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(388) AUG 22 1988

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Anti-poverty programmes for the urban poor in Korea

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Korea's economic development and social progress over the last two decades is well-known and has been called remarkable. As Korea has developed from one of the poorest countries to a newly industrializing country, its real per capita income has increased four-fold. This rapid economic growth, and the accompanying structural change, has produced a massive movement of the population and a corresponding dislocation of families. The population of the city of Seoul increased from a little more than four millions in 1966 to about 8.3 millions in 1981.¹ The massive movement of people enabled the Korean economy to achieve the necessary structural change, but also created a host of social problems associated with the newly emerging class of urban poor.

In 1972, 80 percent of those urban households officially labelled poor were formerly the rural poor.² This percentage declined to 69.3 in 1979³ and to 60 percent in 1981.⁴ Thus there emerged in the cities a new group of urban poor—those who were born in them or had lived there for a long period of time, but who were unable to join the mainstream of urban economic life. According to the statistics of The Ministry of Health and Social Affairs (MOHSA), there were about 720,000 urban poor households eligible for public assistance in 1981. In addition, there were about 1.3 million people, comprising 340,000 households, who were classified as the rural poor. These are potential candidates for the urban poor since many of them are expected to move to the cities when business conditions improve.

The government of the Republic of Korea has pursued a policy of prevention and cure toward the problems of the urban poor.⁵ As a preventative measure, it has attempted to reduce the inflow of people into the cities by reducing the urban-rural income gap through its

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International Social Work (SAGE, London, Newbury Park, Beverly Hills and New Delhi), Vol 31 (1988), 95-113.

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farm income and industrial location policy, with a varying degree of success. As a curative measure, the government has administered public assistance programmes for the urban poor for the improvement of housing, health and employment opportunities.

Other developing countries have experienced similar urban problems. Development in these countries is concentrated in urban areas, attracting the rural population into the cities and causing congestion and a rise in substandard urban dwelling areas. The governments of the developing countries have pursued various anti-poverty programmes for the urban poor, but since their distribution-oriented policies were limited in the sense that they placed a higher priority on growth-oriented policies, the effectiveness of these anti-poverty programmes was also limited. Most of them were evaluated by the distance between the target and the achievement. However, there have been only a few studies which identified and examined systematically the determinants of the effectiveness of anti-poverty programmes.

It is in this setting that we undertook a study of the administrative structure of various anti-poverty programmes and the target population (the urban poor) in Korea. The central assumption of the study was that there are specific factors which influence programme effectiveness and that identification of these factors makes it possible to improve programme effectiveness. It is further assumed that these factors may be found in the organizational characteristics of the programmes and in the characteristics of the target population. On the basis of data analyses, policy recommendations for more effective anti-poverty programmes in Korea are made and their implications for other developing countries are discussed. In addition, a system model is constructed to explain the effectiveness of anti-poverty programmes in the context of specific programme organization and target population.

Anti-poverty programmes in Korea

In 1961, the Korean government established the Livelihood Protection Law for those disabled due to old age or disease, for wounded soldiers and policemen, and for the surviving families of deceased soldiers and policemen. In the same year, the Disaster Relief Law came into effect and in 1965 the Special Law for Self-support was enacted. The Medical Care Law for the disabled and for human cultural assets was established in 1977. Article 32 of Korea's Constitution provides the legal basis for the anti-poverty programmes.

TABLE 1
Government agencies involved in anti-poverty programmes

Agency	Programme Area					
	Housing	Income subsidy	Education	Health	Employment Generation	Training
	Economic Planning Board					
Ministry	MOC	MOHSA	MOHSA	MOHSA	MOHSA	MOHSA
	BOUI	BOLP	BOLP	BOPP	BOLP	BOLP
City, Province		BOSA	BOSA	BOW	BOSA	BOW
			BOE*	BOSA*	BOP*	BOWY
				BOWY*	BOS*	TS*
					BOD*	
					BOGP*	
Gu		SOSA	SOSA	SOSA	SOSA	SOSA
					SOP*	
					SOCE*	
Dong	Fieldworkers involved in anti-poverty programmes					

Note: MOHSA = Ministry of Health and Social Affairs; MOC = Ministry of Construction; BOUI = Bureau of Urban Improvement; BOLP = Bureau of Livelihood Protection; BOPP = Bureau of Pension Planning; BOSA = Bureau of Social Affairs; BOWY = Bureau of Women and Youth; BOP = Bureau of Parks; BOD = Bureau of Drainage; BOW = Bureau of Welfare; BOE = Bureau of Education; BOGP = Bureau of Green Parks; BOS = Bureau of Sewage; SOSA = Section of Social Affairs; SOP = Section of Parks; SOCE = Section of Civil Engineering; TS = Training Schools; * = supporting organization.

