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Benchmarking in El Paso County, Texas

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**Do Differences Exist?
Technology Benchmarking In El Paso County, Texas**

By

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El Paso County 911 District



Overview

The issue of technology use at all levels of government and business has grown from one of relative scant discussion related primarily to efficiency in industrial and service processes, to a dominant theme in business and government. Discussions of technology and the role it plays in community development have also become a high level agenda items,¹ even more so in communities that were left behind in the technology explosion of the “dot.com” period of the 1990s. No where is this more evident than in the historically poor border communities of the United States-Mexico border, where the effects of the technology boom of the nineties, it could be argued, were slow to develop as a result of low incomes, low education levels² and the absence of community-based leadership that drove a technology-based economic development strategy.

Of particular importance in the border region is the absence of technology characteristics including: 1) few fast growth companies based in technology; 2) a clear strategy to transform the regional economies; 3) a lack of proto-type strategies to begin the transition (Intelligent community Forum, 2001). In the border region spanning the southern United States and the northern frontier of Mexico, these characteristics began to develop in some ways in the late 1990s. Economic development organizations, for example, pointed to the availability of fiber optic lines and the potential to develop call centers for a variety of service sectors (i.e., credit card companies, insurance claims, catalog sales) as evidence of a technology base for a new economy. More critical thinkers, however, likened these developments to replacements for the declining garment industry in that they were not proto-types that would result in fast growing firms. In addition, comprehensive strategies to transform the economic base were left undeveloped as the maquiladora industry and the benefits from NAFTA provided generally short term relief in many areas of the economy. From another perspective, the service sector expanded in border communities such as El Paso, but remained dependent on their relationship to maquiladoras and, thus, forces of globalization.³ One result of this series of events was recognition in El Paso of the need to benchmark current technology usage and how it impacts the community at a variety of levels, including individual and homes, business and in education. Put simply, in order to build a plan, benchmarking can serve as process by which practices can be analyzed in order to determine what needs to be done to

improve performance. Benchmarking enables strategy because it provides a starting point from which data based planning activities can proceed.

In El Paso, Texas, a community similar in many respects to most border communities, but one that is slightly more prosperous by border standards,⁴ a variety of groups have been interested in a county-wide technology usage and access survey for some time and determined that the first benchmark, home and individual technology usage was required. In large part, this interest was generated by the original *Digital Divide* study conducted by the National Telecommunications and Information Administration (NTIA) in 1995. This first study, *Falling through the Net: A Survey of the "Have Nots" in Rural and Urban America*, showed how African Americans, Hispanics, and—at the time—women trailed behind their white, male, more affluent counterparts in terms of computer and Internet access and use. Subsequent NTIA studies released in 1998, 2000, and 2002 showed substantial gains among minorities and low-income groups in terms of improved access, but concluded that nationally they still trailed well behind. More importantly, the limited data available suggests that as an underserved community, El Paso and other border communities may be at an even greater risk as technology becomes a cornerstone of the modern education and workplace environments. Within this context this study was undertaken, spearheaded by interest from government, education and business leaders.⁵

With a first goal of benchmarking the state of technology use among citizens, the study also provided data that suggest many previous conclusions about technology among ethnic groups, in this case Hispanics who make up over 75 percent of the border residents, may not hold true when examined at the regional level.

Technology Change and Benchmarking

The business world long ago accepted change as the predominant theme that would guide planning and development. To survive, private sector organizations understand that they must be able to adapt to consumer desires, restructure to fend off competition, and refine production processes to keep costs low. This change has been documented in a variety of key studies. Joseph Schumpeter's classic works suggested that a vibrant economy would breed "creative destruction."⁶ This process sees business innovation lead to the elimination of old technologies or processes on a continuing basis. Along the same line, Lester Thurow proposed that "disequilibrium" was a key force that required businesses to

eliminate the “old” even though it may have value because of the added-value of new technology.⁷ Without adapting new technology at a rapid pace, a business, in conceptual terms of Thurow and Schumpeter, would be eliminated in a technology-driven Darwinian process of survival of the current.

Within the border region, Thomas L. Friedman’s *The Lexus and the Olive Tree* provides more insight into these effects.⁸ Friedman suggest that if your business, your country, or your culture, for whatever reasons, do not stay abreast of fast moving markets and the forces of creative destruction you will simply be left behind. Given the economic condition of the border region after the 1990s, is it safe to ask if these forces were at work. Did “creative destruction” occur in the region? Is the technology gap too large to bridge in the short-term? Regardless, is there a strategy that can be taken by communities to close the gap?

A first step in developing a strategy is to determine where you are. Benchmarking at one point in time is not only important for determining the strategies that may be required but for knowing how much effort will be needed. At the governmental level, the private sector is looked to as a model for innovation, leading different levels of government to institute—sometimes ill-fated—programs ranging from Total Quality Management (TQM) to the Senior Executive Service (SES), the latter of which was designed to create ‘corporate level’ government positions that could compete with private sector salaries and prestige. One of the most successful innovations of late, if used properly, is benchmarking.⁹ Companies ranging from Fujitsu to Motorola both improved corporate performance by benchmarking their own practices respective to the best performers in specific industries.

While similar efforts by governmental organizations do exist,¹⁰ the void that remains in benchmarking community needs has yet to be addressed in any organized fashion. The best effort of its kind is that currently being carried out by the Urban Institute (UI) in its National Neighborhood Indicators program. While not specifically termed benchmarking, the data sets recommended by UI are, in effect, point in time snapshots of the consumers of government.¹¹ The sole purpose of the UI program is to train communities to use data to affect policy, although current programs are centered in large, often prosperous, cities ranging from Milwaukee and Denver to Oakland and New York.

Noticeably absent from the recommended UI data sets, however, are any measures of overall community technology use, as are any advanced methods of data analysis. A worthwhile effort in this

arena was funded by the City of San Diego, California.¹² What made this particular study interesting was not only its attempt to capture the state of technology use in the city at the time, but its understanding of the link between overall technology use and the potential for economic growth. As good as it was, however, what was missing was a reliable scale by which other cities, or even different groups within a city, could judge themselves beyond simple frequencies and percentages. To this end, a key goal of our study was to gather an accurate assessment of the state of technology use in the county of El Paso, Texas. The final survey instrument was developed such that the data collected could be used to compare groups within El Paso, and by extension El Paso to other cities.¹³ As part of this effort, a set of questions included on the survey instrument designed as a technology use and proficiency benchmark for the city. If reliable, or “internally consistent,” the scale could be used to shed light on real differences between the groups (income, education, ethnicity) measured on the scale.

