				1
14.	ARE THERE USUA	LLY FOODS AVA	ILABLE IN YOUR	HOME FOR	(THE
	CHILDREN) TO SN	ACK ON?		Yes2	(****
				No0	
				Sometimes1	

15.	DOES_ OF TH	(DO ANY OF THE E FOLLOWING PROGRAMS	CHILDRE 3?	N IN YOU	R HOUSE	HOLD) GET MEALS FROM ANY
			YES	NO	NA	NUMBER OF KIDS RECEIVING
		Free or reduced price school breakfast	1	0	9	
		Free or reduced price school lunch	1	0	9	
		Meals at the baby-sitter or at day care	1	0	9	
		Summer feeding program	1	0	9	
		Headstart	1	0	9	
16.	IN THE I	PAST THREE OR FOUR WE (IP ANY MEALS BECAUSE T	EKS, HAS HERE W/	S ASN'T ENC	Yes (G	ANY OF THE CHILDREN) HAD IN THE HOUSE? o to Q.17)1 to Q.18)0
17.		HINKING BACK OVER THE (HAVE ANY OF THE CI USE THERE WASN'T ENOU	HILDREN	HAD TO	SKIP MEAI OUSE?	, HAS LS ANY OTHER TIMES o to Q.19)1
					No (Go	to Q.19)0
18.	HAS	HINKING BACK OVER THE (HAVE ANY (E WASN'T ENOUGH FOOD II	OF THE C	CHILDREN	SINCE I) HAD TO	SKIP MEALS BECAUSE
					•	Yes1

19. TELL ME WHETHER YOU STRONGLY AGREE, AGREE, DISAGREE OR STRONGLY DISAGREE

A. I cannot give my child(dren) a balanced meal because I can't afford that.

WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS:

No0

 Strongly agree
 02

 Agree
 01

 Neutral
 00

 Disagree
 -1

 Strongly disagree
 -2

(NA......09)

В.	My child(ren) is/are not eating enough because I just can't afford enough food.
	Strongly agree02
	Agree01
	Neutral00
	Disagree1
	Strongly disagree2
	(NA
20.	IN THE PAST THREE OR FOUR WEEKS, HAVE YOU, YOURSELF, HAD TO SKIP MEALS BECAUSE THERE WASN'T ENOUGH FOOD IN THE HOUSE?
	Yes (Go to Q.21)1
	No (Go to Q.22)0
21.	NOW, THINKING BACK OVER THE LAST <u>SIX MONTHS</u> , SINCE, HAVE THERE BEEN ANY OTHER TIMES THAT YOU, YOURSELF, HAVE HAD TO SKIP MEALS BECAUSE THERE WASN'T ENOUGH FOOD IN THE HOUSE?
	Yes (Go to Q.23)1
	No (Go to Q.23)0
22.	NOW, THINKING BACK OVER THE LAST <u>SIX MONTHS</u> , SINCE, HAVE YOU, YOURSELF, HAD TO SKIP MEALS BECAUSE THERE WASN'T ENOUGH FOOD IN THE HOUSE?
	Yes1
	No0
23.	HOW OFTEN ARE YOU HUNGRY, BUT YOU DON'T EAT BECAUSE YOU CAN'T AFFORD ENOUGH FOOD? WOULD YOU SAY THIS HAPPENS TO YOU NEVER, ALMOST NEVER, SOMETIMES, ALMOST ALWAYS OR ALWAYS?
	Always0
	Almost always1
	Sometimes2
	Almost never3
	Never4

24.	TELL ME WHETHER YOU STRONGLY AGREE, A WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT:	GREE, DISAGREE OR STRONGLY DISAGREE
	A. I can't afford to eat the way I should.	
		Strongly agree02
		Agree01
		Neutral00
		Disagree1
		Strongly disagree2
		(NA
I.	f R or any of the children had to ask Q.25. Otherwise	
25.	WHEN YOU OR YOUR CHILD(REN) HAD TO SKIF YOU DIDN'T HAVE ENOUGH FOOD IN THE HOU "WHAT WAS THE MAIN REASON YOU RAN OU FOOD" ASK "WHAT WAS THE MAIN REASON	SE? (IF SAYS "RAN OUT OF MONEY" ASK IT OF MONEY? IF SAYS "RAN OUT OF
26.	DO YOU WORRY WHETHER YOUR FOOD WILL F MORE?	RUN OUT BEFORE YOU GET MONEY TO BUY
		No2
		Sometimes1
27.	HOW OFTEN DO YOU WORRY ABOUT WHERE T FROM? DO YOU WORRY ALL THE TIME, MOS OR NEVER?	
		All the time0
		Most of the time1
		Sometimes2
		Hardly ever3
		Never4
28.	IN THE LAST 6 MONTHS, SINCE, HAY FOOD BECAUSE YOU DIDN'T HAVE ENOUGH AFFORD TO BUY MORE?	/E YOU EVER BORROWED MONEY TO BUY FOOD IN THE HOUSE AND COULDN'T
		Yes2
		No1
		Doesn't recall or want to say 0