It states that people have a right to live as citizens and that the disabled should be protected by the law.

There are five anti-poverty programmes being carried out in Korea. These are: (1) an income subsidy programme, (2) a health maintenance programme, (3) a housing programme, (4) an education programme and (5) an employment programme. Different agencies are involved in each programme area (see Table 1). There are two phases in the programmes: the planning phase and the implementation phase. As seen from Table 1 MOHSA plans all programmes except that of housing. The Economic Planning Board (EPB) is indirectly involved in planning because it oversees the allocation of all government funds. MOHSA policies are implemented at city, province, Gu (borough) and Dong (township) level.

The target populations for the income subsidy programme are the disabled and unemployable who have no dependents and who reside in the designated welfare institutions, and those people above sixty-five years of age or below eighteen years who are without support.

Some 334,000 people, about 0.8 percent of the nation's population, received the income subsidy in 1982. The amount of subsidy provided in 1982 was 21,900 won (about US\$27.3) per month for the first group and 12,500 won (about US\$15.6) for the second group. Total budget for the income subsidy programme was 88.8 billion won (about US\$111 millions), which corresponded to 1.44 percent of the total budget for 1982.⁶

The target population for the health maintenance programme is composed of the target population for the income subsidy programme and those people who are considered by the government to be below minimum subsistence level. The size of the target population was 3.7 million people and about 37.0 billion won (about US\$46.25 millions) was spent for this programme in 1982.

Since 1979, the government has been carrying out an education programme for the children of the poor that provides tuition fees for middle school education. The size of the target population in 1982 was 192,000 people and the total budget spent was about 19.4 billion won (US\$24.25 millions).

The employment programme for the urban poor can be divided into two categories. One is the training programme for the acquisition of skills and the other is the employment generation programme which provides the urban poor with day-labour jobs. About 1.6 billion won (US\$2 millions) was provided for a skill training programme for 4300 people in 1982 and 56.3 billion won (US\$70.3 millions) for an employment generation programme.

Housing programmes have been carried out by the Ministry of Construction (MOC). The residential districts of the urban poor are characterized by illegal and substandard dwellings. Between 1982 and 1983, in order to improve the residential districts of the urban poor, 1.3 billion won (US\$1.625 millions) was provided for two thousand households for moving expenses, 2.5 billion won (US\$3.125 millions) for loans and 383,000 won (US\$479) for living costs.

Since planning and implementation are divided by the hierarchical order of government administrative units, and the structure of government organization is mechanistic, the information flow is only one-way, that is, top down. Consequently, information from contacts with the target population is rarely reflected in anti-poverty programmes. In addition, there are other administrative problems. First, the consultative body is not used fully in planning. Second, interaction and communication between planning agencies are insufficient. Third, regional characteristics are rarely taken into

consideration when planning and implementing the programmes. And fourth, the field workers at the Dong level, the smallest administrative unit, take on too much responsibility and have little time for evaluating their work and the target population's responses to government programmes. All these problems are common among developing countries and are partly due to the fact that low priority is given to the distributional aspect of the nation's economy. As a result, a relatively small budget is allocated to the anti-poverty programmes.

Conceptual frameworks of analysis

There are two frameworks of analysis for this study: one is for evaluating the effectiveness of poverty redressal programmes from

