Social Equity Within Public Administration

By

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Masters of Arts

Bachelor of Science

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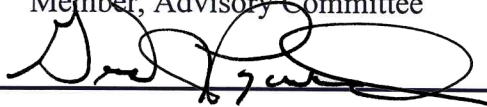
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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my family for their unwavering support.

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ABSTRACT

The present study will provide a review of the literature regarding social equity and a place within Public Administration. Social equity is a value that informs theory and practice. The manner in which value informs theory and practice will be included to provide a theoretical basis. Tensions between New Public Administration and the previous school of thought will be highlighted. A case study approach will be utilized in this discussion to investigate and analyze the issue of homelessness. The case study will be used to illustrate the gaps in terms of administrative response in alleviating homelessness for individuals and families, primarily supported by data specific to the Commonwealth of Kentucky. Best practices and or suggestions for policy and practice will be provided in conclusion.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Young scholars met in Minnowbrook, New York to discuss the new direction of the study and practice of public administration in late 1960s. George Frederickson was in attendance. He argued at the time and in years following for the inclusion of values in practice, particularly social equity. The concept of social equity was expressly identified as a key component. The debate remains in establishing equal footing in partners, economy, efficiency, and effectiveness. The call to add value to the practice of public administration resulted in social equity being named the fourth pillar of public administration in 2005. Major (2011) argued social equity must be defined succinctly; develop clear measures of assessment and evaluation; and, most important, educate public administrators to include equity at the same level as considerations as economy, efficiency, and effectiveness when delivering and implementing public policies. The National Academy of Public Administration (NAPA) Standing Panel on Social Equity in Governance defines social equity as:

"Issues of fairness, justice, and equity have always been a part of public administration, and these issues were front-and-center in the early years of affirmative action. Now the focus has moved from hiring and promotion practices and contractors selection, to fields as broad as education, policing, welfare, housing, and transportation. In the language of public administration, the phrase "social equity" has come to be the way we bring these issues together and apply them to the field. (NAPA, 2011)

The present study will provide a review of the literature regarding social equity and a place within Public Administration. Social equity is a value that informs theory and

practice. The manner in which value informs theory and practice will be included to provide a theoretical basis. Tensions between New Public Administration and the previous school of thought will be highlighted. A case study approach will be utilized in this discussion to investigate and analyze the issue of homelessness. The case study will be used to illustrate the gaps in terms of administrative response in alleviating homelessness for individuals and families, primarily supported by data specific to the Commonwealth of Kentucky. Best practices and or suggestions for policy and practice will be provided in conclusion. How networks function in regards to community and organizational participation will be considered in determining diversity and the manner in which present practices and policies work to address the issue of homelessness. The issue of homelessness was chosen as the topic of interest as it is representative of a collaborative network in which duties are executed on behalf of the public. The research serves as a continuation of the emphasis on social equity as a pillar of public administration, in practice and policy. Of interest and concern to the public administrator is the role that government plays as guarantor of social equity. An argument will be presented for consideration of homelessness as an area pertaining to social equity. Services provided to homeless individuals or families are representative of a progressive opportunity. Progressive opportunities are ones in which providing opportunities to ensure all members of society have equal ability to achieve expressed goals. An inclusive public sphere equates to society faring better on the whole.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

In developing an operational definition of equity, Svara and Brunet (2005) concluded public administrators should demonstrate specific commitments. Due process, equal protection, and equal rights should be provided regardless of personal characteristics. Deviation and contributing factors preventing this from happening should be corrected. There should be equity in availability of services. Barriers to access, accountability obligations, to the rule of law, and stewardship of resources should be considered. Consistency in service quality is critical. Acceptable standards and practice must prevail for all groups. Public administrators should work to achieve an equal outcome "in the social and economic condition for all individuals and seek to eliminate differences in outcomes for groups." (Svara & Brunet, 2005, p 257). The extent to which government how and can intervene to reduce inequality in outcomes is key in this discussion. Solicitation of citizen effort and feedback is a proactive exercise in social equity will drive community action.

There is a steady stream of thought in the field of that recognizes the value-laden character of public administration. Post-World War II writings argue the concept of efficiency could only be meaningful within the context of a value system. Matters are only efficient or inefficient in relation to their purpose. The theme within the literature, especially imbedded in constitutional tradition, values should "serve as criteria for action." (Molina, 2009, p 268). Public administration is action oriented. Values inform our attitudes to the ends we aspire and the standards from which we employ to achieve the desired ends. Competing values call for different modes of action. Molina argued

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(2009) values are embedded in the work of public administration and "their role in serving as normative criteria for action." (p 266)

The need for public administration to advance social equity has been long standing. Bittick (2009) discussed property rights within the context of social equity. Institutional theory focuses on the protection of property rights of the disadvantaged as a means to ensure social equity. The actions taken on the part of the public administrator affect the degree of social equity achieved. Bittick (2009) utilized North's institutional theory to demonstrate the connection between action in the interest of social equity and ethics. The definition of social equity within the literature is not standardized and heavily influenced by context. Within the literature, social equity is based upon the principle of justice. Justice entails all individuals are treated equally yet acknowledges differences influenced by social and historical contingencies. The literature also emphasized the redistribution of resources to the least advantaged. Bittick (2009) cautioned that this is not done to gain political power to violate fundamental rights of the other members of society. The ethical behavior of public administrators determines impartial implementation of policy. This is paramount in building institutional credibility. Public trust must exist before credibility is realized by the public. This is a process that occurs over time. The author cautioned that inequitable distribution of services can contribute to increased risk for those in need. To avoid this, managers must be willing to implement the policies as indicated by the legislature in a fair manner. This willingness is predicated on the ethical conduct of the administrator. The author suggested utilizing measures of institutional credibility that are sensitive to minority populations. An understanding of the formal and informal rules of society offer insight for practice and policy. A prosperous

society occurs when the disadvantaged are of concern to administrators of public policy at all levels within government.

Public administrators spend a great deal of time discussing inclusion yet habitually practice exclusion. This topic of diversity is paramount within the field in that "diversity makes a difference when it affects people." (Guy, 2010, p 176). Diversity advances the quality of the democratic state. The more we value diversity; there are greater assurances that processes and procedures are open to all members of society. As Guy (2010) argued "policies established by us without considering the effects on them" will not lead to policies and practices that are sustainable. (p 178) He also argued that diversity makes a difference in raising awareness of differences not ignoring but rather embracing the differences. This does admittedly create resistance on the part of those that perceive loss when diversity is embraced. A useful means to ensure the responsible use of bureaucratic discretion entails attitudes, values, and opinions of the representatives and those governed are aligned. This fosters a more inclusive bureaucratic policy process.

Alexander and Stivers (2010) argued that scholarship in the field of public administration has failed to reconcile how race has contributed to maintaining policies and practices with racist implications. The administrative state and public administration have played a central role in the placement and maintenance of subordinate status on the basis of race. The authors stated race is "a pervasive social reality." (Alexander & Stivers, 2010, p 579) Meaning and value are ascribed to racial identity. There is considerable published work on public policies affected by race however few examine consideration of race with regard to ethical practice. The concept of race historically has been driven by political, economic, and social forces. Race-based patterns of practice

sustain institutional structures over time. Systematic constraints have lessened over time yet we have not risen fully to the establishment of government accountability to minority populations. Accountability in this area involves process and outcomes. Responsibilities of the public administrator are bound in the logic of the Constitution. Administration interpretation and enforcement of law adheres to the prevailing sentiments of the majority.

The accepted managerial solution has been to foster social equity. This is done in part by creating organizational cultures that value and encourage diversity. Management of diversity is essential for organizational productivity. Alexander and Stivers (2010) stated "the shortfalls in results are due, in part, to the gap that exists between cognitive understanding and behavioral change." (p 587) The dialogue has mainly centered on how pragmatism has influenced the support for Public Administrations need for practical problem solving approaches. The missing element has been the examination of the connection between practical, participatory understanding and public administration ethics. The field has yet to embrace that purpose emerges from process rather than in reverse. The challenge is for public administrators to acknowledge the past and commit to inclusion.