29.	HELP EA	CH OTHE		N YOU DON			OAN FOOD STA OOD IN THE HO	
	(PROBE:	"WHO DO	YOU BORRO	W STAMPS	FROM OR	LOAN STA	MPS TO?")	
						F	amily	2
						F	riends	1
						1	leither	0
30.	EACH OT		WHEN YOU				TRADE FOOD THE HOUSE A	
							Yes	1
							No	0
31.	DO YOU HA	AVE ENOU	GH ROOM II	N YOUR HO	ME TO STO	ORE YOUR	FOOD?	
							Yes 1	
							No 0	
32.	DO YOU HA	AVE A WO	RKING TELE	PHONE?				
							Yes 1	
							No 0	
PER SECOND	HBORS OF MONINGS LIKE APP YOU COLE AND GET	R FRIEND NEY, BAE N SHOUL MPANY. ' AND TH YOU CAN	OS OR FAM BYSITTING, DER TO CI I WANT THE PEOPLE N GIVE ME	AILY. <u>Hel</u> Or givin Ry on Wi O Look A E involve	LP IS THI IG SOME HEN YOU AT BOTH ED IN HE	INGS LIKE ONE A RI 'RE DOW! THE HEL LP AND S	OR SUPPO E LOANING (DE AND SUP N OR SOME(P AND SUPP SUPPORT. A DUR STUDY (OR GIVING PPORT IS ONE TO PORT YOU ANY
33.	THINKING A		_ YOUR FRIE	ENDS FIRST	r, how ma	NY OF THE	M WOULD YO	U CONSIDER
							(If "0"	, go to 37)
	A. How ma	any of your	close friends	s live within 1	fifteen minu	ites of you,	either driving o	r walking?
	B. How ma	iny of your	close friends	s do you thir	nk you can	 count on fo	r help in times (of trouble?

34. (READ EACH ACTIVITY PRECEDED BY:) "WITH YOUR CLOSE FRIENDS, HOW MANY TIMES A WEEK OR A MONTH DO YOU..."

	Never	Less than once a month	1 to 3 times a month	Once or twice a week	Several times a week	Every day	Don't recall or NA
Get or give help	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Get or give support	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Discuss problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Exchange advice	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Get together for fun or relaxation	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Talk on the phone	1	2	3	4	5	6	0

35. THINK ABOUT YOUR <u>FAMILY AND RELATIVES</u> NOW. (**READ EACH ACTIVITY PRECEDED BY:**) "WITH FAMILY MEMBERS OR RELATIVES, HOW MANY TIMES A WEEK OR A MONTH DO YOU..."

	Never	Less than once a month	1 to 3 times a month	Once or twice a week	Several times a week	Every day	Don't recall or NA
Get or give help	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Get or give support	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Discuss problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Exchange advice	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Get together for fun or relaxation	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
Talk on the phone	1	2	3	4	5	6	0

36. TELL ME WHETHER YOU STRONGLY DISAGREE, DISAGREE, AGREE, OR STRONGLY AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT:

I know I can call on members of my family for help or support whenever I need to.