FIGURE 1
Framework of analysis from the organizational aspect

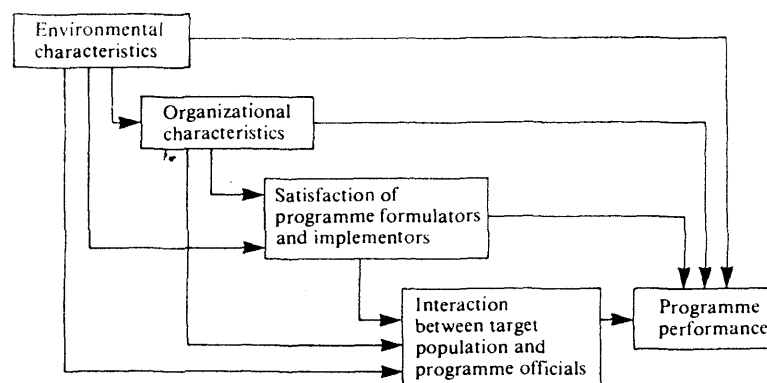
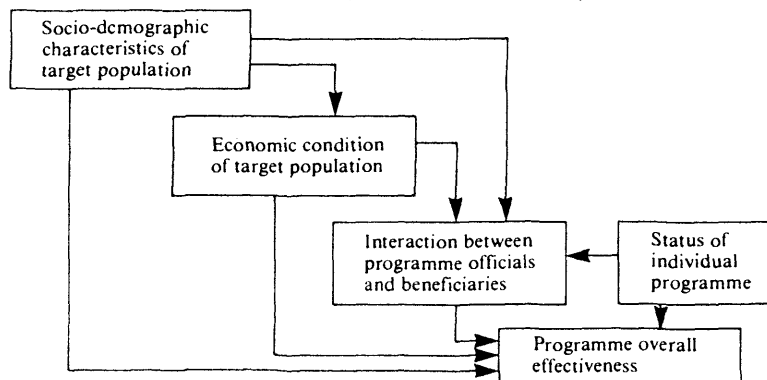


FIGURE 2
Framework of analysis from the individual aspect



the organizational aspect; the other is for evaluating programme effectiveness from the target population's point of view. Figure 1 presents the first framework of analysis and Figure 2 the second. These frameworks of analysis are formulated on the basis of findings of past research and a priori reasoning.

The basis for choosing the above two frameworks of analysis is Kaitaranta's (1976: 42-8) study. He presented an evaluation method using survey data from the social security schemes, classified into three categories with emphasis on organizational, individual and societal aspects. In this study, only the organizational and individual aspects are included.

As can be seen from Figure 1, in the framework of analysis for the organizational aspect, environmental characteristics influence the programme effectiveness variable both directly and indirectly. Indirectly, they influence organizational characteristics or the satisfaction of the programme formulators and implementors. These two variables, in turn, influence the programme effectiveness variable directly or indirectly, through the variable representing the interaction between target population, programme formulators and implementors. In addition, organizational characteristics influence the programme effectiveness variable through the variable representing the satisfaction of the programme formulators and implementors.

One of the bases for choosing subjective measures in the above frameworks of analyses lies in Nord's (1983) work. According to Nord, programme effectiveness is evaluated by the extent to which the economic system employs resources to provide goods and services in accordance with the preference and needs of members of society. He emphasized the subjective measure as the criterion variable. A further reason for choosing subjective measures is that data are more readily available on these measures than on objective measures.

The bases for choosing environmental characteristics, organizational characteristics and the satisfaction of programme officials as the key factors influencing programme effectiveness are the studies conducted by Litwin and Stringer (1968), Kaczka and Kirk (1967) and Prichard and Karasick (1973). These studies show that organizational environmental variables affect organizational climate and structure. The organizational climate and structure, in turn, was shown to influence the satisfaction of the members of the organization and to influence programme effectiveness.

In addition, in the organizational framework of analyses, interaction between the programme implementors and the target

population served as the impacting variable on the performance variable as assessed by the programme implementors. This variable is chosen on the basis of the study by Hage and Aiken (1970) and our a priori reasoning.

We may explain the individual framework of analyses in the same way; the socio-demographic characteristics of the target population influence the programme effectiveness variable directly, or indirectly, through the variables representing the economic conditions of the target population (see Figure 2). The economic conditions of the target population influence the programme effectiveness variable directly, or indirectly, through the interaction variable. The interaction variable is hypothesized to influence the programme effectiveness variable directly.

The bases for constructing the above individual framework of analysis are the studies by Rodgers (1979) and Hage and Aiken (1970). Although Rodgers examined the relationship between demographic change and the generation of poverty, his comments on the effectiveness of anti-poverty programmes are useful to this study. He said that the understanding of demographic factors of the poor and the relationships through which the poverty is generated is a crucial factor in understanding the effectiveness of anti-poverty programmes. In order to improve the effectiveness of anti-poverty programmes, it is necessary to investigate the causes of poverty and the relationship between programme effectiveness and these causes.