Choi and Rainey (2010) addressed the effects of diversity and diversity management on employee perceptions of organizational performance. As public organizations face managing a diverse workforce, the call is issued for increased research on the impact of diversity on organizational effectiveness. The inconsistent empirical evidence within the literature indicated a more complex relationship exists between diversity and organizational effectiveness. The research of Choi and Rainey (2010)

indicated "mediating or moderating effects of contextual factors, such as organizational culture, demographic characteristics of group members and supervisors, explain the inconsistent results.: (p 109) The discussion of the empirical investigation of Choi and Rainey (2010) included a review of the literature on diversity in work groups, focused on theoretical arguments about the impact of diversity and diversity management. There are two perspectives on the impacts of diversity. One is based on information and decision making theories. The argument is diversity is beneficial to the organization in providing a broad range of ideas, skills, and insight that improve capabilities to solve problems. The other perspective, in part is based, on social categorization and social identity. Diversity may be a costly and compromise to organizational effectiveness based on in-group and out-group members. The authors (2010) cautioned that the external validity of these perspectives is questionable and contextual factors should be given consideration. The research illustrated the importance of contextual variables in understanding the impact of diversity on organizational outcomes. The effects of diversity may vary according to the type of diversity. The findings suggested that the effects of diversity management can enhance or reverse the main impacts of diversity on organizational outcomes. If properly managed, varied perspectives can be a source of growth and enhanced organizational performance.

Bradbury and Kellough (2011) stated a public workforce that is representative of the people will ensure the interests of all are met within the bureaucratic decision making process, Marginalized groups are disproportionately represented within the present democratic state. A general review of the public administration literature reveals considerable linkages between passive and active representation. Certain public

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organizations with larger proportions of minorities in decision making roles are more likely to produce outcomes compatible to the minority groups than those with fewer minorities. This may be attributed to other factors outside of representation. Policy outcomes consistent with minority interests can be produced by non minority bureaucrats, as influenced by interacting with minority colleagues. The authors argued for academic research focused on the individual level on the connections of both types of representation. A model can be found within the literature in the field of criminal justice.

As defined from combining components from multiple disciplines, a multicultural competent manager will (a) attempt to understand racial issues (b) openly deal with issues of diversity (c) actively work to increase minority representation and retention (d) make fair and unbiased decisions. The results of the study conducted by Mason (2012) contributed to the body of literature on workplace diversity training effectiveness based on a theoretical and methodological approach. Best practices include programming that is centered on awareness, skill building, and action planning. This will work to contribute to environments that value difference and eliminate barriers.

Glaser et al (2012) used the case of urban public education and citizen input to assess the willingness to follow leader's intent on advancing social equity. Public opinion is often viewed as an instrument of opportunity and socioeconomic mobility. Table 1 provides a chronological outline of Frederickson's Understanding of Social Equity. This information can be utilized to contribute to the understanding of community ethos in support of social equity. Public leadership intent on advancing social equity must encourage less personal well-being and more community well-being. The resistance to spending in terms of social welfare dampens public agency advances of social equity.

[1]The research of Glaser et al (2012) provided evidence that "individual commitment to social equity is not necessarily tied closed to an intimate understanding of contributors to inequality (p 34).

The argument for the importance of developing multicultural competence in the workplace is centered on the yield of business advantage. The greater the skill set of the leader in terms of multicultural issues and interaction leads to a decrease in conflict. Leaders that manage diversity effectively recognize differing frames of reference, thus serving as role models that value differing opinions. Mason and Leslie (2012) predicted multicultural competence is an important determinant of managerial success. In general, the results of the empirical study support the argument within the multicultural workplace; successful managers must develop skills to manage diversity. Mason and Leslie (2012) empirically investigated the importance of multicultural competence in managerial success, examining the link to emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence (EQ) is "an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures." (Mason & Leslie, 2012, p 222). Constructive thinking facilitates creative idea generation. EQ is measured in terms of common sense (emotional common sense). This is needed when adapting to and working with differences in the work context. The results indicated there is a strong correlation between managerial ratings on multicultural competence and ratings on job performance, leadership ability, and promotion potential.

Lack of attention to the role race and diversity contribute to American societal unequal levels of municipal service delivery to minority group members. Thusly public administrators fail to follow principles of equity, equality, efficiency, and responsiveness

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[1] All tables can be found within the Appendix.

to all residents. The attention has shifted to addressing the continued reality of political exclusion and environmental racism. Spina (2013) addressed challenges and corrective ways to address lingering issues with regard to race and community disparities. The research of Spina (2013) speaks to how public officials can be more involved in social inequality solutions. The literature argues that values in public services include "responsiveness, citizen involvement, equity, and participation." (Spina, 2013, p 99). Participation and implementation of public policy should be viewed within the context of growing diversity (Spina, 2013). Social equity makes government responsive to the needs of all citizens. Social equity involves a commitment to promoting fairness and justice in public policy development. Public managers must have an understanding of the issues they are confronting. Inequality ranges from fairness in treatment to redistribution of services to reduce inequalities in communities.

CHAPTER 3

Theory

Of the four pillars of public administration, economy is certainly the most publicly scrutinized. Evaluation of expenditures and monitoring inputs as compared to stated goals are ways in which economy is measured. Economy is at times sacrificed to earn long term gains in efficiency, effectiveness, and economy. Efficiency is achievement and maximizing value to the members of society. Economic considerations are linked. Measures that are concrete and objective are utilized to assess efficiency. Like economy, efficiency is considered in the short term. However, investments over time do aid in developing systems that improve process efficiencies over time. Effectiveness speaks to accomplishing the intended goal. There is no consensus on how to define effectiveness. Program evaluations and tracking of outputs are common tools of evaluation. Some are tangible and others cost restrictive. In spite of this, Major (2011) stated the concept is concrete. Public administration is defined as sufficient, economical and efficient in terms of who is being served. In creating the normative development of the concept, the debate looms over what social equity looks like and what proper role government plays in the establishment of social equity once defined.

Significant changes in practices often accompany historical shifts in mass-scale social organization and operation. Public administration in the most basic form is the execution of law. Applications of general law are acts of the administration. Public administration is also an exercise in regulation. Adhering to the theory of Max Weber, there are certain elemental features of public administration. Formal authority has a basis within the claims of obedience. Laws and rules are constructed with intentionality.

Spheres of individual competence include task differentiation and or expertise to a certain degree. Therefore, organizations are grouped or categorized according to specialization. Coordination flows hierarchically. Rules and records ensure continuity. There is a clear distinction between the organization and persons in positions of power. Specific technologies exist to address developmental concerns. The usefulness of any theory depends on its capacity to describe, explain, and predict. As it applies to public administration, theory is an orientation, framework, technique, or approach. It is the order of factual material (i.e. history, measures of opinion, or observation) as the presentation of evidence promotes understanding. Theories of public administration guide the allocation of public goods. The last quarter century has ushered in fundamental shifts in the purpose and methods of government. Said changes raised the question of what the scope and nature of public administration is- both in terms of scholarship and profession. Frederickson et al (2015) cite "the collapse of orthodox theory meant that the bureaucracies within centralized policy jurisdictions could no longer be considered outside or above politics, but they remained the central suppliers of public goods and services and continued to define what administration theory was called upon to explain." (p 219) The administrative state is less reliant on centralized authority. Accountability in conducting public business is about performance rather than attaining goals with confines. Frederickson et al (2012) referred to the term hollow state, "a metaphor for government that contracts public service provision out to networks of (mostly) nonprofit organizations and reduces its role as a direct supplier of public goods (p 220). The definition of public administration presently includes a broad variety of institutions and organizations, outside as well relationships within government and policy makers.