Strongly disagree	-2
Disagree	-1
Neutral	00
Agree	01
Strongly agree	02

37. HOW MANY DIFFERENT FAMILY MEMBERS OR RELATIVES WOULD GLADLY GIVE YOU HELP OR SUPPORT IF YOU ASKED?

38.	. WOULD YOU CONSIDER YOUR FAMILY VERY CLOSE, CLOSI ALL CLOSE IN THEIR FEELINGS TO EACH OTHER?	E, NOT TOO CLOSE	OR NOT AT
	Very	close 02	
	Clos	9 01	
	Neut	ral 00	
	Not t	oo close1	
	Not o	close at all2	
39.	. HOW MANY OF YOUR FAMILY OR RELATIVES, OTHER THAN LIVE WITHIN FIFTEEN MINUTES OF YOU EITHER DRIVING O		VITH YOU,
40.	. IF YOU RAN OUT OF MONEY AND NEEDED FOOD OR HELP B DO OR WHO WOULD YOU CALL FIRST FOR HELP? (PROBE THEY TO YOU?)		
		Mother	01
		Father	02
		Sister	03
		Brother	04
		Other relative	05
		Friend	06
		Food bank	07
		Church	08
		Other Organization	n 09
		Other	10
41.	. WHO USUALLY LOOKS AFTER YOUR KIDS WHEN YOU HAVE	TO GO OUT?	
		Grandmother	01
		Sister	02
		Other relative	03
		Older child	04
		Friend	05
		Neighbor	06
		Day care	07
		Other	08
		No one	09

42. IS DAYCARE OR GETTING A BABYSITTER FOR YOUR CHILDREN A PROBLEM FOR YOU?

	Yes (Ask A)05
	No (Go to Q.43) 06
A. Why is daycare or getting a baby-sitter a problem for yo	ou?
THIS NEXT GROUP OF QUESTIONS LOOKS AT SOURCES OF	FOOD AVAILABLE TO YOU OTHER
THAN BUYING IT AT THE GROCERY STORE. REMEMBER THAT	TYOUR ANSWERS ARE
CONFIDENTIAL AND WILL IN NO WAY AFFECT YOUR ABILITY TO	O PARTICIPATE IN ANY OF THE
PROGRAMS WE'RE GOING TO TALK ABOUT.	
43. DO YOU GET COMMODITY FOODS, YOU KNOW, THE FRE AWAY?	EE FOOD THE GOVERNMENT GIVES
	Yes (Go to Q.44) 1
	No (Ask A) 2
A. What's the reason you don't get commodity foods?	
, iii , iii iii iii ii ii ii ii ii ii ii	
44. DO YOU USE ANY OF THE COMMUNITY KITCHENS OR SO	OUP KITCHENS?
Yes	.(Go to Q.45) 1
No	. <i>(Ask A)</i> 0
A. What's the reason you don't use the community kitchen	s or soup kitchens?
, ,,,,	or coop menone.
45. HAVE YOU EVER HEARD OF EFNEP OR THE EXPANDED	FOOD AND NUTRITION EDUCATION
PROGRAM?	
Yes	B (Ask A) 1
No.	(Go to Q.46) 0
A. Have you ever gone through the EFNEP program?	
	Yes 1
	No 0
	(NA 9)
	. ,

46.	HAVE YOU EVER HEARD OF WIC?	
		Yes (Ask A) 1
		No (Go to Q.47) 0
	A. Did you receive WIC any time in the last ye	ar, since last?
		Yes (Ask B) 1
		No (Go to Q.47) 0
		(NA 9)
	B. Are you receiving WIC now?	
		Yes 1
		No 0
		(NA 9)
47.	HAVE YOU EVER HEARD OF THE FOOD BANK	OR THE FOOD CLOSETS?
		Yes (Ask A-B) 1
		No (Go to Q.48) 0
	A. How did you find out about the food bank or f	ood closet?
		Family 01
		Friends 02
		Caseworker/DSS 03
		Picked up a brochure04
		Media 05
		Other 06
		Don't recall 07
		(NA 99)
	B. Have you ever used the food bank or one of t	the food closets?
		Yes (Ask D) 1
		No (Ask C) 2
		(NA 9)
	C. What are the recens unity a sever used the f	inad bank or food classes?

GO TO Q.48

	ve you used the food bank or a food closet anytime in the last year, since last
	Yes (Ask E) 1
	No (Go to F) 2
	(NA 9)
E. How	v many times?
F. Whe	en was the last time you used the food bank or food closet?
	at was the reason you had to use the food bank or food closet the last time? "SAYS "RAN OUT OF FOOD", ASK "WHY DID YOU RUN OUT OF FOOD?"
HAVE Y	OU GOTTEN FOOD FROM ANYBODY ELSE IN THE LAST SIX MONTHS, SINC TO HELP YOU OUT?
	Yes (Ask A) 1
	No (Go to Q.49) 2
DID YOU	U RECEIVE FOOD STAMPS ANY TIME IN THE LAST SIX MONTHS, SINCE
	? ? Yes (Ask A) 1
	No (Go to Q.51) 2
A. Ar	re you receiving Food Stamps now?
	Yes (Ask B) 1
	No (Go to Q.50) 2
	(NA 9)
	re you always, almost always, sometimes, almost never, or never able to feed you
B. Ar	r the whole month on just your Food Stamps?
B. Ar	r the whole month on just your Food Stamps? Always
B. Ar	r the whole month on just your Food Stamps?
B. Ar	r the whole month on <u>just</u> your Food Stamps? Always4
B. Ar	r the whole month on just your Food Stamps? Always4 Almost always3