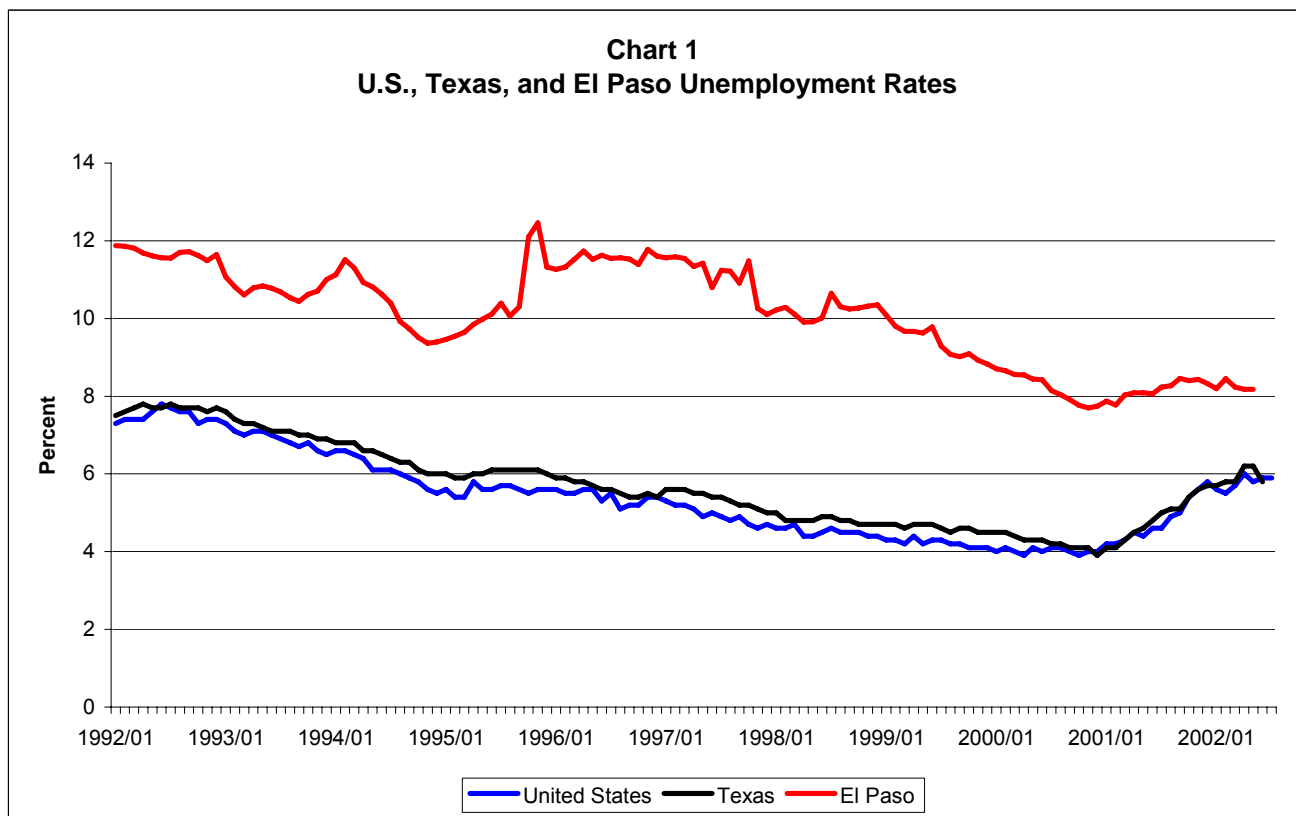
The Setting: El Paso, Texas

El Paso, Texas is located in far West Texas along the United States–Mexico border and sits across the Rio Grande from Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua México. In 2001, just under 690,000 people lived in El Paso,¹⁴ somewhat less than was estimated prior to the 2000 Census when over 700,000 were forecasted. This mismatch begins to tell part of the El Paso story. From 1990 through about 1994, El Paso experienced relatively strong growth both in terms of birth rates and in-migration. After 1994, however, El Paso actually had a negative migration rate. Explanations for the exodus abound, but many point to higher salaries in other metropolitan areas and El Paso’s relatively high unemployment rate, which typically hovers two to three points above the national and state rates (Chart 1). As of December 2002, El Paso’s unemployment rate climbed above nine percent (9.1, seasonally adjusted),¹⁵ well above the state rate of 6.5 percent.¹⁶

El Paso’s weak economy was brought about by a variety of factors. For close to two decades (1970s and 1980s), the city hinged its future on the low wage garment industry, and when companies like Levi Strauss finally moved on in search of even lower wages in South America, very few business groups were prepared to develop a new economic base. The recovery has been a slow one, but as of yet the 13 percent unemployment rates of 1996 have yet to return. This is in part a function of the evolution of the

local economy to a service base, but many obstacles must still be overcome if the transition is to be made.

Most important is El Paso's educational attainment rate. Aside from the strong correlation between education and income along the U.S. Mexico border,¹⁷ a well-educated population ensures that industries that do locate to an area can find trained employees. Thus far, fixing the educational pipeline locally has met with mixed results. As of 2000, El Paso trailed both the state and nation in the percentage of the population with high school degrees as seen in Table 1. Only 65.8 percent had graduated from high school, compared to 75.7 and 80.4 percent at the state and national level, respectively. The same trend is evident for those with bachelor's degrees or higher. In 2000, only 16.6 percent of El Paso residents had four year college degrees, far less than state (23.2 percent) and national (24.4 percent) averages.



Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics

Table 1
Comparative Education Levels: 2000

	El Paso	Texas	United States
High School Graduates	65.8%	75.7%	80.4%
College Graduates	16.6%	23.2%	24.4%

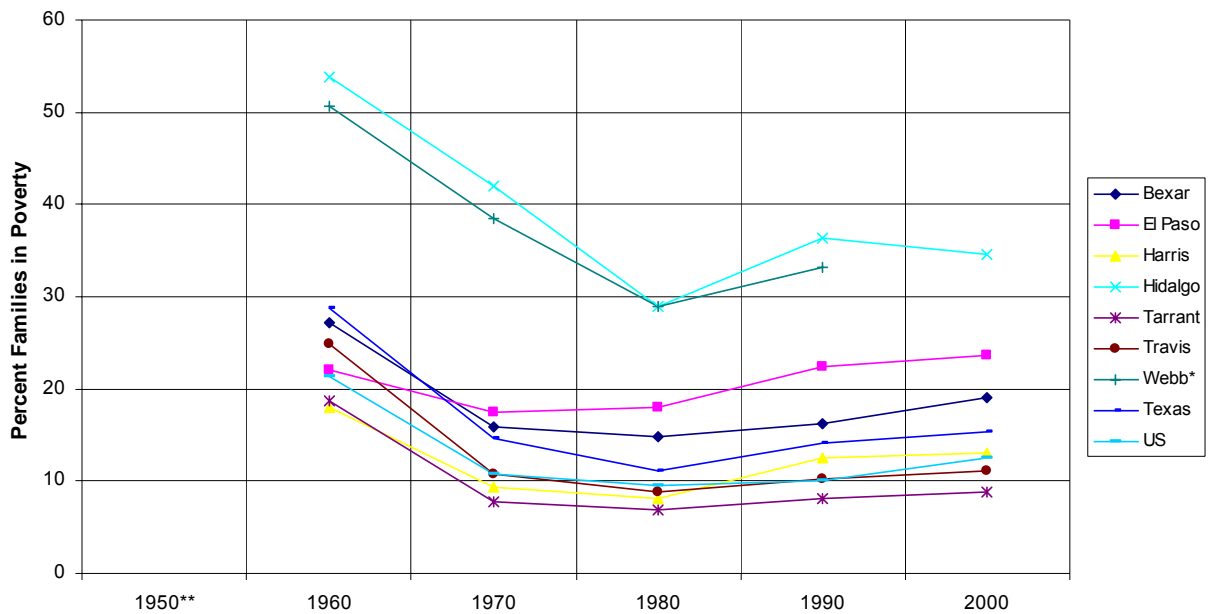
Not surprisingly, the above challenges have led to lower overall income rates and higher poverty rates. El Paso's median household income in 1999 was \$31,051, 77 and 74 percent of the state (\$39,927) and national (\$41,994) totals, respectively. Per capita income figures are even more disturbing, as El Paso's per capita income level is only 62 percent of the national amount. Poverty figures tell a similar story; in the 2000 Census, 23.8 percent of El Paso residents fell below the federal poverty limit. Texas had only 15.4 percent of its population below the poverty level, while the U.S. average was even lower at 12.4 percent, presenting a dramatic story in Chart 2.

Thus, when the original NTIA study was released in 1995, few questioned that El Paso had a long way to go to match state and national technology use levels. What was more important was the fact that a changing economy was going to need an entirely different kind of employee than was required by the garment industry, as even the large call centers being recruited to town required basic computer skills.

Method

The survey was conducted from September 16th through the 28th, 2002, using a Random Digit Dialing (RDD) sample of El Paso County phone numbers that was pre-tested for disconnects and fax machines. With random digit dialing, every household with a working phone within a county has an equal probability of being selected, as the numbers are generated *at random* based only on the working prefixes (first three numbers) for a selected area. In total, 609 surveys were completed. All interviewers were bilingual in English and Spanish, and calls were made from 12:00 p.m. to 8:00 p.m. each day, Monday through Sunday. Potential participants were informed of the purpose of the study, that participation was voluntary, and that all responses would remain confidential and reported only in the aggregate.

Chart 2
Percent of Families in Poverty for Selected Counties in Texas, 1950-2000

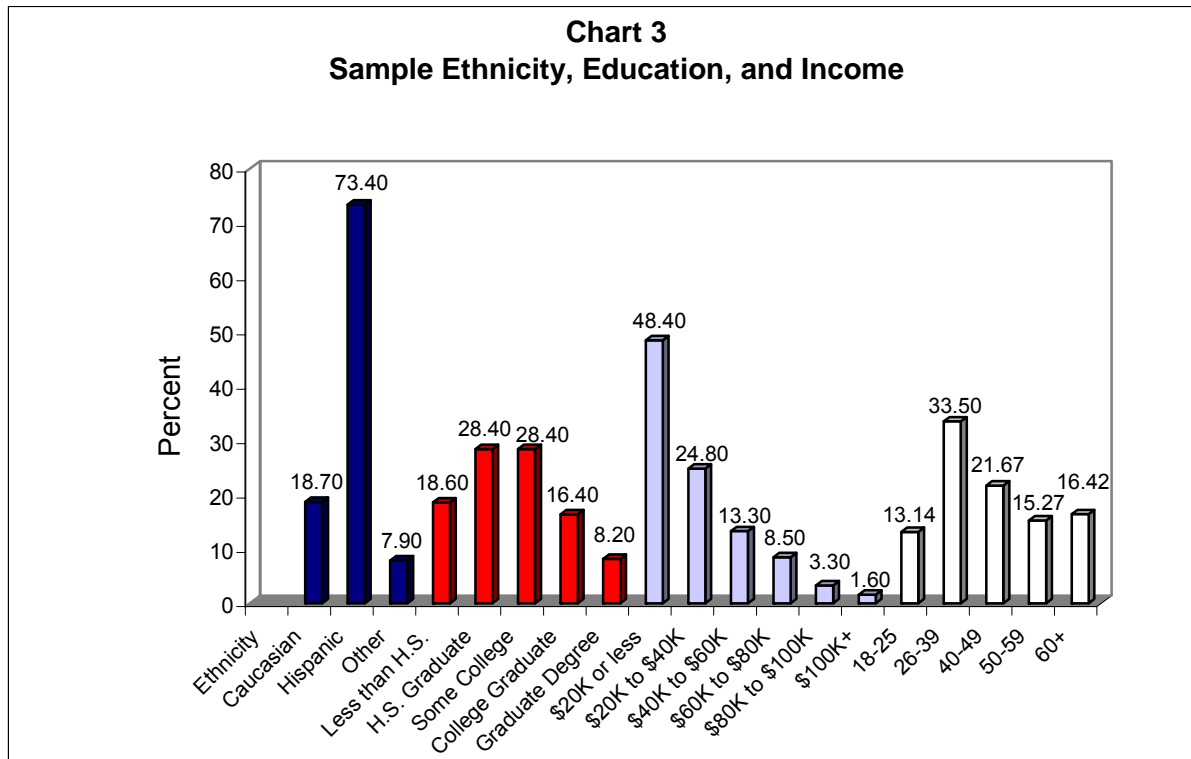


Source: U.S. Decennial Census 1950-1990
 Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Demographic Surveys Division