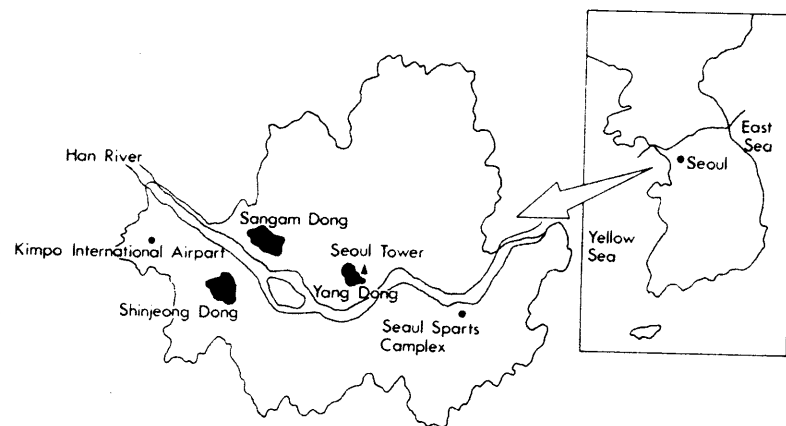
According to Hage and Aiken, there is a significant relationship between programme effectiveness and the interaction between the target population and the programme staff. Descriptive analyses of our study show that the target population's knowledge of the programme and their attendance at neighbourhood meetings have significant relationships with programme effectiveness. These relationships are represented by interaction variables in our study. One of the reasons why Hage and Aiken's study is applicable to Korea is that interactions serve as a channel through which knowledge about anti-poverty related programmes is transmitted to the target population and their responses to these programmes are transmitted to the programme implementors. As a result, the implementation of anti-poverty programmes can reflect the mutual responses to the programmes. The survey carried out by the Korea Institute for Social Welfare (KISW) in 1979 shows similar results.

Data collection

Two sets of data were collected. One set of data was collected from the target population and another set of data was collected from programme formulators and implementors.

Target population samples were selected from substandard housing dwellers in three separate areas in Seoul, that is Shinjeong Dong, Yang Dong (now 5-Ka Nam Dae Mun Dong) and Nangi Island (now Sangam Dong). These areas, shown in Figure 3, have different characteristics in terms of residents. The residents of Yang Dong are mostly handicapped people, especially the blind, and they live by begging or prostitution. They are now being moved to areas other than Seoul by the government. Nangi Island is a dumping ground. Most of its residents live by selling materials picked up on the dumping ground. Many of the people in Shinjeong Dong are day-labourers. The sample size was about 335 households in each area, namely, about 1000 households in total.

FIGURE 3
Location in Seoul of the three communities studied



For the second set of data, a sample of government programme officials was chosen on the basis of the stratified sampling principle. Stratification is done by administrative unit, hierarchy within a unit, programme area, target population, function, etc. A total of about 100 people involved in the various programmes were interviewed.

'Cause-effect' analyses of the data

Based on the frameworks presented in Figure 1 and Figure 2, a path analysis was performed. The reason for conducting the path analysis was to examine the process and route of the cause-effect relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable.

Organizational aspect

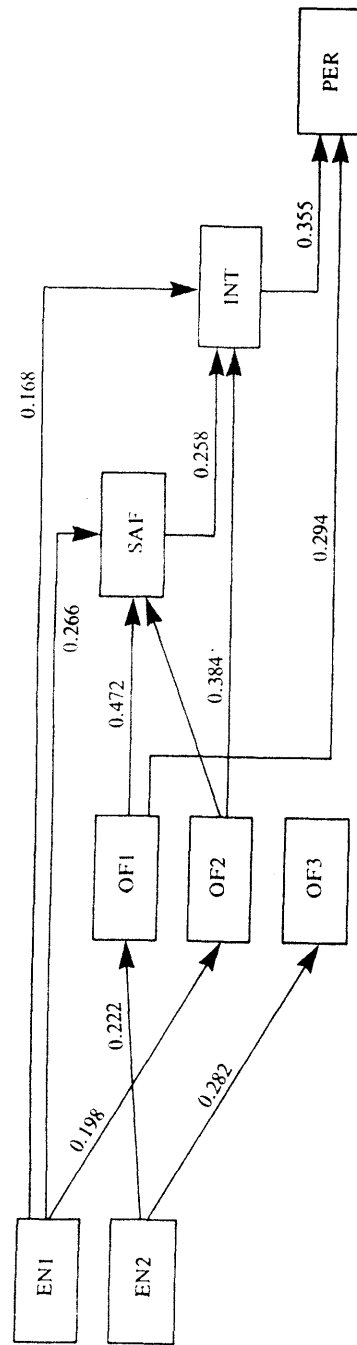
The environmental characteristics of organization are summarized into two factors, EN1 and EN2, by principal component analysis. EN1 is the perceived importance of anti-poverty programmes in national policy formulation phases. EN2 is the perceived adequacy of communications between anti-poverty programme-related agencies and other governmental agencies.