Modern public administration involves an inherent tension between better responsiveness to citizens as clients and effective collaboration with them as partners. The institutional view of social capital argues vitality of community networks and civil society as the product of political, legal, and institutional environments. The capacity of social groups to act toward a collective interest is dependent upon the quality of formal institutions. Emphasis is placed on competence and external accountability to civil society (Woolcock & Naryan, 2000) Network effectiveness is used in the formulation of public policy at local, state, and national levels. Public funds are allocated to service and or delivery mechanisms that utilize resources efficiently in service provision to address public needs. To afford networks their proper due, we must understand if they work. There is little agreement in the field of public administration as to how this should be evaluated. Provan and Milward (2001) proposed a framework for network evaluation-three broad levels: community, network, and organizational/participant levels. All three are to be considered, although not equally. The authors proposed at the broadest level of analysis "community-based networks must be judged by the contribution they make to the communities they are trying to serve. Most problems in the public domain, particularly in human or health services, are essentially community problems that must be addressed at the community level. (Provan & Milward, 2001, p 416)

Network effectiveness is assessed by evaluating aggregate outcomes and examining overall costs for service for the client group. A network can also be deemed effective by the contribution of social capital. In the public sector, the constituent groups are more diverse and politicized. Public sector networks are most effective when they

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enhance the capacity of the organizations to solve problems and to serve clientele. (Provan & Milward, 2001).

Three main streams of research on networks have been identified within the public administration literature. Policy networks are sets of public agencies, legislative offices, and private sector organizations (interest groups or nonprofit organizations) that have an interest in public decisions within an area. Networks focus on the provision and production of collaborative good and services. These collaborative networks are collections of government agencies, nonprofit, and for-profits working to provide a public good, service, or value. Collaborative networks execute duties on behalf of the public. Governance networks fuse collaborative public goods and service provision with collective policy making. The focus is on coordination that will serve a common goal rather than policies produced by the network. Conversely theorists recognize authority and hierarchy traditionally rest at the core of organizational theory. Changes since World War II are increasingly representative of the increase in multi organizational teams and partnerships. The interconnectivity and growth among public, private, and nonprofit organizations create a demand for new approaches to ensure effectiveness and responsiveness. The response on the part of the field of public administration is represented by network-based relationship theory. Formal and informal ties seek to link organizations to serve a common purpose. Linkages are formed via intergovernmental grant programs, contracting relationships, or loose partnerships. The actors are comprised of federal, state, and local representatives (for-profit and nonprofit). The shift has helped public administrators escape hierarchical authority. Reconciliation of administrative practices has taken place. The present approach does not rely on authority.

Radical civil service reform is a direct reaction to administrative reform prescriptions. A sentiment expressed in the research findings of Condrey & Battaglio (2007). In addition the argument persists that radical civil service reform and employment at will (EAW) are persistent and expansive. Who gets what is no longer singularly determined by votes; rather complexities and private interest. Public sector human resource management (HRM) reform is a component of public management reform. The area of most attention is the change from merit systems to employment at will (EAW). Dismantling traditional procedures is an interest in fostering flexibility, efficiency, and effectiveness in public management. Thus altering the relationship between the government as employer and public sector employee. A separate and distinct function of New Public Management (NPM) is in planning, implementing, and assessing productivity. Factors that motivate public sector employees "is an important construct in the development of productivity and trust in the public workforce." (Battaglio, 2010, p 344). The results of the study conducted by Battaglio (2010) have implications for scholarship and practice. Reforms have affected motivation in the public sector. Employment at will (EAW) has the potential to erode progress with regards to diversity in the public sector. This must not be ignored. The focus must be broadened to include stakeholders. The perception of the street level bureaucrats is missing within the research. Perceptions of EAW respective of race are an area for further consideration.

Bryson et al (2014) highlighted key value-related issues in the emerging approach. Efficiency and effectiveness are the main concerns of New Public Management. The emerging approach brings to the forefront the value-related concerns not previously dominate. Questions of the creation of public value and the public sphere

are prominent. The new approach represents the response to present challenges or previous shortcoming. The responses include:

"an emphasis on public value and public values; a recognition that government has a special role as a guarantor of public values; a belief in the importance of public management broadly conceived, and of service to and for the public; and a heightened emphasis on citizenship and democratic collaborative governance." (Bryson et al, 2014, p 445)

Progressive opportunity is defined as "the social conditions requisite to ensure that members of a society have equal ability to exploit their individual abilities to achieve the goals they have set for themselves." (Bozeman and Johnson, 2014, p 3) Achieving such includes a means of redressing structural inequalities, often deeply rooted in history and the social fabric. Public values are historical, contextual, and to some degree consensual. The very nature of public values is resistant to rapid change. Fundamental beliefs unique to societies are typically static. Social constructs typically only change with the emergence of new salient attractive ideas. A broad value change occurs either forcefully (realization of some perceived intolerable social dysfunction) or commonly (slow drawing recognition of incremental change over a period). Diversity of beliefs is a precondition to changing social construction of values. Diversity creates the opportunity for discourse and fundamental change. Composition of the public sphere and levels of opportunity within can impact public value. Larger societies are comprised of smaller societies. The degree of social distance determines potential and the pace of social change. This generation of new ideas is possible if access to the public sphere and legitimacy exist. The assignment to hierarchies that can be socially distinct is a

proliferation of disadvantages. Social institutions reflect and are a means to social change. In the modern democratic nation, governments and markets are the primary institutional forces that drive fundamental change. The relationship between public and private sector speaks greatly to public values.

Open public communication is pertinent to the public sphere as a public value. Bozeman and Johnson (2014) defined public sphere as "an open public communication and deliberation about public values and about public action pertaining to public values." (p 10) Public value is the space in which communication occurs. (Bozeman and Johnson, 2014). Citizens' shape widely held public values. The individual's' willingness and ability to participate in the shaping of public values is contingent upon trust of the social institution. Citizens entrust the government to protect and conserve emergent public values. The motivation to participate in the public sphere is contingent upon a reasonable expectation that cooperation, mutual trust, and fairness are achievable. If the perception is that the decision-making process is imbalanced, players leave the game. A degree of mutual respect is critical to effective functioning. A high degree of inequality is associated with suppressed or stifled participation. An equal level of participation lends to "disadvantaged articulation, deliberation, and acceptance' of ideas and values (Bozeman & Johnson, 2014, p 10). The authors stated that the social contract theory provides one framework to discuss the development of ideas and participation in political discourse. Social contract entails members of a civil society behaving according to perceptions of social covenant and that citizen's trust, respect, and cooperation are reinforced by equal treatment of all citizens. When recognized as equals, citizens agree to the social contract. This agreement is represented in a willing collective development and

adherence to the moral code of the public sphere. Participation in the public sphere is compromised when the ability to participate is abridged or resources mitigate participation. In the words of Bozeman and Johnson (2014) "The public sphere, public values, and progressive opportunities are interdependent." (p 11)

Economic cleavages undermine normative consensus. If citizens are unclear on agreed upon rights, duties, obligations, and privileges, "the social environment becomes more conducive to the substitution of unchecked and sometimes pernicious private action." (Bozeman and Johnson, 2014, p 12). The argument persists that the wealthiest 1% of the citizens shapes public value in the control of ideas and manipulation of politicians. This segment of society reinforces desired values in both the private market and public policy. The literature distinguishes that egalitarian societies strive to maintain social cohesion. This is represented in to whom, what, when, and how goods are distributed as paramount regarding assessment- creating a conflict between equality and efficiency.

Equality as discussed in the Bozeman and Johnson (2014) article is considered "the fair distribution of societal goods among people." (p 14) Conversely, efficiency is "achieving the most, best, or preferable ratio of societal goods or services (outputs) to societal resources (inputs)". Equal opportunity does not exist if significantly different levels of resources are available. As a society, we are better off if the public sphere is more inclusive. Progressive opportunity and public sphere reinforce public values.

Traditional Public Administration matured by the mid-twentieth century as a response to a set of conditions. Those included but not limited to challenges of industrialization, urbanization, rise of the modern corporation, and belief in progress.