At the 95 percent confidence level, a county-wide sample of 609 provides an accuracy level of plus or minus four percent of the mean (i.e., a range of 96 percent to 104 percent of the county-wide mean). The ninety-five percent confidence level can be interpreted to mean only that if the above interval was constructed for many different samples of the same sample size, for approximately 95 percent of the samples, the interval would include the unknown population mean.¹⁸

Findings

Participants generally mirrored the demographic and socioeconomic composition of El Paso County in the 2000 Census (Chart 3). Over 73 percent (73.4) of the sample were Hispanic, followed by Whites, who composed 18.7 percent of the sample. The remainder was made up of 7.9 percent self-identifying as “Other.” The largest income group reported a total household income of \$20,000 or less (48.4 percent) reflecting the low income status of the region. Twenty-five percent (24.8) had household incomes

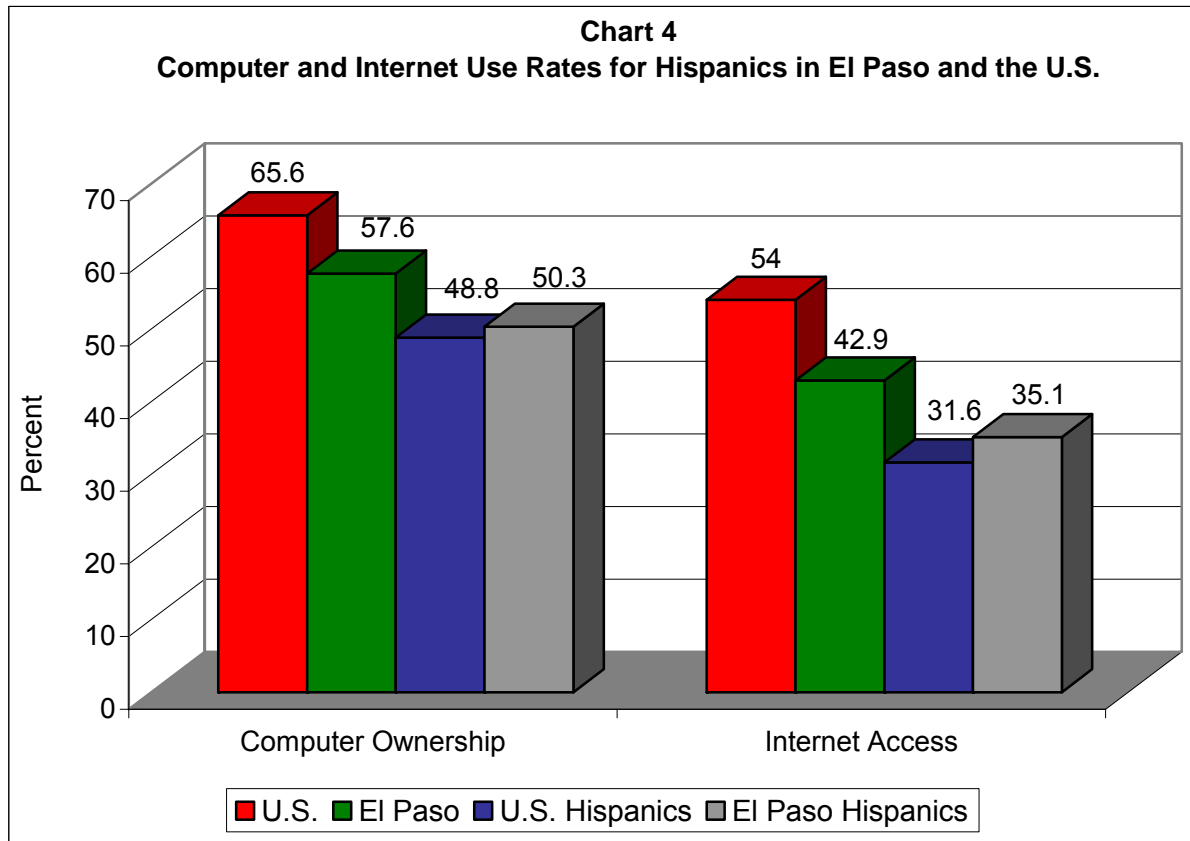


between \$20,000 and \$40,000; 13.3 percent earned between \$40,000 and \$60,000; 8.5 percent earned between \$60,000 and \$80,000; 3.3 percent earned between \$80,000 and \$100,000; and 1.6 percent earned above \$100,000. The majority of the sample also fell into lower education categories. Nearly a fifth (18.6 percent) had less than a high school education, and 28.4 percent graduated from high school which includes the GED. More than a quarter (28.4 percent) had some college (includes technical school training), followed by 16.4 percent who held a bachelor’s degree. Eight (8.2) percent of the sample hold a graduate degree. Age distribution indicates that nearly one-third of the respondents to the survey were between 26 and 39 years of age (33.5 percent), and a group we anticipate will become or already are technology users. The second largest sample subset is made up of 40 to 49 year olds (21.7 percent), a group that has experienced the technology boom in their adult years. The sample above 50 years of age (31.7 percent) is receiving technology in increments, albeit somewhat quickly, after they reached adulthood. At the other extreme, 18 to 25 year olds who have experienced considerable technology throughout their life comprise 13.1 percent of the respondents to the survey. Overall these characteristics are consistent with the regions demographics as reported in the 2000 Census and provide a representative sample for drawing conclusions and accurately benchmarking the community.

How El Paso Compares¹⁹

Although the most recent NTIA study is over a year old, comparisons to the recently collected El Paso data shed light on a number of areas. As Chart 4 shows, nationwide in 2001, 65.6 percent of households owned computers, compared to 57.6 percent of households in El Paso. Hispanics in El Paso actually fared better than their U.S counterparts, with 50.3 percent reporting that they owned computers, although this figure is well within the margin of error for this study. The same general trend holds true for Internet access. Across the nation, fifty-four percent of homes had Internet access in 2002, compared to 42.9 percent for El Paso. El Paso Hispanics also had somewhat higher Internet use rates (35.1percent) than Hispanics nationally (31.6 percent). Neither of the findings is surprising, however, given that El Paso's Hispanic community is largely heterogeneous, as would be expected in any county where the largest ethnic group makes up 78 percent of the total population.²⁰

These data, however, we believe only provide limited information in that real differences between ethnic and other groups cannot be detected on the basis of percentages alone. The real question that should influence policy is: How much of the variability in technology use is explained by ethnicity or other factors, such as income, education, and age? Moreover, are these differences between groups



statistically significant in the sense that one group differs in its overall mean score from others. It would be useful if the NTIA provided such data, but no real comparisons between groups are made, aside from a binary logistic regression approach adopted for the 1999 NTIA study. Even then, only Internet use and access to computers are evaluated; and as technology continues to evolve, these measures hardly describe technology use as a key component of a skilled workforce and technology as part of civic culture.²¹ To respond to this problem, the El Paso study incorporated a number of items that were intended to measure both tools, such as computers, and uses of technology, such as Internet banking. The items in total were intended to provide a much clearer picture of how El Pasoans were using technology in their daily lives.