The organizational characteristics are summarized into three factors, OF1, OF2 and OF3. OF1 is the perceived adequacy of the administrator's ability to carry out anti-poverty programmes. OF2 is the perceived adequacy of communications between anti-poverty programme-related agencies. OF3 is the perceived consistency of the administrator's responsibility in carrying out anti-poverty programmes. All these factors are produced by principal component analysis.

The result of the path analysis is shown in Figure 4. The most significant variable influencing the effectiveness variable directly is the variable representing the extent of communications between the programme officials and the target population as perceived by the programme officials (INT). This is what is expected, because the greater the interaction, the more likely it is that the programme promotes the welfare of its recipients and thus the programme performance. This result is consistent with that of Hage and Aiken's previous study (1970). What is more noteworthy about the interaction variable is the fact that it serves as the intermediate variable through which other variables influence the performance variable.

The second most important variable impacting directly on the effectiveness variable is the factor representing the perceived adequacy of the administrator's ability to carry out anti-poverty programmes (OF1). Many officials involved in the planning phase felt that they were over-qualified for their jobs, and officials at the Dong level felt that they were given too much work. Providing the programme officials with proper responsibility and a challenge would therefore improve programme performance.

FIGURE 4
Result of path analysis from the organizational aspect*



- Notes:
- EN1 = Perceived importance of anti-poverty programmes in national policy formulation phases.
 - EN2 = Perceived adequacy of communications between anti-poverty programme-related agencies and other government agencies.
 - OF1 = Perceived adequacy of administrator's ability to carry out anti-poverty programmes.
 - OF2 = Perceived adequacy of communications between anti-poverty programme-related agencies.
 - OF3 = Perceived consistency of administrator's responsibility required in carrying out anti-poverty programmes.
 - SAF = Perceived job satisfaction of programme officials.
 - INT = Extent of communication between programme officials and target population as perceived by programme officials.
 - PER = Performance variable (consistency of programme content with the recipients' welfare as appraised by administrators).
- * Only significant (0.1 level) impacting variables are included.

Of the various paths, the most powerful channel of influence is through the interaction variable. Note that the *b*-coefficient of the interaction variable on the performance is 0.355. The path through which all influences are powerful is that of the round-about route of EN2 – OF1 – SAF – INT – PER. It can be said that the more adequate the communication between government agencies, the higher is the satisfaction of programme officials, causing them to be more active in carrying out anti-poverty programmes. All these contribute to improving the effectiveness of the programmes. Throughout the entire path, the *b*-coefficients do not fall below 0.222. The indirect effects of the other variables on the performance variable is shown in Appendix A.

Target population aspect

The socio-demographic characteristics are represented by various variables such as the place of residence, the place where the major portion of the respondent's life is spent, marital status, family composition, schooling of the man, employment status and occupation of the man and wife, religion, etc.

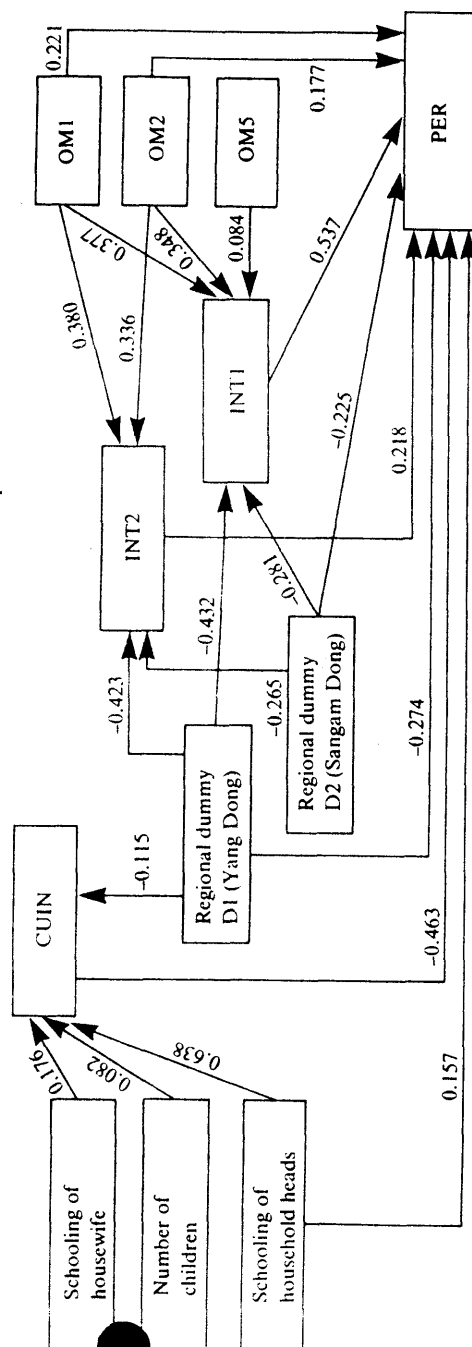
The household income is represented by the current monthly income stated by the respondent. This variable is treated separately from the variables representing the above socio-demographic characteristics because it is an important economic variable for our analysis.