This idealized form included a separation of politics and administration. Citizens were simply valued as voters, clients, and constituents. Responses to World War I, the Great Depression, and World War II solidified trust in government as an agent for the good of all. The New Public Administration became the dominant approach in the 1980s and 1990s. The challenges that prompted the traditional Public Administration and New Public Management have not disappeared; rather new conditions and challenges have emerged. The focus is on "how to govern, not just manage, in increasingly diverse and complex societies facing increasingly complex problems." (Bryson et al, 2014, p 446) Citizens are viewed as active problem-solver, co-creators, and governors. Citizens engage in the production of what is valued and deemed by the good. The new approach comprises a multi-faceted view of accountability. As this new approach emerges, one clear component is the fundamental importance of understanding what is meant by the public value, public goods, and the public sphere.

Increasingly over time scholars and political commentators have increased attention on the public sphere. This growing urgency is due in part to address the urgency, scope, and scale of public issues facing society. Pragmatically, government alone cannot address all the issues at play. The emerging approach of public administration places government in the role of creator and guarantor regarding public value. New Public Management is a global paradigm in response to economic, institutional, political, and ideological changes (Wise, 2002). Changes in values, economic development, existing political, social, and economic institutions, and knowledge that informs technology is the present pattern of administrative reform. Shifts in the values of a society affect social subsystems, including public administration.

Postmodernists prioritize equality among social groups, empowerment, and expansion of political participation. The people should be granted more of a say in how things are decided. Three postmodern values that arise from the general thesis of postmodernism germane to the field of public administration: demands for greater social equality, humanization, and democratization and empowerment. (Wise, 2002, p 556) The social equity theme dates to the early twentieth century; however the significance was not fully recognized until the early 1960s. Social equity influences organizational behavior as well as serves as the practical and legal basis for public goods and service distribution.

Defining social equity can be difficult. According to Guy and McCandless (as referenced by Maldonado, 2015) "while equality can be converted into a mathematical measure in which equal parts are identical in size or number, equity is a more flexible measure allowing for equivalency while not demanding sameness." The misconceptions associated with conceptualization complicate how social equity issues in governance are addressed. Maldonado (2015) conceptualized social equity as based on increased results that benefit the majority rather than the minority of the populace. It is less about treating everyone the same but more about providing the same opportunities. Despite an imbalance as to who received social or economic benefits- there is equitable distribution. Henri Fayol listed equity as one of fourteen public administration principles. However, he did not consider unique challenges of equity in public policy or service delivery. Frederickson (2005) stated save Woodrow Wilson, none of the founding documents of public administration consider social equity. Wilson did consider a limited form of public administration equity; however the assumption was "good administration of government was equally good for everyone". (Frederickson, 2005, p 31) As stated previously in the

1960s-evidence persisted that the results of governmental policy and the work of those tasked with the implementation of said policies were better for some more so than others. In the state of contradiction, social equity entered the literature and practice later. Frederickson (2005) does not state this to be dismissive as the concern has been ever present (the concern for equity). The period is heralded as when social equity was a prominent feature with concepts and shared values (p 32). The initial elements of this concept are rooted in the claim that justice, fairness, and equality are germane to the tenets of public administration. The work is in the implementation or action taken. 'Public administration is the law in action", penned Frederickson (2005, p 32). We can apply universal applications. The application of the law requires interpretation and discretion in such. The public institution is the setting in which issues of fairness, justice, and equality is addressed. Elected officials and public administrations jointly must carry out the laws and policies. Only recently has public administration professional practice considered social equity and not left the matter for other disciplines to dictate.

The implementation of public programs has been more effective and efficient for some citizens than others. Adding social equity as an ethical consideration for public administration places equity as the third pillar, alongside efficiency and economy. Frederickson (2005) referenced three qualities of social equity:

- Obligation to administer the law in a fair manner.
- Proactively furthering the cause.
- Moral leadership that encourages citizens to do what is right, decent, and honorable.

The concept is more broadly defined to include not only race and gender but also ethnicity, sexual preference, mental and physical conditions, language, and variations of economic circumstances. Diversity is often referred to in this broader definition. Economic inequality is an example of democratic privation- "unequal voices in political affairs and government processes that are much more responsive to the privileged than to other Americans." (Frederickson, 2005, p 34). The American Political Science Association declared that the ideal of equal citizenship and responsive government is under threat due to "persistent and rising inequality". (Frederickson, 2005, p 33). Research should therefore focus on matters of social equity in the interest of improving American democracy. Within the academic field and professional practice, there must be a rejection of the passive and be more engaged. Public administration is highly influential in policy making and implementation. If the expectation is for public administrators to be directly, the conversation needs to be aimed at how this will happen. To apply social equity, in all aspects, one must think globally and act locally. Everyone must be engaged in the theoretical war of ideas. To quote Frederickson (2005) "To effectively engage in the war of ideas requires knowledge, courage, and a quick wit." (p 35) Politics is about majority rule therefore public administration should be about seeing the interests of all segments of the population are met.

Justice, fairness, and equality are germane to the tenets of public administration. Value consideration is given in the application of the law in consideration of social equity. Therefore, a considerable portion of equitable representation is needed in the discretionary interpretation and implementation of public administration. In his article "Varieties of Participation in Complex Governance" (Fung 2006) had three aims. The

first shone attention on diversity in the practice of public administration. Participants draw conclusions that shape public policy. Secondly, he illustrated variations in design matters. The public actors are best served viewing this participation to solve democratic challenges. Lastly, he offered a focused way of thinking. Specifically, the dimension comprised a democracy cube. The three dimensions are:

- Who participates?

- How do they communicate and make decision?

- What influence do they have over the resulting public decisions and actions?

Jung (2015) considered the impact on three central democratic values: legitimacy, effective governance, and justice. In the 2015 article, Jung attended to the question that dealt with range. What are the values that greater citizen participation might advance? What are the opportunities and challenges to doing so? Despite a lack of a general census of participatory innovation, patterns have emerged. One such area is in expansion. Scope is a dimension of such expansion. This is the interjection of participation into new governance. A fundamental premise of representative democracy is the citizen's ability to influence politicians and policies- creating accountability. The actors that initiate and support citizen participation is vastly more diverse. Of concern and regarding value and social equity is the discussion on effective governance in the context of participatory innovation. It can be argued that governance is most effective when the government is able to solve the substantial problems at hand. Social problems arise because of individual problems. Many may be solved if a greater number of affected individuals are actively enlisted to solve them. Jung (2015) referred to this as "individual, even personalized, coproduction." (p 6). Participatory governance can advance social justice as

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a governance value. Injustice can be mitigated in two distinct ways. Increasing

participation shifts influence away from dominant groups. Justice then flows in a way

legitimacy and effectiveness become governance values. The advancement of social

justice through participatory governance must meet two conditions. There must be greater

public engagement and equality. Resourcefulness in design to implement participatory

institutions must be present also. Deficits of government institutions is attributed to

exclusion- be it systematic or in lack of deliberation. When previously excluded people or

ideas are included, equality is increased, as well as equity. When social partnerships are

created to deliver services, the individuals that utilize services benefit greatly. Initiatives

have proliferated over the years however three distinct challenges persist. Leadership

often fails to adapt the participatory designs to needs, identify, and organize allies, and

persevere. There is a lack of popular articulation and agreement. Triviality jeopardizes

the potential to create widespread disappointment. Shortcomings are often misidentified

as failures. Those who seek justice through participation, in the words of Jung (2015)

"must create political conditions under which powerful organizations and leaders are

motivated to advance social justice". (p 9)

Hartley (2005) discussed the three competing paradigms of governance and public

management. Each view contains a particular conception and assumption about the nature

of the world. The roles of politicians, managers, and population are outlined, as shown in

table 2. Each paradigm is linked to specific ideology and historical period. The paradigms

are competing and exist as larger realities. The conceptions of governance and public

management have implications in the role of policy makers, as outlined in table 2.