Technology Scale

The first step in detecting differences between groups is building a reliable scale. For the study here, 18 binary items (0 = no, 1 = yes) were summed to create a composite score (ranging from 0 to 18) of technology proficiency. The data collected suggest that the scale as constructed is reliable (Cronbach $\alpha=.842$) (or internally consistent) well above the normally accepted minimum of $\alpha=.7$. While some caution

should be taken when using binary items in summed scales because of a violation of the linearity assumption for individual items,²² the use of Chronbach’s Alpha is still useful in that it represents a *lower-bound* of reliability. The items included in the scale are as follows:

Do you have access to the following device in your home or use any of the following?

Television	Regular cable TV	Digital cable or satellite cable
Cellular phone	Pager	Personal digital assistant (PDA)
Fax	Web TV	Digital camera
ATMs	Debit cards	Banking by phone
Shopping by phone	Wireless Internet	Internet banking
Internet shopping		

Do you currently have a computer at home?

Do you currently have Internet access at home?

The distribution of responses for the scale are provided in Table 2. These data show that the majority of the respondents fell into the low technology use category, 58.62 percent we call “learners,” suggesting that overall the community may have a generally low rate of adoption of technology and technology-related services. One-third (33.99 percent) fall into the medium use category, or “adapters” indicating a mix of uses and a proclivity for adoption of a mix of technologies and their applications that in many ways have become a daily part of life. For example, television, cell phones and ATMs are rather routine for many people and are not exotic or exclusive, as in the case of cellular phones, as they were ten years ago. Those who fall into the high technology use category, our “technologists”, are less than 10 percent of the total (7.39 percent) and use a broad range of applications and services, making inclusion of technology a routine and inclusive part of their lives. Chart 5 provides a graphic of this distribution. The normal curve indicates that the mean of 6.2 puts equates with the “learners” level, which, based on the discussion of intelligent communities would seem not to be a positive indicator in economic development terms.

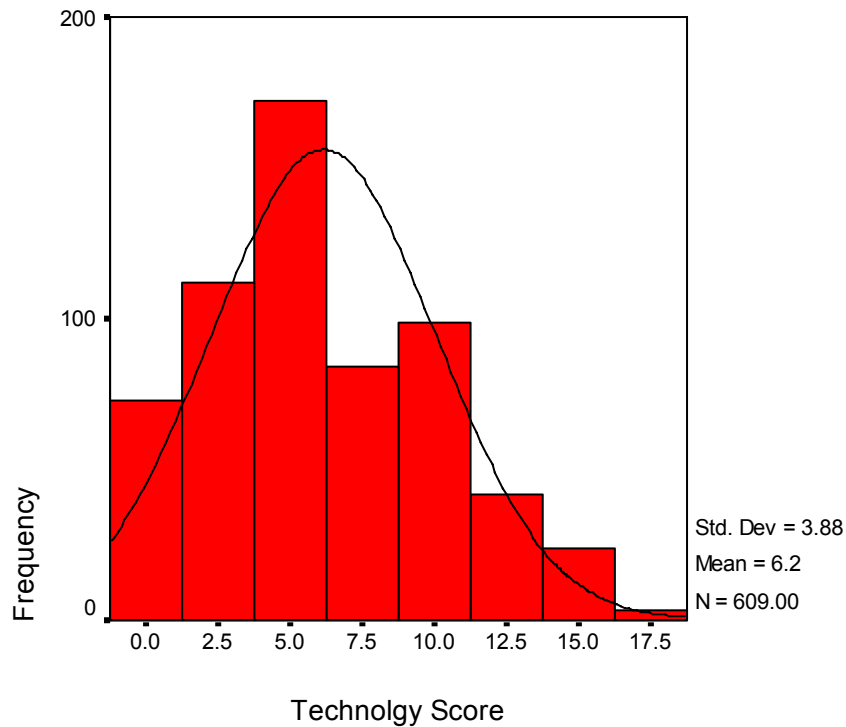
Given that the technology use scale is internally consistent, as discussed above, additional statistical tests become available. For the purposes here, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) approach is appropriate for detecting overall differences between groups. To detect differences between individual

groups and to control for increases in the family-wise error rate, a Tukey HSD post-hoc test is used. Inasmuch as statistical significance is a function of sample size in such tests,²³ more weight will be

Table 2
Distribution of Technology Use Index Scores

Index Score	Frequency	Percent	General Categories
.00	4	.7	
1.00	69	11.3	<i>Low</i>
			(Learners)
.00	52	8.5	<i>Scores 0 to 6</i>
3.00	60	9.9	357
4.00	55	9.0	58.62%
5.00	63	10.3	
6.00	54	8.9	
7.00	43	7.1	
8.00	41	6.7	<i>Medium</i>
			(Adapters)
9.00	33	5.4	<i>Scores 7 to 12</i>
10.00	35	5.7	207
11.00	31	5.1	33.99%
12.00	24	3.9	
13.00	18	3.0	
14.00	16	2.6	
15.00	7	1.1	<i>High</i>
			(Technologists)
16.00	1	.2	<i>Scores 13 to 18</i>
17.00	2	.3	45
18.00	1	.2	7.39%
Total	609	100.0	

Chart 5
Distribution of Technology Use Scale



placed on the discussion of R^2 values.²⁴ The ideal follow up to such an evaluation would be analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), where variables such as income could be used as covariates with the technology scale to test for differences between ethnic groups; however, one of the key assumptions of ANCOVA is the homogeneity of regression coefficients.²⁵ This assumption is violated here, so a traditional linear regression approach will be used to test how each of the variables discussed above explain variability in the summed technology use and proficiency scale.²⁶ What this leads to is asking what differentiates the “learners” from the “adapters” and the “technologists.”