C.	How many weeks does the food you buy with just your food stamps usually last?
D.	How much do you usually get in food stamps?
E.	Do you usually spend all your food stamps every month or do you usually have some left over?
	Spend all0
	Have some left1
	Varies2
F.	Do you add money to your Food Stamps so you can buy more food?
	Yes (Ask G) 0
	No (Ask H)2
	Sometimes (Ask G) 1
	Need to add, but don't have money (Ask H) 4
	(NA 9)
G.	About how much money do you add?
	\$ wk/mth
H.	Have you ever been bothered or embarrassed about using food stamps?
	Yes (Ask I) 1
	No (Go to Q.52) 2
	(NA 9)
l.	What is it about food stamps that bothers or embarrasses you?

Go to Q.52

50.	WHAT IS THE REASON YOU'RE NOT GETTING FOOD STAMPS NOW?
	Doesn't need them 1
	Not qualified any more 2
	Waiting to receive after reapplying 3
	Feels it's not worth the trouble 4
	Other (Specify)
	Ask A
	Too embarrassing (Ask B)
	Feels it's charity or a handout (Go to Q.53) 6
	(NA 9)
	A. Were you ever bothered or embarrassed about using food stamps?
	Yes (Ask B) 1
	No (Go to Q.52) 2
	(NA 9)
	Go to Q.52
51.	HAVE YOU EVER APPLIED FOR FOOD STAMPS?
	Yes (Ask A) 1
	No (Ask B) 2 (NA 9)
	A Miles in the second visules and setting Food Channel and
	A. What is the reason you're not getting Food Stamps now? Not qualified (Go to Q. 52)
	Applied and now waiting to receive (Go to Q. 52) 2
	Other
	(NA
	//www

	B. What is the reason you've never applied for Food Stamps?
	Doesn't need them 01
	Doesn't think they're qualified 02
	Doesn't want to go through the hassle 03
	Can't fill out the forms 04
	Doesn't have transportation to go and apply 05
	Doesn't know about Food Stamps 06
	Feels it's "charity" or a "handout" (Go to Q. 52B) 07
	Other (Specify)
	(NA 99)
52.	TELL ME WHETHER YOU STRONGLY DISAGREE, DISAGREE, AGREE, OR STRONGLY AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS:
	A. Food stamps are charity. Strongly disagree 1
	Disagree 2
	Neutral 3
	Agree 4
	Strongly agree 5
	(NA 9)
	B. Food stamps are help that everyone who needs it has a right to receive.
	Strongly disagree 1
	Disagree 2
	Neutral 3
	Agree 4
	Strongly agree 5
	(NA 9)
53.	HAVE YOU EVER HEARD OF ADC, AID TO FAMILIES WITH DEPENDENT CHILDREN?
	Yes (Ask A) 1
	No (Go to Q.55) 2
	A. Did you receive ADC any time in the last year, since last?
	Yes (Ask B) 1
	No (Go to Q.54) 2

B. Are you receiving ADC now?

	Yes (Ask D) 1
	No (Ask C) 2
	(NA 9)
C. What's the reason you're not getting AL	C now?
D. Are (Were) you ever bothered or embai	
	Yes (Ask E) 1
	No (Go to Q.54) 2
	(NA 9)
E. What is it that bothers(ed) or embarrass	es(ed)you about ADC?
 TELL ME WHETHER YOU STRONGLY AGRE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS: 	EE, AGREE, DISAGREE, OR STRONGLY DISAGR
A. ADC is charity.	
	Strongly disagree 1
	Disagree 2
	Neutral 3
	Agree 4
	Strongly agree 5
	(NA 9)
B. ADC is help that everyone who needs it ha	as a right to receive.
	Strongly disagree 1
	Disagree 2
	Neutral 3
	Agree 4
	Agree 4 Strongly agree 5
	Agree 4 Strongly agree 5 (NA 9)

I'D LIKE TO KNOW A LITTLE MORE ABOUT YOUR HOUSEHOLD AND ABOUT YOU SO WE CAN COMPARE THE INFORMATION YOU'VE GIVEN ME WITH THE INFORMATION FROM THE OTHER PEOPLE IN THE STUDY.