CHAPTER 4

Case Study

Causes of and how best to serve those impacted by homelessness was not a prominent topic of interest until about 1980. Federal assistance to homeless individuals or families was largely nonexistent. The Runaway and Homeless Youth Program were enacted in 1974. In March 1983, the first federal program that focused on all homeless people (no matter the age) was the Emergency Food and Shelter (EFS) program. In 1987, the McKinney Homeless Assistance Act (P.L. 100-77) was created to comprehensively address the needs of homeless people. Latter proponents authorized the creation of the Department of Housing and Urban (HUD) Homeless Assistance Grants. Table 4 outlines final appropriations for the FY 2011-2015 for targeted homelessness programs (with the exception of those administered by the VA.)

Changes in the face of homelessness ushered in an era of visibility. Studies at the time indicated that homeless individuals were no longer exclusively men. The demographics include women with children, younger median age, as well as racial diversity, a high proportion of the mentally ill, and individuals dealing with substance and or alcohol use. Urban development led to the demolition of the areas once referred to as skid row. This greatly impacted availability of affordable housing, decreased value in public benefits, changes in hospital admission standards, and decriminalization of some offenses such as vagrancy may have contributed in some way to increase visibility of homeless persons and or families. The Federal response in 1983 included grant programs to address food and shelter needs. Additionally the first federal task force was formed to in part disseminate information on surplus items that could be utilized to provide shelter

and other services. The Homeless Persons' Survival Act was introduced congressionally in June 1986. No action was taken, however, later in the same year; action was taken on Title I of the Act. This included considerations of emergency relief provisions for shelter, food, mobile health care, and transitional housing. With large bipartisan majorities, the legislation passed both houses of Congress in 1987. The bill was named after the death of the chief sponsor, Stewart B. McKinney of Connecticut. The act was signed into law by President Reagan in 1987. The original version established programs either created by or reauthorized by the act to provide an array of services. Interagency councils were established to provide guidance on coordinated efforts on the federal response. Legislative changes have taken place since the enactment.

The extent to and how best to address the issue was and is dependent upon how one defines the condition of being homeless. There is no single federal definition only uniformity in common use and reference to the definition enacted as part of the McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Act (P.L 100-77). This definition was broadened as part of the Helping Family Save Their Homes Act of 2009 (P.L. 111-22). A homeless individual is a

"person who lacks a fixed nighttime residence and whose primary nighttime residence is a supervised public or private shelter designed to provide temporary living accommodations, a facility accommodating persons intended to be institutionalized, or a place not intended to be used as a regular sleeping accommodation for human beings."

In certain circumstances those who will imminently lose housing are included in this definition. What it means to be homeless varies to some degree with service providers. Historically the definition required one to literally be homeless in order to

meet the requirements- living in emergency accommodations or no place to stay. There are federal programs that allow precarious or temporary accommodations to be considered. As part of the Homeless Emergency Assistance and Rapid Transition to Housing (HEARTH) Act, the definition was broadened to include:

- Amendments to Original McKinney-Vento Act Language**:** individual is homeless if they lack fixed, regular, and or adequate nighttime residence; not meant for human habitation; not suitable for sleep

- Imminent Loss of Housing: Individual may loose housing (be it their own, shared with others, or due to eviction) and no subsequent housing identified.

- Other Federal Definition: Added unaccompanied youth and homeless families with children who are defined as homeless under other federal statutes.

- Domestic Violence: Anyone fleeing dangerous or life threatening situation in the current housing situation.

The EFS program is the oldest federal program serving the homeless population. The program allocates funds to local communities to fund homeless programs and homelessness prevention services. A national board chaired by the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) governs the EFS program. Unemployment and poverty rates typically determine who qualifies (local jurisdictions and counties) for funds. Local jurisdictions deemed eligible convene local boards to determine which nonprofit or government agency within the communities should receive the funding and distribute accordingly. Examples of eligible expenses include items for food pantries, items for mass shelters, and payments to prevent homelessness. The program expired at the end of the FY 1994, however, continually receiving funding through annual appropriations.

Homeless Assistance Grants (established in 1987) fund housing and services. The grants are comprised of four programs- the Emergency Shelter Grant (ESG) Program, the Supportive Housing Program (SHP), the Section 8 Moderate Rehabilitation Assistance for Single-Room Occupancy Dwellings (SPO) Program, and the Shelter Care (S+C) Program. The HEARTH Act renamed and consolidated ESG-referred to as Emergency Solutions Grant Program and the Continuum of Care (CoC). The HEARTH Act provides no less than 5% of the CoC funds be set aside for rural communities.

Overview of Data and Causes

Individuals experiencing chronic homelessness have either been continuously homeless for more than one year or experienced four episodes of homelessness during the past three years. The definition also includes individuals with no permanent residence, yet temporarily residing with others. Considering the many facets of the definition, the face of homelessness includes those who have or may have dealt with unemployment, natural disaster, mental illness, or financial hardship. The number of people experiencing homelessness varies in definition and method of counting. Point in time counts entail the number of homeless individuals on a given date. Period in time counts entail those individuals that have experienced homelessness over a specific period of time. Each year at least 2.5 to 3.5 million Americans sleep in shelters, transitional housing, and public places not meant for human habitation. Data related to homeless is less than exact. Agencies work from varying definitions. The U.S Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) uses a definition limited to those living in shelters, transitional housing, and public places. Whereas the U.S Department of Education (DoE) utilizes a broader definition that includes families doubled up with others. HUD reports annually

"Point-in-Time" counts of the unsheltered population. Methodologically this method is flawed in terms of data collection. Counts of the unsheltered population vary based on shelter capacity which is dependent upon funding. The above mentioned conflicts garner inconsistent numbers.

Prior to the 2008 recession, an estimated 2.5 to 3 million men, women, and children were experiencing homelessness (as defined by HUD). Over one million individuals working full or part time were unable to pay for housing. The number of people who lost their homes and or are living doubled-up due to economic necessity was recorded as 7.4 million people in 2012. As defined by the terms of the DoE, 1.2 million school children were homeless in the 2012-2013 school years. The National Law Center on Homelessness Poverty survey reported tent cities across the country. The Center for Housing Studies at Harvard University in June 2014 reported more than one out of every four renters (27%) paid over 50% of their income in rent. Per the same report (2012) 27% of African- American households paid over 50% of their incomes in rent, 24% of Hispanic households, and 21% of Asian households; only 14% of White households paid over 50% of their incomes in rent.

Demographics

The "sheltered" homeless population for 2012 is listed as follows:

- 63% male

- 37% female

- 83.7% non-Hispanic/non-Latino, 16.3% Hispanic Latino

- 38.9% White, non-Hispanic, 9.5% White Hispanic

- 39.4% Black or African-American; 5% other single race: 7.2% multiple races

- 22.6% under age 18

- 23.5% age 18 to 30

- 35% age 31 to 50

- 15.6% age 51-61

- 3.2% age 62 and older

- 63.1% single-person household

- 38.6% disabled

When compared to the total population and those living in poverty, the homeless are more likely to be an adult male, African- American, unaccompanied, and disabled. In 2012, 37.4% of the total sheltered and unsheltered homeless were people in families. Homeless veterans accounted for one in 156 veterans. In a 2014 survey of 25 US cities, 15% of homeless adults were identified as survivors of domestic violence. A 2013 National census of domestic violence services found that 60% of unmet requests were those for housing (emergency shelter and transitional housing). In 2007, the National Network to End Domestic Violence (NNEDV) conducted the National Census of Domestic Violence. The census was designed to collect the unduplicated count of adults and children seeking services during a single 24 hour period of time. The 2007 Census represented a 69% participation rate (of the 1,949 programs eligible to participate, 1,346 participated). A total of 53,203 adults and children were provided support and services. More than 7.707 requests for services were unmet. Reported shortages in but not limited to housing, transportation, and legal representation were documented. On the reporting date, more than 25,000 victims requested and received housing- via emergency shelters or transitional housing. Emergency shelter is designed to provide short-term living space

in response to crisis. Participating programs indicated that the average length of stay in shelter was 36 days. Transitional housing is designed to assist individuals upon exiting the emergency shelter prior to securing permanent housing. The reported average length of stay for transitional housing was 300 days. Lack of funding was cited as the number one barrier to providing services. Forty-two percent of the participating programs reported a budget of less than $500,000 a year. The limited funds and unmet demands are part in parcel. The deficits compromise the needs of those seeking services. The data is only a snapshot that requires a more in-depth analysis.