Analysis of Variance

Not surprisingly, particularly given the sample size for this study, the result for every one-way ANOVA was statistically significant at the $p = .000$ level or better as shown in Table 3. Unfortunately, this provides little information beyond what one can glean from each of the NTIA studies, namely that there are differences across ethnic groups and income and education levels in terms of overall technology use. Income did far better than each of the other independent variables, explaining 32.6 percent of the variability in technology use. Education, although not as strong in its explanatory power, also did well,

explaining 21.4 percent of the variability in technology use. Given previous NTIA research, one would expect ethnicity to explain a high degree of technology use. Ethnicity explained a relatively small amount of variability in the dependent variable. The R^2 value of .081 suggests that only slightly more than eight percent of the variability in the technology scale is explained by a person's ethnicity, raising questions about earlier discussions that saw a strong link to ethnicity. Age was the weakest of all of the variables tested, explaining only 5 percent of the variability in the technology scale.

<i>IV</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>df error</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Significance</i>	<i>R²</i>
Income*	5	603	58.415	.000	.326
Education*	4	604	41.030	.000	.214
Ethnicity*	2	606	26.668	.000	.081
Age*	4	604	14.414	.000	.051

* Equals statistical significance at $\alpha = .05$ or better

The Tukey HSD post-hoc tests (Full tables available in Appendix 1) provide further insight about the differences between the groups included within each of the independent variables. Income behaves just as one would expect from NTIA research. Respondents making under \$20,000 ($m = 4.217$ $sd = 3.068$) and \$20,000 to \$40,000 ($m = 6.404$ $sd = 3.223$) had statistically lower mean scores than each of the higher income groups, while the \$20,000 to \$40,000 group mean score was also statistically higher than the under \$20,000 group. Findings for the education variable follow along the same general path. Those with less than a high school education ($m = 3.336$ $sd = 2.582$) and those who had completed only high school ($m = 5.127$ $sd = 3.31$) had statistically lower mean scores than each of the higher education groups. This is borne out by the fact that once a person has some college education, many of the statistical differences disappear until at least a graduate degree is obtained. The results for the age variable are intriguing. Higher levels of income and education are often associated with age, which one would suppose would lead at least middle age groups to be more proficient in technology use than at least some of the lower age groups. This is not the case, as the only statistical difference is between those 60 and above ($m = 4.222$ $sd = 3.888$) and each of the other education groups, and the difference is a negative one in that the oldest age group has a lower overall mean score than each of the other groups. Based on NTIA research, ethnicity also behaves as expected. Hispanics ($m = 5.497$ $sd = 3.825$) had a lower mean score than both Whites ($mean = 8.166$ $sd = 3.402$) those self reporting as "other" ($m = 7.500$

$sd = 3.531$). Based on these two analyses the findings are consistent for income, education and age, but we have some indications that ethnicity may not follow the trend of previous research.

Linear (OLS) Regression

The above ANOVA analyses would suggest that each of the variables, with the possible exception of age, behaves as expected (Table 4). The real question is whether differences between ethnic and age groups still exist after controlling for income and education, both of which explained the highest degree of variability in the dependent variable above. Linear regression allows a formal test of each of these variables when combined in one model. The examination below was conducted in four stages, with one variable being added at each step. Model one includes only income, while models two through four include, in succession, education, age, and then ethnicity.

The most surprising finding of the results is not that income again was the strongest of the variables included, but the degree to which the variables combined to explain variability in the technology score. The t and F statistics provided are well below the $p = .05$ level for all but model four, where ethnicity is not statistically significant. The implications for these findings are twofold. Most important is that fact that even without ethnicity, the remaining variables still explain 40 percent of the variability in overall technology use, while income and education alone explain more than 36 percent. The ethnicity findings also coincide with another technical report released by IPED which studied computer ownership and internet access from home.²⁷ Further consideration of the ethnicity variable clearly suggest that the role of ethnicity explains less than at the national level. The fact that a large Hispanic population makes up the border region no doubt explains part of this finding. Perhaps what is more important is that Hispanics have begun to move from being “learners” to becoming “adapters.” Technology is less and less limited to those with high incomes and/or higher educational levels, it is becoming a mainstream phenomenon that will continue to expand. However, income is a limiting factor and technology is adapted and consumed after many other needs are met. In this regard, evidence that Hispanics are becoming adapters in the border region, contrary to some indications of the opposite at the national level, may bode well in transforming communities and economies in the border region.

Discussion

Clearly, the ANOVA and regression results presented paint seemingly different pictures. There are measurable differences between income, education, age, and ethnic groups in overall technology use. What is important, however, is how much of the variability in technology use is explained simply by group membership. For age and ethnicity, only 5 and 8 percent, respectively, of the overall variability is explained. While this seems somewhat high, income and education clearly play far more important roles. Moreover, once controlling for income education, and age, the effects of ethnicity are negated.

In a practical sense, these findings are surprising when compared to anecdotal national evidence, but should come as no surprise to local policy makers or those who follow development in the border region. El Paso’s Hispanic population is a large and heterogeneous one, composed of individuals from vastly different education and income levels. As local efforts are mounted to address technology issues, these and other similar findings should be considered to the extent that differences do exist between groups; but to make significant change, income and education gaps should guide existing and new program implementation and policy.

**Table 4
Technology Scale Model Summaries**

Model	Independent Variables	B	t	Significance	F	Model Significance	R ²
$T\hat{S} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{income})$	Constant	2.664	10.775	.000	275.091	.000	.312
	Income	1.760	16.586	.000			
$T\hat{S} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{income}) + \beta_2(\text{education})$	Constant	1.138	3.681	.000	171.775	.000	.362
	Income	1.405	12.275	.000			
	Education	.817	6.886	.000			
$T\hat{S} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{income}) + \beta_2(\text{education}) + \beta_3(\text{age})$	Constant	3.342	7.165	.000	134.314	.000	.400
	Income	1.424	12.813	.000			
	Education	.816	7.082	.000			
	Age	-.588	-6.186	.000			
$T\hat{S} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{income}) + \beta_2(\text{education}) + \beta_3(\text{age}) + \beta_4(\text{ethnicity})$	Constant	.3508	6.7	.000	100.623	.000	.400
	Income	1.424	12.802	.000			
	Education	.817	7.068	.000			
	Age	-.588	-6.186	.000			
	Ethnicity	-.0036	-.359	.720			