55.	ARE YOU THE HEAD OF THE HOUSEH	OLD?				
		Ye	8 (Go	to Q.	5 <i>6).</i> 1	
		No	(Ask	A)	2	
	A. Who is the head of the household?	•				
			Mothe	or	1	
			Boyfri	end/fian	ce' 2	
			•		3	
			Other		4	
				(NA	\ 9)	
				•	,	
56.	THINKING ABOUT ALL YOUR FAMILY M INCOME HIGHER, LOWER, OR ABOU					MILYS
			Highe	r	3	
			Lowe	r	1	
			Same		2	
57.	WHAT WAS YOUR FAMILY'S TOTAL IN	COME FOR LAS	ST MON	TH, FOF		?
				\$_		
58.	NEXT, I'M GOING TO READ YOU A LIST PLEASE TELL ME WHETHER OR NOT L					
	FAMILY IN THIS HOUSEHOLD GOT MO ITEM AND CHECK APPROPRIATE BO	ONEY FROM EA				
		ONEY FROM EA (X) source, ask	CHOFT ∷"⊞	THESE P	LACES. (REA	D EACH
	ITEM AND CHECK APPROPRIATE BO	ONEY FROM EA (X) source, ask	CHOFT ∷"⊞	THESE P	LACES. (REA th did you	D EACH
	ITEM AND CHECK APPROPRIATE BO [58A: For each that was a syour family members receive	Source, ask	CH OF 1 :: "H	THESE P OW muc last Don't	tACES. (REX	D EACH
	ITEM AND CHECK APPROPRIATE BO [58A: For each that was a syour family members receive Salary or wages	Source, ask from Yes	CH OF 1	Don't know	tACES. (REX	D EACH
	ITEM AND CHECK APPROPRIATE BO [58A: For each that was a syour family members receive Salary or wages Child support	Source, ask from Yes	CH OF 1 : "H No 2 2	Don't know	tACES. (REX	D EACH
	[58A: For each that was a syour family members receive Salary or wages Child support SSI/disability ADC (If "yes",	Source, ask from Yes 1	No 2 2 2	Don't know 3 3	tACES. (REX	D EACH
	[58A: For each that was a syour family members receive Salary or wages Child support SSI/disability ADC (If "yes", ask B after amount	Source, ask from Yes 1	No 2 2 2 2 2	Don't know 3 3 3	tACES. (REX	D EACH
	[58A: For each that was a syour family members receive Salary or wages Child support SSI/disability ADC (If "yes",	Source, ask from Yes 1	No 2 2 2	Don't know 3 3	tACES. (REX	D EACH
	[58A: For each that was a syour family members receive Salary or wages Child support SSI/disability ADC (If "yes", ask B after amount	Source, ask from Yes 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	No 2 2 2 2 2	Don't know 3 3 3	tACES. (REX	D EACH

Social Security

2

3

Workmen's compensation	1	2	3	
Alimony	1	2	3	
Selling blood or plasma	1	2	3	
Anything else, like savings or borrowed money or money from odd jobs	1	2	3	
None of the above (Ask D)	1			

	В.	. Does this amount include vendored payments?	
		Yes (Ask C)	
		No (Go back to "Unemployment") 0)
		(NA	9)
	C.	. How much do you receive , not including vendored payments?	
		\$	
		(Go back to "Unemplo	yment)
	D.	. What was your main source of income last month?	
59.	IS	S THERE ANYONE ELSE WHO HELPS OUT WITH THE HOUSEHOLD'S BILLS F Yes (Ask A)1	
		No)
	ļ	A. Who helps out?	
60.	DK	ID YOU HAVE ANY OTHER SOURCES OF INCOME LAST MONTH THAT I DIDN'	T MENTION?
		Yes (Ask A-B) 1	
		No (Go to Q.61) 0)
	A.	. How much was it (were they)?	
		\$	_
	В.	. What were they?	