The number of young women who became pregnant while homeless has steadily grown over the last 30 years- between 6% and 22% as compared to just above twelve percent of the general population pregnancy rate. Crawford et al (2011) investigated pregnancy, mental health, and motherhood in a three-year longitudinal study that followed homeless adolescents. Homelessness interrupts typical adolescent development and the transition into adulthood. Over the course of three years of data collection, of the 171 women contacted at least one time after the baseline interview, "83 reported being pregnant at some point during the three years." (Crawford et al, 2011, p 9). The results indicated that a majority of the women met the criteria for lifetime mental or substance use disorders. Reports varied from a history of major depressive episodes, conduct disorders, as well as post traumatic stress disorders. Women that are homeless are in the highest category of pregnancy risk. Limited access to Medicaid and food/nutrition insecurity is often overlooked barriers faced by this group. Babies born to homeless mothers are at high risk for low birth weight and developmental issues.

Rahman, Turner, and Elbedour (2015) examined historical trajectories of U.S federal initiatives in response to youth homelessness. During the 2011-2012 academic year, 59,711 unaccompanied homeless students were reported enrolled in U.S. public schools (Rahman, et al, 2015, p 688) The rise in numbers has spurred various initiatives to support the education and development of homeless children and youth. After the initial research wave in the 1980s, since 2005, researchers can access academic performance data to track enrollment and attendance. Resilience is examined in how to utilize, teach, and foster resiliency traits and coping skills in youth experiencing adversity. As reported by Rahman et al (2015) 75% of homeless students drop out before graduating high school (p 701).

Insufficient income and the lack of affordable housing are the leading causes of homelessness. As classified by HUD, in 2012, 10.3 million renters (one in four) had "extremely low incomes" (ELI). An ELI household is one in which the income is at or below 30% of the area median income (AMI). The AMI is defined as the median family income in the metropolitan or nonmetropolitan area. A unit is deemed affordable if a household can rent without paying more than 30% of the household income on housing and utility costs. After rent and utilities, 75% of ELI households have little more than half of their income to cover necessities (including but not limited to food, transportation, and childcare). The foreclosure crisis in about 2008 created a ripple effect. Since this time, state and local groups have reported a 61% rise in homelessness since the crisis began. Domestic violence is the leading cause of homelessness for women. When surveyed, major cities across the United States have reported the causes of homelessness among families as (1) lack of affordable housing (2) unemployment (3) poverty (4) low wages

(listed in rank order). Within the same report, the causes of homelessness for unaccompanied individuals as (1) lack of affordable housing (2) unemployment (3) poverty (4) mental illness and the lack of needed services (5) substance abuse and the lack of needed services.

The National Low Income Housing Coalition (NLIHC) annually examines the availability of rental housing affordability. The findings illustrate the acute shortage of affordable housing for the lowest income Americans. The 2014 published findings show the growth in demand yet shortfall in supply. There were 31 affordable and available rental units per 100 ELI renter households. The number of affordable and available rental units is complicated by development challenges (insufficient revenue to cover operating expenses for example). In 2012, some little more than 2.3 million affordable rental units were available to the ELI group and more than 90% of the households paying more than ½ their income on housing costs, placing this group at the highest risk of experiencing homelessness. In the same year (2012) there were 41.7 million renter households in the United States (36% of all households). Households that are burdened as a result of low income may often eliminate necessities from the budget. Quality of life is often compromised in exchange for housing affordability.

A state by state analysis indicates that no state has sufficient units affordable to ELI renter households. In every state at least half of all ELI renters experienced severe housing cost burden. While state level data is important, this is not sufficient to understand the dynamics of affordable housing shortages. Many times the units are located in areas that are geographically remote and not accessible to public transit,

employment, or other services. Location also significantly impacts the cost, with the average rent of a unit in a metropolitan area being exponentially higher.

The Kentucky Housing Corporation (KHC) was created by the 1972 General Assembly. KHC is a self-supporting public corporation governed by a Board of Directors and administratively attached to the Kentucky Finance and Administration Cabinet. A portion of the funds are derived from interest earned through the sale of tax-exempt mortgage revenue bonds. A fee income is generated for administering federal programs, including rental assistance to low-income Kentuckians. In collaboration with organizations and entities across the state programs offered include rental housing financing, administering Low-Income Housing Tax Credits, homeownership education/counseling, housing rehabilitation, homeless programs, home energy and repair initiatives as well as loan servicing.

The statewide Housing Policy Advisory Committee in partnership with KHC reviewed data related to the state of housing throughout the Commonwealth, issuing a report in March 2012. The compilation is comprised of available data that provided a concise look at the factors affecting housing in general and affordable housing in particular. The data was designed to be of use in increasing understanding the issues affecting the allocation of resources that aid persons in obtaining and maintaining safe, quality housing. The data is outlined in tables 5 and 6.

The policy priorities for 2017-2018, as outlined by the NLIHC include:
• Reprioritizing current federal spending to better serve those with the greatest needs
 • Protecting, expanding and monitoring the implementation of the National Housing Trust Fund

• Preserving and increasing resources for federal affordable housing programs serving extremely low income families/individuals

• Ensuring equitable access to affordable housing

• Championing anti-poverty solutions.

Each year to help Americans buy and rent their home, the federal government spends about $200 billion dollars. A full three-quarter of those resources goes to subsidize higher income homeowners. Only a quarter is left to assist those with the greatest and the clearest needs. Federal housing programs are chronically underfunded. One in four families is eligible for federal housing assistance. Advocates and special interest groups stipulate that in order to address the housing affordability crisis, Congressional measures must be increased in terms of resources allocated for federal housing programs. Specifically increased funding for Housing Choice Vouchers, public housing, project-based rental assistance, and the HOME Investment Partnerships program are on the list of suggested practices. The expansion and reform of the Low Income Housing Tax Credit to better serve families with the greatest needs. Access to stable, affordable housing in communities of opportunity has broad, positive impacts- leading to better health and education outcomes and higher lifetime earnings, especially for children. Fair housing and civil rights advocates as well as affordable housing and community development practitioners can find common ground in policies that increase opportunities for underserved people in both high-opportunity areas and through revitalizing urban neighborhoods. There must be a strong commitment to enacting legislation and protecting resources that alleviate poverty.

Per the National Alliance to End Homelessness, the programs outlined in the McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Grants Program within the federal government are not funded at the level necessary to provide effective assistance. The emphasis has been extended to include permanent supportive housing and rapid re-housing. The funds provided in the FY 2017 do represent an $80 million dollar increase however the funding is at risk for cuts.

CHAPTER 5

Conclusion

Dykeman (2011) reviewed the literature that described psychological and sociological factors pertaining to homelessness. Of interest to this study are the models of service delivery reviewed. The author reviewed the multiplicity of interacting factors. Heterogeneity of the homeless population places greater demands upon service and or treatment providers in addressing the needs of clients within the homeless population. The contributing factors of homelessness are varied and many. The two most frequently referenced pathways to homelessness include economics and mental status. The economic pathway includes factors such as unemployment, housing shortages, and medical indebtedness. Mental factors often include mental illness, family conflict, and substance use and dependency. Natural disaster may result in the loss of shelter that has profound economic or psychological implications. Individuals may experience a decline in psychological, social, and biological functioning as they transition from independence to dependence. Individuals impacted by homelessness are likened to members of a marginalized group that face discrimination in various forms. There are three primary orientations within the theoretical models: psychological, sociological, and psychosocial.