The interaction variable is grouped into two factors by principal component analysis with an oblique rotation selection criterion. These are knowledge of anti-poverty programmes (INT1) and frequency of interaction between anti-poverty programme officials and the urban poor (INT2). These variables are indexed according to the urban poor's perception of the variables.

The result of path analysis is shown in Figure 5. The variable which exerts the most powerful direct influence on the programme effectiveness variable turns out to be INT1, which represents the programme knowledge of the urban poor. This can be interpreted as the fact that the more that is known about the anti-poverty programmes, the more favourable is the appraisal of the programmes' over-all effectiveness. The same result is found in the study of Vilorio et al. (1983) in the Philippines. It is encouraging to note that programme knowledge leads to a more favourable appraisal of the programme by the urban poor.

The next most important variable influencing the programme

FIGURE 5
Result of path analysis from the individual aspect*



Notes: CUIN = Current income of the urban poor.

INT1 = Knowledge of anti-poverty programmes perceived by the urban poor.

INT2 = Frequency of interaction between anti-poverty programme officials and the urban poor.

OM1 = Status of employment programme as appraised by the urban poor.

OM2 = Status of health programme as appraised by the urban poor.

OM3 = Status of housing programme as appraised by the urban poor.

OM4 = Status of education programme as appraised by the urban poor.

OM5 = Status of income subsidy programme as appraised by the urban poor.

PER = Performance variable of overall anti-poverty programme effectiveness as appraised by the target population.
* Only significant (0.1 level) impacting variables are included.

effectiveness variable is the current household income. The income variable has a significantly negative impact. This is likely to be due to the fact that those with a relatively high income, even among the urban poor interviewed, are not likely to be eligible for any kind of programme benefits. Being ineligible, they are unlikely to be interested in the programme, and therefore, have little or no knowledge of it. This is consistent with the Korean Institute of Social Welfare survey in 1979.

Schooling of the household head is shown to have a significantly positive and direct effect on the appraisal of the programme. This relationship is significant in view of the fact that schooling is positively related with income and that income has a negative effect on the programme effectiveness variable. This can be interpreted as the fact that, to the extent to which the income effect is held constant, the more schooling one has, the more favourable is the appraisal of the anti-poverty programme.

The *b*-coefficient of the dummy variables representing the place of residency in Yang Dong and Sangam Dong indicate that the people residing in these areas have a significantly less favourable opinion of the programmes than those residing in Shinjeong Dong. The reason for this is difficult to assess because the programmes are supposed to be implemented by the Seoul City government equally among the different Dongs. It is to be noted here that, according to the interviewers' observation, Shinjeong Dong residents are generally better motivated than the residents of the other two Dongs and that there are significant differences in the interaction between programme officials and target population among the three Dongs.

Those who have a favourable opinion of the employment (OM1) and health (OM2) programmes tend to have a favourable opinion of the over-all effectiveness of anti-poverty programmes. Finally, the *b*-coefficient of frequency of interaction between anti-poverty programme officials and the urban poor (INT2) indicates that more communication between programme officials and the target population leads to a more favourable rating of the over-all effectiveness of the programme by the latter. This is consistent with Onn's (1984) study. The indirect effect of variables on the effectiveness variable is presented in Appendix B.

Conclusions and policy implications

With the data obtained from programme officials, it is shown that the most important factor influencing the programme performance

variable is the extent of communication between the programme officials and the target population (INT). This was expected according to the organization theory and the Hage-Aiken study (1970).