61. HOW MUCH DID YOU, YOURSELF, SPEND LAST MONTH ON THE FOLLOWING THINGS?

	(61	A:	AFTER REN	T AND	UTILITIES	ASK	"WAS IT VE	NDORED?") "	
							Amount	Vendored	
				Rent	or mortgage				
				Utilitie					
					cal or dental ex overed by insu				
62.			HAVE ANY O' ENTION?	THER EX	KPENSES OR	BILLS O	VER ABOUT \$2	25 LAST MONTH TH	AT I
							Yes (As)	k <i>A-B)</i> 1	
							No (Go t	ο Q.63) 2	
	A.	Wh	at were they?						
	В.	Но	w much was it (were the	y)?				
FINA	LLY,	ľĐ	LIKE A LIT	TLE M	ORE INFORI	MATION	ABOUT YOU	J PERSONALLY.	
63.	WHA	T YE	AR WERE YO	U BORN	1?				
					(R's a	ge: 1989) – birth year =		
							ASK Q.64A. LD, ASK Q.	64B	
64 A .	IS_			_ YOUF	R FIRST CHILL	0?			
							Yes (As)	k <i>A)</i> 1	
							No (Go t	o Q.65) 2	
	A.	Hov	w old were you	when y	ou had	?			
					NOW GO	то о.	65]	
64B.	HOW	ОП) WERE YOU \	MHEN Y	OU HAD YOUF	RFIRSTO	CHILD?		

65. ARE YOU PREGNANT OR BREAST-FEEDING RIGHT NOW?

				Neither	.0
				Pregnant	.1
				Breast-feeding	.2
66.	WHAT IS THE HIGH			SCHOOL YOU HAVE FINI ear) finished)]	SHED?
	No formal <u>school</u> (Ask A-B) 00	Grade <u>Schoo</u> l (Ask A-B) 01 02 03 04 05 06 07	High <u>School</u> (Ask A-B) 09 10 11	College (Ask B) 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20+	
	A. Did you rece	ive a high school dip	loma or get your (SED?	
				Yes 1	
				No 2	
				(NA 9)	
	B. Are you in so	chool right now?			
				Yes (Ask C)	1
				No (Go to Q. 67)	.2
	C. What are you	utaking in school?			
		l w	W GO TO Q.68	3	
67.	DO YOU HAVE ANY	PLANS TO GO BAC	K TO SCHOOL?		
			Yes (Ask A) 1	
			No (6	Go to Q.68) 2	
	A. What are they?				
68.	ARE YOU PRESENT	LY WORKING?			
				Yes (Ask A)1	
				No (Ask B)0	

	A. How many hours a week do you w	ork?
	B. Are you looking for work right now	~~~~~
		Yes (Ask C) 1
		No (Ask D) 2
		(NA 9)
	C. How long have you been looking t	lar a lah?
	C. How long have you been looking i	days/wks/mths
		Go to Q. 69
		GO LO Q. 63
	D. Why are you not looking for work rig	ght now? (CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY)
		Can't get job that pays enough 01
		Need more education/training 02
		Can't afford child care 03
		Don't trust child care 04
		Chose to stay home with child 05
		Temp. laid off/Injured 06
		In school 07
		Disabled 08
		Other (Specify) 09
		(NA 99)
69.	WHAT IS YOUR PRESENT MARITAL ST SEPARATED, OR NEVER MARRIED	TATUS? ARE YOU WIDOWED, DIVORCED,
		Widowed (Ask A) 1
		Divorced (Ask A)
		Separated (Ask A)
		Never married (Go to Q.70) 4
	A. How long have you been widowed (divorced) (separated)?
		yrs/mths/wks
70.	HOW LONG HAVE YOU LIVED IN LANS	ING?
71.	HOW MANY TIMES HAVE YOU MOVED	IN THE PAST YEAR?

72.	HOW DO YOU USUALLY FIND OUT ABOUT WH (CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY)	IAT'S GOING ON IN LANSING?
		Television 1
		Radio 2
		Newspaper 3
		Word of mouth 4
		Nothing 5
		Other (Specify) 6
	A. What TV station do you normally watch?	
	B. What time do you usually watch Channel	?
73.	HOW MANY PEOPLE IN THIS HOUSEHOLD AF SISTERS, OR BROTHERS?	RE NOT YOUR CHILDREN, PARENTS,
		(If "1" or more, ask A)
	A. What relation are they to you? (CIRCLE AL.	L THAT APPLY)
		Friend 1
		Boyfriend 2
		Fiance 3
		Boarder 4
		Other (Specify) 5
	(SIZE	E OF FAMILY
74.	WHICH OF THESE CATEGORIES BEST DESCR WHITE, NON-HISPANIC; BLACK; HISPANIC-A AMERICAN; OR NATIVE AMERICAN INDIAN?	MERICAN; ASIAN OR PACIFIC ISLANDS
		White, non-Hispanic 1
		Black 2
		Hispanic-American 3
		Asian or Pacific Islands American 4
		Native American Indian 5
		Other (specify)6
	THANK YOU FOR	YOUR TIME!
		rview Ended a m /n m