Interventions within service delivery will be determined in part by the theoretical orientation of the model. Psychologically oriented models assign treatment responsibility to a treatment provider or team. Sociological-oriented models advocate for needs by brokering community resources. Psychosocial models work with individual deficits in addressing structural factors operating within the environment. Despite the variance in the models, each emphasized a need to provide basic needs as well as create opportunities

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to develop skills necessary to prevent future experiences of homelessness. The specific roles will vary across the models of service delivery. The literature suggests models should involve consultation, collaboration, counseling, and advocacy. Maslow's physiological and safety needs are addressed in advance of higher order needs. Consultation with the affected individual will determine what is needed and desired. Community agency collaboration will aid in addressing continuing needs. Counseling services will address lifestyle issues and focus on self perception, compensation for perceived inferiority, competency/mastery, goals, and attitudes toward life, meaning, and or purpose. Professionals bared the responsibility of advocating for the homeless in part to promote the welfare of the client population. Collaboration occurs with local, regional, and federal resources to influence public policy. Practical considerations should be reviewed. It is of note, though implied, basic respect for individual dignity and worth must be preserved. Naturally basic needs for food, clothing, and shelter are critical, yet treatment objectives should also address preventative skills. There must be a considerable and sufficient investment of time to build trust. The needs of the homeless cross dimensions of biological, psychological, social, economic, and institutional domains.

Sanders and McClellan (2014) described the ways in which nonprofit organizations reconcile tension between being business-like and pursuing a social mission. Two theoretical contributions are offered concerning nonprofit organizing. Fulfillment of a social mission is an ontological feature of nonprofit organizational culture. A business-like refinement is a communicative practice rather than operational processes or organizational structure. Nonprofit organizations work to secure the financial resources necessary to fulfill social missions. Growing competition for

resources and finances is a pressing challenge. To combat this challenge, the non-profit organization is expected to operate in a business-like fashion. The caution to heed is that this business-like mentality is incompatible of for-profit and nonprofit value operations. Nonprofits practice caution as to not compromise the democratic ideals of fairness and justice. This compromise hinders the nonprofit sectors in addressing social problems. Sanders and McClellan (2014) argued "it is more productive to understand how nonprofit practitioners negotiate and live with these differing concerns in everyday organizational life." (p 70). Tension is embraced as a normal outcome of contradictions. Communication plays "the central role in the construction and management of tension in local, situated practice." (Sanders and McClellan, 2014, p 71). This creates the opportunity to conduct analyses that addresses organizational tensions. Theoretically tensions are to be negotiated rather than resolved. Additionally, communication is negotiated to address relationships and compatibility. By doing so, the scholar and or practitioner is better able to recognize the need for critical sensitivity to politics. The overall aim of this research study was to reclaim inherent tensions and "engender alternative forms of talk that might lead to more useful ways of nonprofit organizing." (Sanders and McClellan, 2014, p 72). Within this examination, understanding and insight is an interpretive understanding of local practices. Generative transformation is critical effort in identifying alternative ways of thinking to generate new ideas. The critique offered can be used to assist practitioners define the work in their terms and the promotion of the organizational interest. Building upon this statement, social missions and market concerns are interconnected. The findings of this study highlighted the sophistication in which nonprofits seek to redefine organizing practice. Nonprofit practitioners should avoid describing activities in business

terms, as is limited. Sanders and McClellan (2014) determined nonprofit organizations "rely upon the constitutive force of communication to successfully negotiate who and what they need to become in both institutional and everyday talk." (p 85) The authors concluded an understanding of the nonprofit organization requires a "productive tension between both financial imperatives and social mission." (Sanders and McClellan, 2014, p 86) Nonprofit organizations cannot be wholly business like or wholly mission focused.

Addressing homelessness is an interest of community development. Community development aids communities achieve social equity. Community develop is rooted in New Public Administration (NPA). Hatcher (2015) proposed utilizing best practices for social equity in the implementation of the assets model. The assets model is more likely to promote effective and fair outcomes. The understanding of social equity affords government systems the ability to resolve social development issues. It matters less there is no accurately inclusive term for social equity as the interpretation is set by the organizations that identify specific needs. Key terms such as "justice", "fairness", and "equitable" are prominently linked in scholarly pursuits and practice. A common theme across the NPA literature accessed for this body of work is the call for additional research to explore and broaden the awareness of social equity. The objective is to make decisions that emphasize fairness to ensure the same benefits and opportunities across the community. Scholars and theorist conclude that social equity is akin to fairness in action. The responsibility lies with the field that public administration cultivate administrative theory and practice that "promote efficiency, effectiveness, and equity in government and nonprofit organizations." (Hatcher, 2015). Historically the focus has been on efficiency-neglecting effectiveness and equity. The limited scope created highly efficient yet

undemocratic or ineffective organizations. The NPA School of thought (1960s) promoted social equity and democratic values. Public administration cannot be value neutral. NPA scholars promote social equity in the following ways:

- Practices ensure the protection of groups that have suffered or are suffering from discriminatory practices.

- Represent the community served- mirror demographic makeup of community and serve policy wishes.

- Institute democratic decision-making policies. Public involvement (particularly on the local level) is key.

Prescriptions offered for community development theory and practice call for overall community participation to craft and implement the shared community vision. The assets model and community development are concerned with broadening participation, specifically citizen participation. Assets model argues for sustainable development.

Expansion of public administration in the areas of policy formation and the governance of networks will highlight the role of networks in the entire policy process. The literature calls for a continued push towards the increased conceptual and definitional clarity in the field. (Lecy et al, 2014). We cannot argue that government is sufficient, efficient, or economic if we do not consider who is being served. Economy, efficiency, and effectiveness are concerned with how government operates. Equity questions for which government operates. Public administration has long been held to a notion of neutral implementation of public policy. As we define and broaden our understanding and scope of practice, it is evident the call for fairness, justice, and equity require increased awareness and application. Public administrators are hard pressed to advocate

for that which has yet to be clearly defined and subsequently measured. As defined by the NAPA, social equity in public administration has three major aspects:

1. Simple fairness and equal treatment.

2. Distribution of resources to reduce inequalities in universal programs and services.

3. Redistribution of resources to level the playing field through targeted programs. (Major, 2011, p 238)

The end goal is to either maintain or create equal opportunity. In the daily operations of government, practices such as due process and equal access to services are examples of simple fairness and equal treatment. In developing said practices, equity is equivalent to equality- all constituents are afforded access. For those who may be disadvantaged, extra consideration is given to create equality opportunity. Practices exercised by government that promote assurances of fairness and equal access to services and programs are considered best practices- relatively creating ease of measurement. Data collection of clients provides measures of access. Evaluating applications can determine due process. Policies related to distribution and redistribution of resources to create equality of opportunity is at the heart of John Rawls's argument involving social justice and the distribution of resources. All members have the same basic rights of liberty and the resources should be distributed to provide the greatest benefit to the least advantaged. Building upon this, it is possible to measure outcomes for social equity given proper data collection and the establishment of benchmarks. Use of cost-benefit analysis to calculate social return on investments is of increasing attention. Although public administrators are not in a position to resolve historical social inequalities, the role of gatekeeper to local

government can be served. Tools for improvement as identified by Spina (2013) include but not limited to:

- Analyzing unmet needs coupled with recommendations either to improve policy or create new programs.
- Encourage public participation and dialogue.
- Public administrators should assess their conduct and contacts within the community.

There is a call within the literature for university programs to promote social equity in the field of Public Administration. Core courses should be designed to include knowledge of the historical patterns of inequity. The challenge is upon public administration educators to be more forthright in discussing social equity across the curriculum rather than saving for select elective courses. Major (2011) stated "From the simple (procedural fairness and equal access) to the complex (targeted programs to increase equality of opportunity) social equity is essential to the practice of public administration." (p 250) The public administrator must possess an understanding of needs, strengths, and weaknesses that impact implementation of public policy. Failure to address components and separateness will only exacerbate the issues at hand.