The above results should also serve as a county benchmark such that future replications of this study should show smaller and smaller amounts of explained variability based on income and education. Not only would future replications be important as measures of a key component of El Paso’s growth, like all benchmarking data they could also serve as a tool for continuous program improvement in a variety of domains.²⁸ At the high end, a comprehensive strategy to boost technology use and its value as a tool in

the economy of the region is required. This strategy must view technology as enabling and a component across existing as well as emerging sectors. Given that El Paso is a larger and more prosperous town within the border, it is likely that other communities may fall behind these findings. In addition, this strategy is required to also have an international component which was not addressed here, but is an inescapable part of the border. Using technology in the bi-national sphere will help develop “good governance” and overall goes to improving the region’s quality of life (Johnston, 2001, pp. 193-199). Regardless, these findings do show that the ethnicity variable may not play as critical of a role in explaining why technology has not been adapted than studies done at the national level have concluded. Further examination of this issue clearly should follow and the “benchmark” provided here will, hopefully serve as a model to follow in other areas of the border region.

Endnotes

¹ Intelligent Community Forum. (2001) *Benchmarking the Intelligent Community*, New York, World Teleport Association.

² Fullerton, T.M. Jr. (2001). Educational Attainment and Border Income Performance. Federal Reserve Bank of Dallas *Economic and Financial Review*, Third Quarter, 1-10; Brenner, Christine. (2001) *Educational Trends and Income in El Paso: A Longitudinal Perspective*, El Paso, TX, Institute for Policy and Economic Development, IPED Technical Report: 2001-07.

³ Canas, Jesus (2002). A Decade of Change: El Paso’s Economic Transition of the 1990s, *El Paso Business Frontier, Issue 1*.

⁴ Brenner, Christine, Dennis L. Soden, and Elizabeth Dalton, *Balance of Payments in El Paso: Fiscal Federalism from 1995-2000*, El Paso, TX, Institute for Policy and Economic Development, IPED Technical Report: 2001-04.

⁵ In this regard, funding for the data collection part of this study was provided by The Institute for Policy and Economic Development (IPED) at the University of Texas at El Paso (UTEP), El Paso Electric, El Paso Water Utilities, and El Paso County 911 incurred all costs for this study in order to provide a baseline for technology use in El Paso County.

⁶ Joseph A. Schumpeter. (1975) *Capitalism, Socialism and Democracy*. New York: Harper [orig. pub. 1942], 82-85.

⁷ Lester Thurow (1999). “Building Wealth: The new rules of individual, corporate and nations, *The Atlantic Monthly*, Vol. 283 (6)., 57-69.

⁸ Friedman, Thomas, L. (1999) *The Lexus and the Olive Tree*. New York, Farrar, Strauss and Giroux.

⁹ Jarrar, Yasar and Mohamed Zairi. (2001). “Future trends in benchmarking for competitive advantage: A global survey.” *Total Quality Management* 12(7-8), 906-912.

¹⁰ Zairi, Mohamed. (1996). *Effective Benchmarking: Learning from the Best*. London. Chapman and Hall.

¹¹ Tatian, Peter A. (2000). *Indispensable Information: Data Collection and Information Management for Healthier Communities*. Washington D.C. The Urban Institute.

Kingsley, G. Thomas. (1999). *Building and Operating Neighborhood Indicator Systems: A Guidebook*. Washington D.C. The Urban Institute.

¹² Godbe Research and Analysis. (2000). *Resident Opinion Survey. Conducted for the City of San Diego*. December 2000. San Diego, California: Author.

¹³ A copy of the survey instrument is available on request.

¹⁴ U.S. Census Bureau. 2000 Census. <http://quickfacts.census.gov/qfd/states/48/48141.html>

¹⁵ Bureau of Labor Statistics. <http://data.bls.gov/cgi-bin/surveymost>. IPED seasonal adjustment.

¹⁶ Bureau of Labor Statistics. <http://data.bls.gov/cgi-bin/surveymost>. Seasonally adjusted.

¹⁷ Fullerton, T.M. Jr. (2001). Educational Attainment and Border Income Performance. Federal Reserve Bank of Dallas *Economic and Financial Review*, Third Quarter, 1-10

¹⁸ Further, all statistical procedures below have sufficient power at the $\alpha = .05$ level, as effect sizes (R^2) of .10 have power of .80 with 110 subjects.

¹⁹ The initial IPED report for this study, "Survey of Technology Use in El Paso County," provides overall frequencies and percentages for 126 different variables that comprised the original survey instrument. This report can be found at <http://iped.utep.edu>.

²⁰ U.S. Census Bureau. 2000 Census. <http://quickfacts.census.gov/qfd/states/48/48141.html>

²¹ Norris, Pippa. (2001). *Digital Divide*. New York, NY: Cambridge Press.

²² McDonald, R. P. (1999). *Test theory: A Unified Treatment*. Mahwah, NJ: LEA.

²³ Carver, Ronald P. (1978). The Case Against Statistical Significance Testing. *Harvard Education Review*. 48(3).

Feinstein, Alvan R. (1998). P Values and Confidence Intervals: Two Sides of the Same Unsatisfactory Coin. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*. 51(4).

²⁴ R^2 is an indicator of the amount of variability in the dependent variable (technology proficiency) described by the factor or group (ethnicity, income, education, or age).

²⁵ Kepple, Geoffrey. (1991). *Design and Analysis: A Researcher's Handbook*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall. pp. 301-326.

²⁶ Each of the analyses below also has sufficient power in that R^2 values of .10 have sufficient power at the .80 level with only 110 subjects; the fewest in any of the analyses below is 609

²⁷ McElroy, Mathew, and Dennis L. Soden. (2003) "El Paso's Digital Divide: A Multivariate Analysis of Computer Ownership and Internet Access from Home in El Paso County." Institute for Policy and Economic Development, University of Texas at El Paso. Technical Report 2003-09.

²⁸ Jarrar, Yasar and Mohamed Zairi.