The next most important factor is the perceived adequacy of the administrator's ability to carry out anti-poverty programmes (OF1). The importance of utilizing each person's ability effectively has been recognized widely in organization theory. The result shows that it is applicable to the anti-poverty programmes.

When the data from the urban poor are analysed, the principal component factor representing the programme knowledge of residents (INT1), the household income, schooling of the household head, the place of residence and the frequency of interaction between officials and residents (INT2) are all shown to have a significant and direct impact on the programme effectiveness variable as represented by the appraisal of the urban poor. It is encouraging to note that the more the residents know about the anti-poverty programmes and the more educated they are, the more favourable is their programme appraisal.

A complementary finding is that greater interaction between programme officials and residents leads to better appraisal of the programme by the residents. This is expected from organization theory and from the result of the analyses of the data from programme officials.

Path analysis is conducted to examine how the socio-demographic characteristics of individual households exert an impact on the programme effectiveness through the programme knowledge of residents (INT1), the frequency of interaction between officials and residents (INT2) and the income variable. The place of residence and the appraisal of individual programmes are shown to exert an impact on the effectiveness through INT1 and INT2. Schooling and number of children influence the effectiveness variable through another characteristic of the household, namely, income.

The most important message emerging from the data analyses is that, to improve the over-all effectiveness of the anti-poverty programmes, formal and informal channels of interaction and communication between programme officials and the residents, between policy makers and implementors and between different programme agencies should be developed and improved. Most of the factors found to have a significant impact on the perceived programme performance have something to do with interaction and communication. The programme knowledge of residents (INT1), the

perceived adequacy of the administrator's ability to carry out anti-poverty programmes (OF1), the frequency of interaction between programme officials and residents (INT2) and job satisfaction (SAF) can all be directly improved by improving interaction and communication.

As the channels of interaction and communication improve, the importance of the anti-poverty programmes for the welfare of the nation and the priority given to the programmes should be emphasized. An improvement in interaction and communication should also be used to solve the traditional organizational problems such as the perceived adequacy of the administrator's ability to carry out anti-poverty programmes (OF1) and the perceived consistency of the administrator's responsibility in carrying out these programmes (OF3).

If the government intends to upgrade the nation's social welfare programmes, then this change in priority and the budget composition should be widely communicated to the government agencies and officials involved and to the public in general. This would improve programme officials' morale and self-esteem as well as improve the urban poor's impression of the programme and their interaction with programme officials. Recognition of the improving priority given to the programmes would, therefore, improve their organizational efficiency as well as their organizational effectiveness.

In order to gain greater support for the anti-poverty programmes, the process of policy formulation and the way the organization works should be made clearer to the general public. A sizable minority felt that the programme was not for the benefit of the target population interviewed. Some of the dissatisfaction on the part of the intended beneficiaries was their feeling of helplessness, attributable to lack of knowledge about the programmes.

Within the anti-poverty programmes, top priority should be given to employment and training. The jobs thus provided would presumably be permanent and would, therefore, reduce the expenditure on other anti-poverty programmes. When the employment programme objective is seen in terms of turning the jobless into productive members of society, then investment in such a programme is likely to yield a better return than investment in other anti-poverty programmes. It is our opinion that giving priority to the employment programme within the anti-poverty programmes would improve programme effectiveness more than would increasing the over-all programme budget across the board.

In order to improve the overall effectiveness of the anti-poverty programmes, the government should also establish a system of consistent monitoring and evaluating all government personnel for promotion. This system should be supplemented by the above.

It is difficult to draw policy implications for other developing countries from this study because there exists a great deal of inter-country difference in socio-economic conditions and the dynamics of policy formulation. Nevertheless, this study has at least two bearings on other developing countries. First, some of our study results can be applied to such countries since most of them share with Korea some of the characteristics mentioned in section II in terms of programme administrative structure and government organizational structure. For instance, their anti-poverty programme structure should be formulated more clearly. Second, greater priority should be given in national policies to anti-poverty programmes. Third, channels of interaction between programme formulators, implementors and beneficiaries should be improved. Finally, in order to make anti-poverty programmes more effective, the relationship between the determinants of anti-poverty programme effectiveness and programme effectiveness should be taken into consideration in programme formulation and implementation.