When leaders work well with employees of diverse backgrounds, this demonstrates a commitment to representativeness and promotes diversity in policy and procedure. The literature supports decisions that foster investments in leadership behaviors, policies, and procedures. (Choi and Rainey, 2010) This can applied to diverse work groups that include community and clientele. Administrative practice must not cling

to notions of neutrality. Public Administrators needs to understand how others view them and utilize this information in theory and purpose. (Alexander and Stivers, 2010).

If the United States is to prosper in the globalized world that is ever evolving, we must actively work to socially and economically integrate disadvantaged segments of the community. Challenges are certainly considerable yet not insurmountable. Public administrators must change the public perception of social welfare and related programs. If citizens lack the knowledge of challenges faced by all segments of the community, they will be vulnerable to argue for simplistic solutions. Leaders must become more adept at working with the community to create opportunities to address disadvantages and deficiencies. If opportunities are afforded to both the advantaged and disadvantaged, there is broader sense of community support, which may include a willingness to increased taxes to fund investments.

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Appendix

Appendix A: Tables

Table 1 Frederickson's Moral Leadership Timeline

Introduces social equity as a concern that should guide the behavior of public administrators (1971).

Argues that social equity is a dimension of performance much like responsiveness (1980).

Argues that citizens are "groping" for public institutions that serve the public interest (1982).

Rejects the legitimacy of the policy-administration dichotomy, arguing that administrators are not neutral in decision-making processes and have a responsibility for actions focused on the well-being of the underclass (Frederickson and Hart 1985).

Warns against simplistic fiscal solutions, such as "cutback administration," and urges public leaders to engage citizens to guide institutional change (1982).

Urges public administrators to reach out to community through participative democracy and "benevolent patriotism" (Frederickson and Hart 1985).

Identifies "underclass hypothesis" as a concern (i.e., service delivery neglect of disadvantaged) and challenges public administrators to particularly address inequality in public education (1990).

Develops "compound theory" of social equity that recognizes multiple "equalities" deserving consideration when evaluating impact on community (1990).

Identifies "intergenerational equity" as a concern and encourages public administrators to balance concerns of present-day and future generations (1990, 1994).

Intensifies the call for moral leadership that enlists broad public support to advance social equity (2005).

Source: Glaser, M., Hildreth, W., McGuire, W., Bannon, C. (2012). Frederickson's' Social Equity Agenda Applied. *Journal of Public Integrity*. 14(1). 19-37.

Table 2. Competing paradigms: Changing ideological conceptions of governance and public management.

	Traditional Public Administration	*New Public Administration*	*Networked Governance*
Context	Stable	Competitive	Continuously changing
Population	Homogeneous	Atomized	Diverse
Needs/Problems	Straight forward	Wants through market	Complex, volatile
Strategy	Stage and producer centered	Market and Customer centered	Shaped by civil society
Governance through actors	Hierarchies Public Servants	Markets, purchasers, providers clients and contractors	Networks and partnerships
Key Concepts	Public Goods	Public Choice	Public Value

Source: Hartley, Jean. (2005). Innovation in Governance and Public Services: Past and Present. *Public Money & Management*. 25. 27-34.
http://wiki.dbast.com/images/7/77/Innovation_in_Governance_and_Public_Services-_Past_and_Present.pdf

Table 3 Innovation and improvement in different conceptions of governance and public management

	Traditional Public Administration	New Public Administration	Networked Governance
Innovation central and	Some large-scale National and universal innovations	Innovations in organization for more than content	Innovation at both local levels
Improvement and improvement services	Large-step change improvements Initially but less capability for Continuous improvement	Improvements in managerial processes and systems Customer focus produces Quality improvements in some Services	Aiming for both transformational continuous in front-line
Role of policy-makers interpreters	Commanders	Announcers/Commissioners	Leaders and
Role of public managers	Clerks and martyrs	Efficiency and market maximizers	Explorers
Role of the population	Clients	Customers	Co-producers

Source: Hartley, Jean. (2005). Innovation in Governance and Public Services: Past and Present. *Public Money & Management*. 25. 27-34.
http://wiki.dbast.com/images/7/77/Innovation_in_Governance_and_Public_Services-_Past_and_Present.pdf

Table 4 Homeless Appropriations for Targeted Federal Programs FY 2011-2015

	Department	FY 2011	FY 2012	FY 2013	FY 2014	FY 2015
Education for Homeless Children and Youth	ED	$65,296	$65,173	$61,771.00	$65,042	$65,042
Emergency Food and Shelter	DHS/FEMA	$119,760	$120,000	$113,805	$120,000	$120,000
Projects for Assistance in Transition from Homeless	HHS	$64,917	$64,794	$61,405	$64,635	$64,635.00
Homeless Assistance Grants	HUD	$1.091,000	$1,901.00	$1.933.293	$2.105,000	$2,135,000

Source: Congressional Research Service. (2015). CRS Report. Homelessness: Targeted Federal Programs and Recent Legislation. https://fas.org/sgp/crs/misc/RL30442.pdf.

Table 5 Kentucky Population and Demographic Trends 2000-2010

Population
2000   4,041,769
2010   4,339,367
Change   297,598   7.4%
Nationwide Trend   9.7%

Race and Ethnicity	2000	2010	Change
White	90.1%	87.8%	-2.3%
Black/African-American	7.3%	7.8%	.5%
American Indian/Alaska Native	.2%	.2%	0.0%
Asian	.7%	1.1%	.4%
Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%
Two or more races	1.1%	1.7%	.6%
Hispanic or Latino origin	1.5%	3.1.%	1.6%

Housing	2000	2010	Change
Family households (related persons)	69.4%	66.9%	-2.5%
Family households with children under 18	32.5%	28.7%	-3.8%
Female head of household	11.8%	12.7%	0.9%

Table 3 Continued

	2000	2010	Change
Nonfamily households (not related)	30.6%	33.1%	2.5%
Single individual households	26.0%	27.5%	1.5%
Households 65 or older	9.8%	9.8%	0.0%
Grandparents in household with grandchildren	2.8%	3.5%	.0.7%
Average household size	2.47%	2.45%	-.02%
Average family size	2.97%	3.0%	.03%
Average household size owner-occupied	2.55%	2.51%	-.04%
Average household renter-occupied	2.27%	2.31%	.04%

Source: Kentucky Housing Corporation. (2102). State of Housing In Kentucky report.
Prepared by KHC for the Kentucky Statewide Housing Policy Advisory Committee.
http://www.kyhousing.org/Resources/PlanningDocuments/Documents/HousingStudyBroch906.pdf

Table 6 Gap Between Rent Affordability and Fair Market Rent Rate

State Poverty Rate 18.9%
National Poverty Rate 15.3%

Mean Renter Wage Earner $94
Extremely Low Income Household $219
Minimum Wage Earner $257
Supplemental Security Inc. Recipient $432

Kentucky Monthly Rent Affordable to Selected Income Levels Compared with Two-Bedroom FMR In Kentucky, the Fair Market Rent (FMR) for a two-bedroom apartment is $634. In order to afford this level of rent and utilities – without paying more than 30% of income on housing – a household must earn $2,112 monthly or $25,340 annually.

Assuming a 40-hour work week, 52 weeks per year, this level of income translates into a Housing Wage of: $12.18

In Kentucky, a minimum wage worker earns an hourly wage of $7.25. In order to afford the FMR for a two-bedroom apartment, a minimum wage earner must work 67 hours per week, 52 weeks per year. Or a household must include 1.7 minimum wage earners working 40 hours per week year-round in order to make the two-bedroom FMR affordable.

In Kentucky, the estimated mean (average) wage for a renter is $10.39. In order to afford the FMR for a two-bedroom apartment at this wage, a renter must work 47 hours per week, 52 weeks per year. Or, working 40 hours per week year round, a household must include 1.2 workers earning the mean renter wage in order to make the two-bedroom FMR affordable.

Source: Source: Kentucky Housing Corporation. (2102). State of Housing In Kentucky report. Prepared by KHC for the Kentucky Statewide Housing Policy Advisory Committee.
http://www.kyhousing.org/Resources/PlanningDocuments/Documents/HousingStudyBroch906.pdf