Appendix 1

Income Tukey HSD

(I) For statistical purposes only, what is your total household income?	(J) For statistical purposes only, what is your total household income?	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
\$20K or less	\$20K to \$40K	-2.1870*	.32030	.000	-3.1027	-1.2713
	\$40K to \$60K	-4.5855*	.40154	.000	-5.7335	-3.4375
	\$60K to \$80K	-5.4177*	.48144	.000	-6.7941	-4.0413
	\$80K to \$100K	-5.7331*	.73964	.000	-7.8476	-3.6185
	\$100K+	-8.1831*	1.02927	.000	-11.1256	-5.2405
\$20K to \$40K	\$20K or less	2.1870*	.32030	.000	1.2713	3.1027
	\$40K to \$60K	-2.3985*	.44086	.000	-3.6589	-1.1381
	\$60K to \$80K	-3.2306*	.51469	.000	-4.7021	-1.7592
	\$80K to \$100K	-3.5460*	.76170	.000	-5.7237	-1.3684
	\$100K+	-5.9960*	1.04524	.000	-8.9843	-3.0078
\$40K to \$60K	\$20K or less	4.5855*	.40154	.000	3.4375	5.7335
	\$20K to \$40K	2.3985*	.44086	.000	1.1381	3.6589
	\$60K to \$80K	-.8321	.56882	.688	-2.4583	.7940
	\$80K to \$100K	-1.1475	.79927	.705	-3.4326	1.1375
	\$100K+	-3.5975*	1.07292	.011	-6.6649	-.5301
\$60K to \$80K	\$20K or less	5.4177*	.48144	.000	4.0413	6.7941
	\$20K to \$40K	3.2306*	.51469	.000	1.7592	4.7021
	\$40K to \$60K	.8321	.56882	.688	-.7940	2.4583
	\$80K to \$100K	-.3154	.84225	.999	-2.7233	2.0925
	\$100K+	-2.7654	1.10531	.125	-5.9254	.3946
\$80K to \$100K	\$20K or less	5.7331*	.73964	.000	3.6185	7.8476
	\$20K to \$40K	3.5460*	.76170	.000	1.3684	5.7237
	\$40K to \$60K	1.1475	.79927	.705	-1.1375	3.4326
	\$60K to \$80K	.3154	.84225	.999	-2.0925	2.7233
	\$100K+	-2.4500	1.23976	.357	-5.9943	1.0943
\$100K+	\$20K or less	8.1831*	1.02927	.000	5.2405	11.1256
	\$20K to \$40K	5.9960*	1.04524	.000	3.0078	8.9843
	\$40K to \$60K	3.5975*	1.07292	.011	.5301	6.6649
	\$60K to \$80K	2.7654	1.10531	.125	-.3946	5.9254
	\$80K to \$100K	2.4500	1.23976	.357	-1.0943	5.9943

Based on observed means.

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Education Tukey HSD

(I) What is the last grade or level you completed in school?	(J) What is the last grade or level you completed in school?	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Less than H.S.	H.S. Graduate	-1.7909*	.41795	.000	-2.9344	-.6474
	Some College	-3.8487*	.41795	.000	-4.9922	-2.7052
	College	-4.6637*	.47441	.000	-5.9617	-3.3657
	Graduate Degree	-5.4837*	.58692	.000	-7.0895	-3.8779
H.S. Graduate	Less than H.S.	1.7909*	.41795	.000	.6474	2.9344
	Some College	-2.0578*	.37153	.000	-3.0743	-1.0413
	College	-2.8728*	.43407	.000	-4.0605	-1.6852
	Graduate Degree	-3.6928*	.55482	.000	-5.2108	-2.1748
Some College	Less than H.S.	3.8487*	.41795	.000	2.7052	4.9922
	H.S. Graduate	2.0578*	.37153	.000	1.0413	3.0743
	College	-.8150	.43407	.331	-2.0027	.3726
	Graduate Degree	-1.6350*	.55482	.027	-3.1530	-.1170
College Graduate	Less than H.S.	4.6637*	.47441	.000	3.3657	5.9617
	H.S. Graduate	2.8728*	.43407	.000	1.6852	4.0605
	Some College	.8150	.43407	.331	-.3726	2.0027
	Graduate Degree	-.8200	.59850	.647	-2.4575	.8175
Graduate Degree	Less than H.S.	5.4837*	.58692	.000	3.8779	7.0895
	H.S. Graduate	3.6928*	.55482	.000	2.1748	5.2108
	Some College	1.6350*	.55482	.027	.1170	3.1530
	College Graduate	.8200	.59850	.647	-.8175	2.4575

Based on observed means.

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Age Tukey HSD

(I) Which of the following categories includes your age?	(J) Which of the following categories includes your age?	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
18-25	26-39	.3963	.50083	.933	- .9740	1.7666
	40-49	.1633	.53793	.998	-1.3085	1.6351
	50-59	.5579	.57893	.871	-1.0261	2.1419
	60+	2.6175*	.56949	.000	1.0594	4.1756
26-39	18-25	-.3963	.50083	.933	-1.7666	.9740
	40-49	-.2331	.42409	.982	-1.3934	.9273
	50-59	.1616	.47502	.997	-1.1381	1.4613
	60+	2.2212*	.46346	.000	.9531	3.4892
40-49	18-25	-.1633	.53793	.998	-1.6351	1.3085
	26-39	.2331	.42409	.982	-.9273	1.3934
	50-59	.3947	.51399	.940	-1.0116	1.8010
	60+	2.4542*	.50333	.000	1.0771	3.8314
50-59	18-25	-.5579	.57893	.871	-2.1419	1.0261
	26-39	-.1616	.47502	.997	-1.4613	1.1381
	40-49	-.3947	.51399	.940	-1.8010	1.0116
	60+	2.0596*	.54693	.002	.5632	3.5560
60+	18-25	-2.6175*	.56949	.000	-4.1756	-1.0594
	26-39	-2.2212*	.46346	.000	-3.4892	-.9531
	40-49	-2.4542*	.50333	.000	-3.8314	-1.0771
	50-59	-2.0596*	.54693	.002	-3.5560	-.5632

Based on observed means.

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Ethnicity Tukey HSD

(I) What ethnic group do you consider yourself a part of or fall closest to?	(J) What ethnic group do you consider yourself a part of or fall closest to?	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Caucasian	Hispanic	2.6700*	.39133	.000	1.7506	3.5894
	Other	.6667	.64173	.553	-.8411	2.1744
Hispanic	Caucasian	-2.6700*	.39133	.000	-3.5894	-1.7506
	Other	-2.0034*	.56649	.001	-3.3343	-.6724
Other	Caucasian	-.6667	.64173	.553	-2.1744	.8411
	Hispanic	2.0034*	.56649	.001	.6724	3.3343

Based on observed means.

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.