This study also suggests that system models for evaluating the effectiveness of anti-poverty programmes could provide a useful framework of analysis for other developing countries. In developing countries, there is an increasing awareness that the government should undertake more effective programmes for the urban poor. However, the planning and implementation of these programmes in developing countries have been performed without extensive and/or intensive studies of the determinants of their effectiveness. Considering that most developing countries are pressed for funds for economic development, how to use limited funds more effectively for anti-poverty programmes is of paramount importance. As previously noted, system models can provide the internal dynamics of the various impacting variables on programme effectiveness, which are essential elements of programme planning and implementation. In these respects, our system models can provide a basis for other refined system models suitable for country-specific socio-economic conditions.

Notes

This research is supported by the International Development Research Centre, Canada. We wish to thank Drs Yue-man Yeung and François Bélisle of the Centre for valuable guidance and advice. We are also grateful to Dr S. Danziger for his useful comments.

1. *Yearbook of Health and Social Statistics (1983)*, Ministry of Health and Social Affairs, Republic of Korea.

2. See Lim (1979) pp. 96-7.

3. See An et al. (1979) pp. 23-5.

4. See Suh (1981) pp. 278-88.

5. The most important component of the farm income policy is the grain support programme. Under the price support programme administered through the Grain Management Fund and the subsidy programme administered through the Fertilizer Fund, over 2 percent of gross national product was expended in 1974 and 1975. Incentives in the form of tax exemptions have been offered to encourage firms to move their plants from Seoul and other urban centres to designated areas or to construct new plants in the designated development areas, and there are penalties for firms that choose to remain in Seoul and other areas of congestion.

6. Won is the Korean currency. In 1982, one US dollar was worth about 800 won.

Appendix A. Summary of causal effects of impacting variables on programme effectiveness variable in organizational aspect^a

Causal effect	Direct	Indirect	Total
Effect of environmental characteristics on PER			
EN1 — PER	0.0	0.116	0.116
EN2 — PER	0.0	0.074	0.074
Effect of organizational characteristics on PER			
OF1 — PER	0.294	0.043	0.337
OF2 — PER	0.0	0.160	0.160
OF3 — PER	0.0	0.0	0.0
Effect of satisfaction on PER			
SAF — PER	0.0	0.091	0.091
Effect of interaction on PER			
INT — PER	0.355	0.0	0.355

Note: For explanation of notations used, see Figure 4.

^aAll figures represent *b*-coefficients obtained through multiple regressions. Only those *b*-coefficients which are statistically significant at 0.1 level are included.

Appendix B. Summary of effects of all significant impacting variables on the programme effectiveness with the data from the urban poor

Causal effect	Direct	Indirect	Total
Effect of individual programme status on programme effectiveness			
OM1 — PER	0.221	0.285	0.506
OM2 — PER	0.177	0.260	0.437
OM5 — PER	0.0	0.045	0.045
Effect of interaction on programme effectiveness			
INT1 — PER	0.537	0.0	0.537
INT2 — PER	0.218	0.0	0.218
Effect of CUIN on programme effectiveness			
CUIN — PER	-0.463	0.0	-0.463
Effect of socio-demographic characteristics on effectiveness			
Schooling of household head — PER	0.157	-0.295	-0.138
D1 (Yang Dong Dummy) — PER	-0.274	-0.270	-0.544
D2 (Sangam Dong Dummy) — PER	-0.225	-0.208	-0.433
Number of children — PER	0.0	-0.037	-0.037
Schooling of housewife — PER	0.0	-0.081	-0.081

Note: For explanations of notations used, see Figure 5. In this table only significant variables at 0.1 level are included.

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**24th International Conference of the
International Council on Social Welfare (ICSW)
Berlin, 31 July to 5 August 1988**

**Theme: 'Law — Social Welfare —
Social Development'**

Law has always been one of the strongest factors conditioning the values and structure of society. Law may constitute a major source of social unrest or a powerful instrument for social improvement. The skilful handling of legal instruments can be helpful in overcoming social problems, whereas mistakes in drafting or administering law can provoke new social problems. It is therefore time that the phenomena of social welfare and law and their relationship be subjected to careful consideration and discussion.

The significance of law for social welfare and that of social welfare for law differs from one country to another, depending on legal traditions, the political system, development level, the historical development of social benefits and services, etc. An international and interdisciplinary comparison of facts and experience and an exchange of ideas should make a particularly valuable contribution towards improving the situation, bringing together social welfare and law, meeting social needs and establishing social justice.

Up to 3000 participants are expected, and there will be discussion groups, visits and an exhibition augmenting the conference itself. For information and conference programmes, contact the *Secretary General, Mrs Ingrid Gelinek, Koestlergasse 1/29, A-1060 Vienna, Austria.*